Handbook of Research on

Human Capital and People Management in the Tourism Industry

Vânia Gonçalves Costa, Andreia Antunes Moura, and Maria do Rosário Mira

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Handbook of Research on Human Capital and People Management in the Tourism Industry

Vânia Gonçalves Costa
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

Andreia Antunes Moura
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

Maria do Rosário Mira
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

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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
Web site: http://www.igi-global.com

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Costa, Vânia Gonçalves, 1978- editor. | Moura, Andreia Antunes, 1983- editor. | Mira, Maria do Rosário, 1963- editor.
Title: Handbook of Research on Human Capital and People Management in the Tourism Industry / Vânia Gonçalves Costa, Andreia Antunes Moura, and Maria do Rosário Mira.
Description: Hershey, PA : Business Science Reference, 2021. | Includes bibliographical references and index. | Summary: "This book examines human resource policies for tourism destinations and explores human capital managerial business approaches in tourism"-- Provided by publisher.
Identifiers: LCCN 2020006961 (print) | LCCN 2020006962 (ebook) | ISBN 9781799843184 (hardcover) | ISBN 9781799854869 (paperback) | ISBN 9781799843191 (ebook)
Subjects: LCSH: Hospitality industry--Personnel management. | Tourism--Personnel management.
Classification: LCC TX911.3.P4 H838 2021 (print) | LCC TX911.3.P4 (ebook) | DDC 910.68/3--dc23
LC record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2020006961
LC ebook record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2020006962

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.

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

Maximiliano Korstanje
University of Palermo, Argentina

ISSN:2475-6547
EISSN:2475-6555

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Business Science Reference • © 2020 • 290pp • H/C (ISBN: 9781799822042) • US $225.00

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Tel: 717-533-8845 x100 • Fax: 717-533-8661
E-Mail: cust@igi-global.com • www.igi-global.com

List of Contributors

Alves, Helena / *University of Beira Interior, Portugal* 303
Antosova, Gabriela / *University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic* 282
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Castro, Emanuel / *Associação Geopark Estrela (AGE), Portugal* 329
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Costa, Vânia Natércia / *School of Hospitality and Tourism, Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal* 41
Dieguez, Teresa / *Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave, Portugal* 20
Dionísio, Marta Santos / *Techn&Art, Instituto Politécnico de Tomar, Portugal* 1
Drakeford, Benjamin / *University of Portsmouth, UK* 243
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Gera, Rajat / *Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies, India* 73
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Krizova, Eva / *University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic* 282
Leite, Diogo / *Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal* 371
Malik, Sahil / *Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies, India* 73
Matos, Raquel / *Polytechnic Institute of Beja, Portugal* 128
Melo, Ricardo / *Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal* 371
Miller, James William / *FH JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences, Austria* 152
Mira, Maria do Rosário Campos / *Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal* 41
Moura, Andreia Antunes / *Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal &*

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Although there is a sustained and sustainable consumption and use of resources underlying it, tourist visitation always has a strong human component. Competitiveness in the tourism industry requires professionals with a set of skills integrated in the domain of "knowing how to do" and "knowing how to be." Portugal has extraordinary tourism resources and potential on which a relevant activity with a growing weight in the country's economy is being developed. Therefore, there are many challenges in order to ensure a competitive and high-quality tourism offer, being the dynamizing and mobilizing core of the country's economic and social sectors. In 2017, Portugal registered a record number of 20.6 million tourists, according to CIP data. For this reality to have a sustained term growth, it depends on the possibility of companies "driven" by knowledge to access highly skilled human resources familiar with new technological developments. This chapter explores human capital management in the tourism industry in Portugal.

As one of the world's largest economic sectors, travel and tourism creates jobs, drives exports, and generates prosperity across the world. Comprising a wide range of industries, it supports one in every ten jobs on the planet, has accounted for one in five of all jobs created across the world over the past five years, and is a dynamic and complex engine of employment opportunities. Its companies are inside a competitive arena and must ensure its sustainability on the basis of its greatest asset: its employees. Nowadays in the workplace there are a great diversity of cultures, ages, and generational differences, and employers have to explore new ways to motivate people to efficiently work. Each generation is unique and usually this variety does not work without supervision. The study will be conducted on two Portuguese Polytechnic Institutes with Masters Students from Hospitality and Tourism. As a methodology, it will be used a quantitative research. Conclusions may help companies to better understand the reasons why employees abandon them or are attracted by them.

This chapter presents a qualitative study, resulting from a systematic literature review using a text analysis technique through the NVivo software, version 10.0. This technique involves grouping words that reveal semantic similarity to each other and results indicate that considerations around soft and hard skills in tourism have been different over time. In short, it might be said that it is hard skills that lead people to job interviews, but it is soft skills that allow them to be recruited for employment. Hence, it is the combination of the two skill types that enables people to have a job in the tourism industry, manage a career, and contribute to the differentiation of tourism companies in the tourism global marketplace that tends to be increasingly competitive.

The chapter reviews the key concepts, definitions, individual and organizational antecedents, and individual and organizational outcomes of emotional labour (EL) in the tourism industry. The application of the concept in research and practice is discussed along with the implications. The theoretical domains of convergence and divergence are identified. key challenges and applications of EL with airlines cabin crew, restaurant service staff, and hotel industry frontline staff are identified and discussed. A systematic review of literature on EL in tourism is undertaken followed by critical appraisal of the implications of EL for HR practices in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Skills are understood as key issues in the labour market and conceptualised as individual attributes needed to perform competent work. The distinction between hard and soft skills is one of the most used theoretical conceptualization – hard skills being understood as technical skills, required of professionals, and soft skills being seen as personal traits which are not specifically related to the function. One hundred years after the publication of Mann's A Study of Engineering Education (1918), and as employers expect a new level of readiness from new hires, the focus is on bridging the soft skills gap. However, most of the literature delves into mismatched expectations of both industry and educators, and little documentation can be found regarding the skills that future employees believe their employers will require.

An increasing number of women occupy positions in the labour market that were previously restricted to men. This is, however, still limited by the dual roles of working women. This chapter aims to address gender issues in the tourism industry. Specifically, it focuses on female participation in the labour market, highlighting the characteristics of women in leadership positions. A case study approach was used, focusing on female leaders in the hotel sector in Fortaleza, Brazil. An exploratory qualitative study was developed through semi-structured interviews, which aimed to gather data on the career path of female leaders. The collected data allowed understanding how these women reached top-level positions, and their leadership styles. Results indicate that early entry into the labour market, dedication, education, entrepreneurial skills, and dynamic personality are instrumental and work directly affects family relationships, being the cause of some problems in their personal lives.

Although difficult to measure, intellectual capital (IC) is an essential resource for improving financial performance of companies. The hotel industry is characterized by being fundamentally a service provider, and is therefore very dependent of the IC components. Due to the small number of studies that relate IC with hotel sector, this research aims to understand the relationship between IC and financial performance of hotel companies. The sample is made up of 40 Portuguese companies in period between 2011 and 2017. To measure IC value was adopted the VAICTM model, a quantitative method that uses financial data. As representatives of the financial performance, the authors used the indicators of profitability: ROE, ROA, and ROI. The results prove that IC has a positive relationship with the financial performance of companies. Human capital proved to be the variable that has a greater impact on the variables of profitability, confirming the strong influence of human potential in hotel companies.

The tourism industry is facing tremendous challenges from labor shortages and a resulting loss of competitiveness. Changing digital environments as well as young people's communication habits and ideas regarding work-life balance are raising human resources related questions, to which currently no answers exist. In light of this issue, this chapter focusses on employer branding as a way to motivate present employees and attract new ones. It includes a discussion of different theories of workplace motivation, followed by a look at payment and further education issues. The so-called Generations Y and Z are investigated in the context of the labor shortage, and the generation concept itself is critically reflected. Furthermore, labor force aspects and working conditions in tourism are examined, with specific evidence from Austria. Finally, the discussion outlines an employer branding strategy as a way to address this problem.

Practical experience has increasingly become an important component of university training. Institutions have made efforts to provide students with the opportunity to experience business reality. To many students, a curricular internship is the first contact with the work market. The present work analyses this discipline in the context of the Master in Tourism Planning and Management of the University of Vigo. The research universe encompasses 182 internships, which took place from 2008 to 2014. Data was collected through structured questionnaires, which aimed to obtain information on the students' specific areas of interest within the tourism industry, their level of satisfaction with the internship program and whether they were hired by the host company afterwards. The findings show that both parts—students and companies—are highly satisfied with the experience in great majority of cases, and that curricular internships have been an indispensable tool for preparing these students to the demanding tourism industry labor market.

Travel has been advocated as a fortifying ground for experiential learning that can engage individuals in numerous experiences through the observation of the destination society and culture. In spite of the vast literature available about the link between tourism and experiential learning outcomes, there are limited studies that gauge educational tourists' familiarity with the intangible cultural heritage of their host communities. Particularly, this study focuses on local food, which is known as a marker of the destination culture and an intangible heritage that plays an inevitable role in almost any tourism experience. Correspondingly, the current exploratory study took an experiential learning approach to understand educational tourists' knowledge about local foods in Cyprus. The findings of the research revealed that educational tourists have very meager knowledge of local foods. The discussion is accordingly provided.

Work-family conflict (WFC) is a critical issue for the hospitality industry. Many hospitality employees face the challenges posed by WFC. Therefore, this chapter aims to examine the antecedents and consequences

Preface

The tourism sector has been presented as one of the most important sectors of the different economies for its capacity to contribute to economic growth and job creation (European Commission, 2017). Being an industry of people, it directly depends on the performance of activities, on skills, professionalism, quality and competitiveness, therefore it is essential to answer with precise planning politics, which should be the closest to the real needs of the sector. The tourism sector has not only an intensive need of labor force, but it also provides employment opportunity to a range of qualifications.

Tourism is an industry of people to people, directly dependent on the performance, skills and qualifications of tourism professionals. People management profound involvement within tourism actively influences its success, specifically considering quality and product/service differentiation, customer satisfaction and competitive positioning. Thus, it is essential to understand and monitor up to date tourism trends concerning people management, recognizing its importance for businesses and destinations.

Being tourism a strategic activity, in its essence, tourism generates employment and is an important element of regional development. Nevertheless, only qualified employment adds value to supply and destinations. Especially considering the times we live in, still struggling to overcome Covid-19 pandemic, it should be an opportunity to rethink the importance of People in the context of sustainable tourism development worldwide.

According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2015) there is a shortfall of 14 million jobs in the tourism sector but the labour market schooling ranking reveals low qualification levels and unskilled workforce. Certainly, this book will disclose guidelines, strategies and recommendations for this matter, based on reliable scientific research and data.

Human capital refers to the knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes that reflect the wealth of companies as they represent the economic income from the workforce associated with production. Human resources is a concept that, in a general way, represents a set of methods and techniques that allow to enhance the behaviors of people within the organizations, aiming to make the pursuit of the organizational objectives more effective, by improving communication and organizational climate, leadership, teamwork, among others. However, by using the terms ‘income’ and ‘resources’ we are treating this reality as if it were a homogenous and easily replaceable phenomenon.

On the contrary, approaching the perspective of people management stresses the need to humanize companies, making empowerment and commitment easier. These are key to setting ‘talents’ and, more importantly, to encouraging these individuals to put their creative capacities at the service of the companies in which they work. Only by being collaborative internally does business gain competitive capacity in the global marketplace. This aspect is crucial in tourism in the face of strong and growing competition in the sector.

The target audience of this book is composed of social sciences researches, lecturers, students, practitioners, entrepreneurs, policy makers and educators. All of them will gain expertise and benefit from innovative research discussions about different and broader experiences and perspectives on important issues related to human capital and people management in the tourism industry.

BOOK COVERAGE

This book, *Handbook of Research on Human Capital and People Management in the Tourism Industry,* is organized into 18 chapters.

Chapter 1, *Human Capital Management in the Tourism Industry in Portugal,* proposes the discussion about *t*he investment in human capital involves professionals with relevant specialization and qualification, to be able to compete globally and to respond to increasingly informed clients. At national and even regional level, the need to reorganize work processes, from stimulus to entrepreneurship and the creation of new business models is a cross-cutting concern today. Innovation processes also require such professional profiles. In order to reach new levels of sustainability, for economic, social and territorial cohesion to grow in the country and for the improvement of human capital in various dimensions such as employment, skills, employability and equal opportunities, it is necessary the identification of certain strategic domains for Portugal. This chapter focuses on the management of human capital in the tourism industry, with particular emphasis on the importance of selecting the right people, training and developing them, as well as retaining them in organizations, trying at the same time to acknowledge the contribution of this chapter to better quality service and hence customer satisfaction and return.

Chapter 2, *Understand Human Resources Needs in Tourism: A Competittive Advantage*, starts the discussion about the reality of the workplace, especially nowadays, the workplace has a great diversity of cultures, ages and generational differences and employers have to explore new ways to motivate people to work efficiently (Zemke, Raines, Filipczak, 2000). Each generation brings a unique culture, perspective and experience to the workplace, and usually this variety does not work without supervision. The problem is accentuated by itself due to the late retirement of Idealists / Baby Boomers and the abundance of Millennials / Y, who are trained but inexperienced, while Individualist Generation / X workers are not currently a bridge between the previous two (Jones, 2016). By 2020 it is estimated that around the world one third of the workforce will be constituted by Millenium Generation / Y (Manpower, 2016). Therefore, it is mandatory to evaluate what this generation privileges in order to be able to attract and retain Talents. Conclusions may help companies to better understand the reasons for employees abandoning them.

Chapter 3, *Soft Skills vs. Hard Skills in Tourism: Anything Else?* presents a qualitative study, resulting from a systematic literature review using a text analysis technique through the *NVivo software*, version 10.0.. Particularly, in tourism, without technical knowledge tourism loses quality and, consequently, competitive capacity. However, excellent tourism employees with high technical potential can be quite conformist about the idea of having a job, not aiming for a career. Routine is not necessarily boring for everyone, and the absence of incentive inevitably triggers job dissatisfaction. How people live in these situations depends on their soft skills. In short, it might be said that it is hard skills that lead people to job interviews, but it is soft skills that allow them to be recruited for employment. Hence, it is the combination of the two skill types that enables people to have a job, manage a career and contribute to the competitive differentiation of tourism companies in the tourism global marketplace that tends to be increasingly competitive.

The chapter 4, *Emotional Labor in the Tourism Industry: Strategies, Antecedents, and Outcomes*, discusses how emotional labor in the tourism is understood and practiced by Industry and academics. How Emotional Labor is defined and conceptualized, its importance to tourism and the role of emotional labor in the in Development of the sector is reviewed. The various strategies adopted by Tourism Industry to deliver quality through people and the its impact on emotional labor along with the factors affecting it are critically discussed in the chapter. How organizational strategies are developed and implemented to manage the conduct of employees working in tourism sector and the consequences of emotional labor are reviewed from the perspectives of employees, customers and organizations.

In Chapter 5, *Great Expectations: The Graduates' View of Skills in Hospitality*, in line with recent literature currently looking into the kind of skills needed for several professional activities in different business activities, this study aims to characterize the skills needed in hospitality. More specifically this study intends to identify hard and soft skills understood as important skills for hotel graduates. In this chapter a quantitative, transversal and descriptive study was performed with a sample of recent graduates. An online survey was carried out, comprising questions regarding socio-demographics, important skills for hospitality, skills obtained upon graduating, and skills obtained after graduation. Conclusions suggest that recent graduates perceive both hard and soft skills as important for hotel operators. For graduate professionals, hard skills also integrate skills from related areas such as marketing and economics. These results highlight the importance of ensuring that undergraduate programmes not only integrate several technical dimensions, but also promote the development of soft skills throughout the entire course of studies. Understanding the perspective of other players such as employers, professors or customers is paramount if we are to have a sound grasp of the phenomenon.

Chapter 6, *Gender and Tourism: Female Leadership in the Hotel Sector*, aims to address gender issues in the tourism industry. In detail, it focuses on female participation in the labor market, highlighting the characteristics of women in leadership positions. A case study approach was used, focusing on female leaders in the hotel sector in Fortaleza, Brazil. An exploratory qualitative study was developed through semi-structured interviews, which aimed to gather data on the career path of female leaders. The collected data allowed understanding how these women reached top-level positions, and their leadership styles. Results indicate that early entry into the labour market, dedication, education, entrepreneurial skills and dynamic personality are instrumental, and work directly affects family relationships, being the cause of some problems in their personal lives.

Chapter 7, *The Impact of Intellectual Capital on Financial Performance of Hotel Companies,* aims to analyse the impact of intellectual capital on the financial performance of companies in the Portuguese hotel sector. It is intended to verify whether there is a positive relationship between the value of the intellectual capital and the value of the financial profitability indicators, used in this study as representative variables of financial performance. According to the authors, in the current knowledge age, intellectual capital (IC) proves to be an essential resource for company value creation, improving its financial performance. Companies are beginning to recognize the importance of IC but, being an intangible asset difficult to measure, and not existing a universally accepted model, the value of Intellectual Capital is not registered in the accounting. The Portuguese hotel industry has registered a significant annual growth. This industry is characterized by being, fundamentally service provider, therefore, very dependent of the Intellectual Capital components. Due to the small number of studies that relate the CI with hotel sector, the objective of this chapter aims to understand the relationship between Intellectual Capital and financial performance of hotel companies in Portugal.

According to Chapter 8, *A Generations' Perspectives on Employer Branding in Tourism,* the tourism industry is facing tremendous challenges from labor force shortages and a connected loss of competitiveness. First of all in service industries, it is crucial to have enough employees who are also highly motivated, as there is a strong interrelation between the staff and the experiences of guests. As a result, we see that the management of human resources is becoming more and more important. Considering demographic changes in Western societies and a higher percentage of academics, it is obvious that the skills shortage amongst chefs, waiters or receptionists will become increasingly severe. Currently a lot of academic but also practical discussions are done to explain future challenges in terms of changing generations and their requirements on work, lifestyle and well-being. Disruptive changes of digital environments, communication habits and the way young people understand the meaning of work-life-balance are raising human resources related questions, to which currently no solutions exist. This chapter focuses on employer branding instruments as a work-related factor in tourism from a generations' perspective.

The objective of Chapter 9, *Company Internships: Filling the Gap Between University Training and Business Reality*, aims to address the contribution of curricular internships in master students' professional formation. This chapter discusses the mastery and competence key elements for efficient operations in business of any area. Therefore, the development of professional competences, both during students' academic formation and through employees' work activities, is a current topic of interest in business and academia. Within the tourism industry, the requirements for workers' qualification are arguably even higher. Tourism is a labour-intensive activity, which requires a significant amount of qualified workforce, not least because the quality of tourists' experiences often depends on tourism workers' performance. For this reason, employers often seek tourism professional who possess a certain set of qualities, including knowledge, skills, abilities, behavioural stereotypes, efforts, and communication techniques. Aiming to further explore the contribution of practical disciplines to university students' formation, the present work analyses a series of aspects of a higher education training program: the master's degree in Tourism Management and Planning of the University of Vigo (Spain).

Chapter 10, *Intangible Cultural Heritage and Educational Tourism: An Experiential Learning Approach*, focuses on local food, which is known as a indicator of the destination culture and an intangible heritage that plays an inevitable role in almost any tourism experience. The contribution of local food to the sustainable development of the host communities on one hand, and the effect of food experiences on the destinations' image and satisfaction of the travelers on the other hand emphasize the significance for societies involved in tourism to understand tourists' preferences regarding local food. This issue is even more crucial for destinations that not only have fragile economies but also are sensitive to tourism impacts. Correspondingly, the current study took an exploratory approach to gauge educational tourists' knowledge about local foods in Cyprus. To that end, a common list of popular food items was prepared through the interview with locals. This formed the base of the survey questionnaires distributed to the target sample. Based on the aforementioned rationalities and because of the potential cultural representative power that educational tourists can have in the future to the sustainable development of their host communities; of course in case they accumulate adequate familiarity with the culture, this study may contain valuable implications for various stakeholders accordingly.

Chapter 11, *Antecedents and Consequences of Work-Family Conflict*, aims to discuss the Work-family conflict (WFC) a critical issue for the hospitality industry. Many hospitality employees face the challenges posed by WFC. Therefore, this chapter aims to examine the antecedents and consequences of WFC in the hospitality industry. This study proposes a holistic model involving the antecedents and consequences of WFC based on the previous researches in the literature. By way of testing the proposed model, future researches can put forward which antecedents and consequences are more related to WFC. In this context, the study consists of three main parts. Firstly, the definition and types of WFC, secondly an explanation of WFC theories and finally the antecedents and consequences of WFC in the hospitality industry are provided through an integrative literature review.

Chapter 12, *Blue Economy and Tourism: Is There a Potential to Create Sustainable Jobs?* intends to highlight the potential for blue growth (economy and governance) in developing and encouraging employment in the coastal, marine, maritime and oceanic realm. According to the authors, sustainability is fundamental in order to preserve sea resources highly resilient. It is important to keep and improve science and technology knowledge, but paramount is the use of human resources to find out tradeoff solutions. Certain sectors are highly demanding in terms of human capital and the tourism industry seems to be on the rise. Worldwide tourism keeps growing and several phenomena have determined some trends, particularly related to recreational and cultural activities, such as: whale/dolphin/shark/turtle observation, mitigation awareness in SCUBA diving by shifting from natural to artificial reefs, natural/pristine areas are important escapes for gazers. This chapter describe and discuss the established sectors, as well as the emerging ones, to demonstrate the potential of the blue economy to create sustainable jobs. Particular attention is given to the tourism sector and sustainability of jobs.

Chapter 13, *Designing Entrepreneurial Ecosystems to Support Resource Management in the Tourism Industry*, aims to review the literature on entrepreneurial ecosystems, as it relates to the tourism sector. We do this in order to develop an understanding of the needs of the human resource management needs of tourism entrepreneurs. Therefore, the importance of this sector has caught the attention of policy makers and academics. However, research has identified that the area lacks the presence of effective and evidence-based theory. In this chapter we review the literature on entrepreneurial ecosystems, as it relates to the tourism industry. This chapter provides recommendations for customizing entrepreneurial supports and ecosystems to maximize the success of human resource management and human capital development amongst tourism entrepreneurs.

Chapter 14, *Human Capital in Tourism: A Practical Model of Endogenous and Exogenous Territorial Tourism Planning – Bahía Solano, Colombia,* is a proposal of exogenous and endogenous practical tourism planning which therefore requires the completion of its construction. In this sense, it is necessary tourism activities to be socialized, developed, and questioned, feedback and reformed by indigenous people, actors, and institutions involved with the planning of the municipality of Bahía Solano. The authors summarize the typology of tourism in sociological context with the aim of Colombian perspectives of social and regional development planning in a destination located on the coast line of Pacific Ocean. The main focuses of this chapter are human resources, people management and planning in tourism with practical examples of Colombian research in the selected zone.

In Chapter 15, *Impact of Tacit Knowledge on Tourist's Loyalty: Some Evidence in Rural Tourism*, proposes a model highlighting the role of tacit knowledge in developing loyalty in the rural lodgings sector across its cognitive, technical and social dimensions. This chapter starts with a literature review on the concepts around tacit knowledge and its technical, social and cognitive dimensions. This subsequently characterises rural tourism activities and the enablers of loyalty identified by the empirical studies, in the majority related with tourism activities and according to which we set out our research hypotheses. Through recourse to a Structural Equation Model, it is described the testing of the study model and its respective variable in order to return conclusions about the impact of TK on loyalty.

Chapter 16, *New Training Contexts for Geoeducation and Tourism: Action and Education Strategies in the Qualification of Estrela Geopark Communities in Portugal*, seeks to describe the methodologies and strategies for the preservation of environmental values, developed in an engaging and critical manner, based on a participatory scientific approach and greater responsibility for intervention in the protection of ecosystems. Means of disseminating knowledge, strengthening geoconservation attitudes, and enhancing resources are identified. This systematizes the logic of action and education practices for sustainable tourism and responsibility behaviours and the sense of belonging with the territory and its values. Non-formal education and outdoor activities, and how each can contribute to the development and interrelation with the communities, in particular, promote new training contexts and contribute to the dissemination of geoconservation strategies and good practices. The practices developed allow the dissemination of geodiversity, biodiversity, and mountain lifestyles, stimulating interest in the discovery and knowledge of the mountain, attitudes, and touristic practices with concern for preservation and enhancing the sustainability of its resources.

Chapter 17, *Overtourism in Coastal Territories in the Perspective of Cruise Tourism: The Role of Human Capital*, offers the opportunity is to analyse the state of the art of overtourism in coastal territories, where cruise tourism is in high demand, and to study in particular the case of Lisbon, assessing the size and impact of this tourism product. We also aim to analyse the role of human capital in the prevention and management of overtourism by considering the policies and practices recommended for this destination.

In Chapter 18, *Nature Sports Guides and Sustainable Local Development: A Case Study in Portugal*, proposes presenting the results of an investigation about the nature sports guides, considering their professional status, issues and problems. Data was collected from thirty interviews carried out during the year of 2017 to a sample of nature sports guides working in the nature sports tourism companies, established at the Coimbra region, one of the Portuguese leading nature sports tourism destinations. The sampling strategy was to interview as diverse a pool of nature sports guides as possible, along the lines of gender, years of work experience and whether guiding is their only job or not. The data was systematically and carefully reviewed before identifying the common elements, patterns and trends. In addition, coding was undertaken in accordance to criteria specified by Strauss and Corbin (1998), such as, must be neutral, must appear frequently in the data, should allow easy reference to other categories, and should possesses clear implications for the formal theory. Interpretation was based not only on the literature but also on the authors experiences in the field. This data will allow to discuss the human resources management implications within the nature sports tourism organizations. This study also enables to provide important information that can be used to develop policies about the human resources in the field of nature sports tourism, related with innovative tourism training perspectives and new tourism qualification prospects.

The challenge of the present book is centered in understanding the reveal ground-breaking human resource policies for tourism destinations, revolutionary human capital managerial business approaches in tourism, innovative tourism training perspectives and new tourism qualification prospects.

Therefore, people management is a paradigm shift in the way of looking at the organization of work. It is this change that will modernize organizations, because people are those who innovate, people are those who have knowledge and transfer knowledge to companies and who optimize the technology. To do this, they have to take up the cudgels and feel at work as if they were at home. Therefore, they cannot be seen by entrepreneurs as a resource or as an income. They have to be seen for what they are. People!

Vânia Gonçalves Costa
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

Andreia Filipa Antunes Moura
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

Maria do Rosário Mira
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

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Chapter 1
Human Capital Management in the Tourism Industry in Portugal

Luís Mota Figueira
Escola Superior de Gestão, Instituto Politécnico de Tomar, Portugal

Graciete Reis Honrado
Escola Superior de Gestão, Instituto Politécnico de Tomar, Portugal

Marta Santos Dionísio
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4654-3399
Techn&Art, Instituto Politécnico de Tomar, Portugal

ABSTRACT

Although there is a sustained and sustainable consumption and use of resources underlying it, tourist visitation always has a strong human component. Competitiveness in the tourism industry requires professionals with a set of skills integrated in the domain of "knowing how to do" and "knowing how to be." Portugal has extraordinary tourism resources and potential on which a relevant activity with a growing weight in the country's economy is being developed. Therefore, there are many challenges in order to ensure a competitive and high-quality tourism offer, being the dynamizing and mobilizing core of the country's economic and social sectors. In 2017, Portugal registered a record number of 20.6 million tourists, according to CIP data. For this reality to have a sustained term growth, it depends on the possibility of companies "driven" by knowledge to access highly skilled human resources familiar with new technological developments. This chapter explores human capital management in the tourism industry in Portugal.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch001

INTRODUCTION

The activity of tourism industry depends, mainly, on human resources skills. It becomes more demanding for hotel units to invest in collaborators management and professional growth. To hotel units, the degree of guests' satisfaction depends on the quality of services delivered, especially those that will have a direct or indirect contact with the guests (Barbosa e Oliveira, 2003). In every organisation the most important asset is, undoubtedly, the human resources and the hospitality sector is no exception. As Martins and Machado say (2002), the hotel collaborators are the most important resources in the organization, as it is a service industry, in which quality is directly connected to the guest's attendance. The guests' rate of satisfaction is also expressed through emotional experiences which occur from human interaction. The qualification of the tourism value chain (travel-accommodation-catering-entertainment and leisure-security and health-access to other goods and services) requires motivated human resources.

The competitiveness in this sector has led hotel units to guide themselves through a differentiation culture and high quality of the service delivered. Supporting this reality, the Management of Human Resources has become fundamental to the strategic management of human capital that, as Santos (2013) suggests, is on top of the list of hotel managers concerns. Therefore, despite the high technological growth, Human Resources are considered to be the source of the organizations´ success. So, Human Resources Management is seen through planning, organization, development, coordination and control of techniques that will be able to promote the performance of the collaborators (Boselie, 2002:3). According to Baron and Hannan (2002: 9-10), the knowledge of collaborators will state a competitive advantage to companies, through their daily contribution, coming from experience, empirical wisdom and continuous training. This way, the starting point of each company will be the development and qualification of human resources that already exist or will become part of the company.

The most expected and desirable management practices are the ones that can anticipate the guests needs through technological prospection, continuous evaluation of products and services, an open atmosphere that allows communication to flow easily, shared and decentralized power, flexible structures, creation of multidisciplinary groups, continuous monitoring of processes, creativity stimulus, tolerance to error, the stimulus to empower new skills, flexible timetable, bet on the creation and maintenance of laboratories, the registration of patents, the creation of partnerships, among others (Honrado,2016).

As the Thematic Agenda for Research and Innovation – Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality (2019) states concerning the long term strategic fields, Portugal will have to "develop critical mass, displacing knowledge and suggestions of innovation in service of different actors relevant to the tourism activity benefiting society as a whole". A country with an increasing demand, which has won several remarkable awards and has become a leading holiday destination, needs to continuously qualify its assets in the touristic chain of value. The accommodation in hotels is, in each tourist destination, eventually, the main link of the whole tourist system (demand-supply-geography-operators), (UNWTO, 2009).

HUMAN CAPITAL IN THE TOURISM SECTOR

Nowadays tourism has become one of most dynamic areas in the worldwide economy being constantly in development. At the beginning of XX century, tourism had a great impact on international relations, contributing to the economic development of every country. At the same time, the influence of tourism in gross domestic product (GDP) development has also increased. Nowadays, no one doubts that tourism has become a giant international industry, covering about 10,4% of the gross world product. In this context, human resources play a very important role and assure employment, either nationally or internationally, to a great part of population. According to WTTC (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2017), 313 million workers were employed in the tourism sector.

According to CIP (Confederation of Portuguese Industry), until June 2018, the different touristic activities generated 400 thousand workplaces in Portugal. Therefore, there is an urgent need to create scientific skills and highly qualified human capital, to improve entrepreneurship based on innovation, in the tourism sector.

Human capital with higher studies in tourism has become a real need due to the fast development of touristic business and the use of modern information and communication technologies. The training, especially, of highly qualified managers with innovative knowledge in management, can become one of the competitive advantages in tourism companies because with the present social and economic conditions, the human capital determines the level of economic development and technical-scientific progress.

According to Becker's theory, human capital is a combination of knowledge, skills and experiences acquired by people. Becker and Gerhart (1996) have studied the intersections between educational investment versus employment and salaries and reached the conclusion that companies should invest in the human capital development, as well as invest in equipment and productive factors. As stated by Cohn and Geske (1990) redirecting investment towards education is one of main areas for productivity growth.

The investment in human capital intends to increase the labour's productivity and to better the quality of service delivered to the guest. The authors refer to the types of expenses that will turn into a human capital improvement: educational or training expenses, the extension of life expectancy that are reflected in the medical care and mobility expenses.

The study held by Romer (1990) describes how companies that make investments in human capital have a competitive advantage over market conditions and economic benefits from the human capital. It's noteworthy that these themes are connected to productivity and, it isn't random to notice that, according to the National Institute of Statistics and the National Bank, Tourism has generated 7,1% of the Gross Value Added (GVA) of the national economy in 2016. On the other hand, it is important to emphasise that according to the Bank of Portugal data, the total revenue created by touristic activities, in the year of 2017, reached the value of 15 thousand million euros, which implies an increase of 19% compared to 2016.

The human factor is the main factor for the volatility and singularity of touristic services quality. Collaborators with high knowledge, skills and experience are the main value and productive strength of tourism companies. Thence the educational and training investment of the diverse collaborators in terms of higher education has exceptional value. The quality and competitiveness of tourist offer depend directly on those investments (Metilelu,2016; Tatarusanu, Onea & Zait,2016).

Referring to the importance and quality of human capital in tourism is never too much since about 3 million jobs are created for the tourism and similar areas, each year, all over the world.

In the whole process, it is necessary to have the involvement of all collaborators as they are the main targets and are also affected by it . It is important to refer that, according to INE, the business volume generated in Portugal in 2017, in all activities related to the Tourism area is about 20,5 thousand million euros. Because of this and based on other facts, we can state that it is crucial to catch potential collaborators and turn the natural resistance to changes into motivation and commitment (Roos, et al., 1997), exploring the following aspects:

- The existence of earlier experiences in the organization - probably in the history of the company, have shown good or bad experiences regarding changes and correspondent innovations;
- The adaptability - degree of flexibility related to changes. The organizations that are changing, often develop knowledge to manage that change, achieving this way a better management and optimization of initiatives, which are technologically innovative;
- The definition of congruent goals - the line-up of goals established between the organization and collaborators is essential to avoid surprises due to changes that might seem confusing or nonsense, not understanding how technological innovation will bring them any advantages;
- The definition of control levels - it is very important that individuals assume the control and involvement of the company changes which may lead to a predisposition to accept those same changes.

The role of managers and their type of leadership is also important to ensure the execution of responsibilities that are delegated by the managers themselves to the collaborators (Rothwell et al., 2009). According to these authors, communication is also a critical process in the company's functioning, as there is a straight connection between it and the organizational performance. Communication is the reflection of the organization's structure and its ability to support meetings or teamwork without constrictions of time or space.

Other aspects to consider about the organization of the Tourism sector, are those related to the variety of knowledge involved, the identification of the collaborator to the task performed, the meaning of the tasks, the autonomy of the person and the feedback obtained through these tasks. According to Roos & Krogh (1995), these aspects are of great importance as they can constrain motivation, satisfaction, quality of performance and the absence level of collaborators.

The organizational culture, understood as a group of beliefs and expectations shared by the members of an organization, may lead to the production of rules that will condition the individual's and group's behaviour in the organization (Schwartz & Davis,1981). These authors state that organizational culture is a critical process in the functioning of any organization, existing a strong connection between it and the organizational performance. The culture will reflect into the organizations structure and in its capacity to support networks and partnerships, or even teamwork without time or space restrictions. As Honrado, Cunha and Césario (2001) state, the characteristics of the rewards system of an organization are influenced by the nature of the dominant organizational culture, considering its competitive and humanistic orientation. At the same time, the cultural configuration of an organization and the salaries reflect significantly the perception of equity. In tourism activity, cultural synergy is relevant in interaction between professionals, residents, and tourists UNWTO (2018).

A study by Peters and Waterman (1995) pointed out the connection between business success and organizational culture. The culture of an organization stands out through its history and tradition, its status symbols, its own language and physical environment. The factors that seem to have a larger impact on the organizational culture are: teamwork, and in this area the emphasis is **on** the cooperation, the shared difficulties, the group morale, and the friendship between the several elements; the style of leadership/supervision being the focus placed on proximity, emphasis on results, consideration and respect, confidence in individuals; organizational characteristics such as dimension, autonomy capacity, complexity; management processes with special relevance on the reward system, communication and participation (Gordon, 2001).

Harvey (2000) stands that the rewards system affects the performance and the behaviour. According to this author, management can be analysed under two aspects: the focus on the individual and the focus on the organization. By approach to the individual, the managers think that the bet on ethic values and morality will promote the development of ethic behaviours and the rising motivation of workers. Through the organizational approach, managers assume that individual behaviours are primarily affected by external factors such as rewards, the type of leadership and organizational culture.

In a world mainly dominated by the instrumental rationality and strongly established economic categories, men and women that perform their roles in organizations, most of the times, are considered just as a resource, that means, they are matter whose output must be satisfactory the same way as tools, equipment and goods. Associated with the physical issues' universe, the collaborators are turned into objects in organizations. In some cases, only extraordinary events arise their human condition.

The path to this paradigm change is only possible with the individuals' evolution who will lead to the organizations' evolution, and these will promote individuals' evolution and this cycle won't have an end. Therefore, it will become urgent the need of change and the importance level that the several organizational variations will have in this cycle of paradigm change (Burke & Moumair,2015).

This process will lead, undoubtedly, to an evolution in social relations as a whole, since individuals do not exist only inside the organizations' frames. Then society will have changes in the personal relationship and will question their own power, rules and concepts.

As a result, it is expected to be a continuity and evolution in the businesses of companies and, therefore, the guarantee of survival to individuals who will there achieve their material resources. According to Mascarenhas (2008), what will have the biggest importance in this new paradigm is the recognition of the individuals as being the main differential in organizations and their main recognition will be the respect they will have because besides having their opinions, they will be listened to, attended or not, otherwise, receiving arguments that will stand for the patterns and acceptance through consensus and discursive ethics.

Presently, the bet is made on new management practices of human resources and the impact of social changes in the collaborators, in a way to identify new strategies to follow in some organizations that bet on a global market and that inside their organizational structure will present a variety of cultures, beliefs and values (Honrado, Brito, Fontinho and Gil, 2018).

According to Stewart (1997) the organizations should firstly have in mind the concern with the collaborators management and only then worry about the financial management of capital or other business resource. For this author, organizations that have become aware of it and turned their investment to their collaborators, are today the most successful ones in the market.

THE TYPOLOGY OF HUMAN CAPITAL IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Within the scope of the ideal profile of collaborators, it was carried out a study, which used the qualitative methodology to explore and identify the needs of future hotel collaborators in Portugal. For that purpose, it was applied a semi-structured interview to eight directors and an assistant director from hotel units located in central Portugal.

Based on this investigation, it was possible to develop a model of skills that are necessary for the present and future collaborators in the tourism industry, being the technical, social and behavioural skills contemplated. This way it was possible to determine the typology of human capital for the tourism sector.

It is appropriate to state that among the skills mentioned as necessary for these collaborators are the availability of hours, being versatile, being friendly, being a good communicator, being sociable, having proficiency of the mother tongue and foreign languages, ability to adapt to changes, taste for the activity, ability to work in teams, specific training in hospitality and ability to apply the theoretical knowledge. Due to the specificity of the number of hours in the hotel industry, the total availability of hours is a timeless and fundamental requirement for those who work in this industry, as they perform their work on weekends and holidays (Dialamícua, 2014).

Thus, the labour market will demand technical skills such as: ability and availability to learn, knowledge of the market environment, knowledge of foreign languages, great communication skills, technical knowledge specific for the job, sales techniques, stress management, problem solving. In addition, personal and behavioural skills will also be required, such as: good posture, professional image, ability to work in groups, sense of responsibility, ability to perform various tasks, spirit of cooperation, ease of teamwork, friendliness, organizational skills, good interpersonal skills, respect for colleagues, ability to adapt to change and problem solving. However, versatility is described by all study participants as a necessary and important transversal skill, since collaborators perform different tasks within their functions. It is important to note that the skills and requirements present in this study are in line with the study carried out by Ribeiro (2013).

Di Liberto (2011) showed that the education and qualification of collaborators contribute to an improvement and development of tourism in a country and this increase is bigger when the level of qualification of human capital is higher. According to the aforementioned author, an increase in human capital in tourism organizations brings benefits for the expansion and success of this industry, that is, economies with higher qualification levels benefit from the expansion of tourism and have better results than countries with lower level of qualifications. Identifying and selecting more qualified and more skilled professionals is essential to promote and develop the tourism sector in a sustainable way. Tourism service can't be provided by less qualified people. Even at a level of hierarchically inferior collaborators, it is required and of great importance that they have a high level of education and training (Di Liberto, 2011). The fact that tourism is an economic activity transversal to many areas of goods and services supply, it implies a vision of integrated planning with international (World Tourism Organization) and national strategies (2027 Tourism Strategy of the Ministry of Economy, Secretariat of Tourism) as well as of the entire public and private actors network connected with this domain.

The focus on human capital involves professionals with specialization and relevant qualification, in order to be able to compete globally and able to respond to increasingly informed customers. At a national and even regional level, the need to reorganize work processes, encourage entrepreneurship and create new business models is today a transversal concern. The transition process from a traditional to a digital economy creates even greater pressure on the urgency of integrated resource management solutions. This process offers new opportunities and sets new challenges at a local and global level UN (2019).

In order to reach new levels of sustainability, so that there is a growth with economic, social and territorial cohesion in the country and an improvement of human capital in various dimensions, such as employment, qualification, employability and equal opportunities, it is necessary to identify certain strategic domains for Portugal (Thematic Agenda for Research and Innovation - Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality, 2019)

Summing up, human resource management in the tourism industry is especially important as it selects the right people, trains and develops them, while retaining them in the organization contributes to better the quality service and, consequently, to the satisfaction and return of the clients (Powers &

Barrows, 2003). The expected worldwide tourism growth for the 2020-2030 framework, both from the UN and the WTO prospective, requires that all responsible entities consider the "qualitative growth of tourism" as a strategy to improve the hitherto prevailing "quantitative growth of tourism". Therefore, sustainability demands the alignment of both with the economic growth of territorial base, because the tourism market, to materialize itself, appropriates spaces, mobilizes people and creates pressure on organizations. The management of People in the Tourism Industry is, thus, a central and priority factor as we try to demonstrate.

THE IMPORTANCE OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

The definition of Knowledge Management involves obtaining, generating, systematizing and sharing information and knowledge relevant to the organization. Such information and knowledge result both from the company's internal activity and from the interfaces established with the external environment (COTEC, 2015).

The link between higher education institutions and companies plays a leading role in the modern knowledge-based economy. On one hand, the higher education institution has knowledge, human resources and advanced technology that can be explored and used by companies. On the other hand, companies offer higher education institutions a set of unique characteristics, constituting themselves as an important vector of access to direct or indirect financing. It is, therefore, constituted by a commercial partner of excellence, fundamental for the valorisation of the knowledge generated in higher education institutions (COTEC, 2017).

In Portugal, there isn't yet a huge number of "innovative organizations", with the offer of the needed qualifications, due to the characteristics of the infrastructures, the establishment of partnerships and a whole set of external actors, with whom the core skills of companies dialogue, interact and learn. There are several factors that normally aim to explain the small intensity of the immediate response, which can be mobilized in terms of innovation, from Portuguese companies (Caraça & Martins, 1999), both at national and regional levels:

- the lack of a strong scientific and technological tradition, especially in business activity;
- the existence of a dominant academic culture that resists to the interaction with industry and services;
- the relatively public and political detachment, as well as a high insensitivity to the importance of its contribution to the country's economic and social development;
- the low levels of formal education in the active population and the lack of coordination between professional training activities and the needs of the current and future market;
- the intrinsic nature of the productive structure, in which the most dynamic sectors in the growth process are characterized both by low technological intensity associated with the correspondent final product, and by a reduced demand in terms of the workforce qualification.

A critical look allows us to recognize some advances that have occurred in the meantime in the management of human resources and in the innovative capacity of Portuguese organizations. Compared to the overview of the great foreign powers, much remains to be done and some traces of immaturity still persist (Honrado, 2010).

Thus, and in order to try to reduce the delay that occurs in Portuguese companies compared to its foreign counterparts, it is necessary to:

- highlight The growing importance of innovative organizations in the economy and in the development policy, which requires the need to pay greater attention to the dimensions and changes that intellectual capital induces in business and investment strategies;
- Place great emphasis on knowledge sharing and on the establishment of internal and external networks and partnerships;
- Deepen, even more, the knowledge and consolidation of intangible assets, especially in innovative organizations, since the constant uncertainty of the environment, the volatility of the markets and the insecurity of the financial sector is an unquestionable reality;
- Invest in companies with high technological intensity, with natural characteristics for innovation, currently reflects some risks due to strong external and internal competition. Managing those investments in a synchronized and planned way allows the reduction of those risks;
- Value the intellectual capital of companies, which will lead to beneficial effects on competitiveness and economic performance in general, being therefore necessary to know how to stimulate and motivate collaborators, creating appealing environments and authority sharing;
- Know better the different partners and stakeholders, sharing experiences and knowledge, which will facilitate the creation of innovations.

Human capital management is an essential approach for leaders of organizations, who perceive people as assets (human capital). Their current value can be measured and the future value can be leveraged through investments.

As an organization grows, there is a need to inject capital. Normally, when you think about capital, you think about money invested in equipment, buildings, research and development. However, many organizations today are already investing in human capital and developing strategies to reinforce that asset (Boon, Eckardt, Lepak & Boselie, 2018). Organizations invest in human capital through training, improving salaries and fringe benefits, promoting health and exercise programs, helping the collaborators' children with school expenses, supporting family through health services and counselling, and so on.

The purpose is to stimulate companies for the systematic and sustained development of innovation, aiming to strengthen their competitive advantages, with an economy based on people management combined with knowledge. Increasingly the bet is on "enhancing knowledge" through its transfer and dissemination. For that purpose, the qualification of the human resources of tourism professionals, namely entrepreneurs and managers, is essential to transform our country into a smart destination (Agenda de I&I, 2019).

As the tourism industry is typically a sector of work or service provision and not of intensive capital, human capital is extremely important for the knowledge they hold and can share, for their training and management profiles, for their degrees of motivation and the feeling of accomplishment of each of these actors.

Finally, the importance attributed to knowledge management as the new productive paradigm of goods and services, is seen as the result of a process of productive evolution, transformed from operational to intellectual, in the absorption of the workforce (McElroy, 2003). This paradigm requires, above all, a culture of participation and transparency, where innovation and creativity can flow through channels and communication networks that will promote development and competitiveness within organizations.

Organizations that promote this type of culture "build" management systems and practices that produce a more confident transformation of knowledge into action.

In the area of Tourism, innovation will have to be based on human resource management systems that promote the competitiveness of destinations and companies, with a focus on performance assessment through skills and smart career development certificates. In the tourism industry, innovation must also include the ability to attract and retain tourists as well as the enhancement of the place and smart, sustainable and certified markets.

"Following the phenomenon of verticalization of the tourism system, it is highlighted the need for innovation in the qualification of human resources and work organization. Innovation in political governance models appears to be a touchstone when it comes to social innovation and innovation for sustainability, leading to more participative, inclusive and co-production practices, promoting the social network and the environmental certification. Technological innovation has a transversal character and has fundamentally supported the travel cycle - motivation, choice and reservation process, experience and post travel - and the connection between producers and consumers. It is also highlighted the innovations associated with information management, storage and processing, and the cloud computing technologies, IoT, physical and digital infrastructures, sensors, actuators, mobile devices, responsive services, network communication without intervention in the experience "(Thematic Agenda for Research and Innovation - Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality, 2019).

THE EMERGENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional Intelligence (EI) began to be the subject of real studies when several researchers found out that intellectually better-endowed people were not exactly the most successful in the different aspects of their lives. In the early 1990s, the expression "Emotional Intelligence" appears as a form of social intelligence, a type of intelligence that would be located between cognition and emotion, according to Salovey & Mayer (1990). But before appearing the concept of EI, there was already a concept that was very close to this: Social Intelligence, proposed by Thorndike & Stein (1937). According to these authors, social intelligence was the ability to deal successfully with social contexts, where productive social relations, favourable to social and individual development were established.

Artificial intelligence leads to many passions, in every professional domain, mainly because the news argues that many professions will be obsolete and replaced. This, in a way, alarms employees from all areas. Tourism is not exempt from facing this reality. The use of alternative and autonomous ways, devices and instruments that interact with human beings, takes the latter to act in new ways. Do future tourism organizations think of replacing employees by machines that support tourists? Do tourists accept being served by a machine instead of a human being? This is not feasible. Tourism needs social skills and is highly dependent on them. Therefore, organizations must be careful with these new options. Gradually, many devices will appear, but we must be aware that they can't replace the decision criteria and the empathy of a cooperating collaborator, mainly in improvisation, a tourist response characteristic of any organization in the tourism sector.

Thus, soft skills such as creativity, curiosity, compassion, critical thinking and cooperation will be necessary at all stages of the tourism process. The use of technological tools will have to make us more human, more efficient. We must work with more knowledge and quality. Tourists will continue to be curious, asking questions, exploring unexplored concepts and connecting themselves with new people and ideas. The tourism organizations of the future don't need to fear the advances of artificial intelligence.

In an article that made history, insofar as it was a pioneer, Salovey & Mayer (1990) tried to balance the importance of emotions and reason, as the human being is both an emotional and rational being. According to this reasoning, there is a direct and proportional relationship between the ability of human beings to adapt and succeed in life, and the ability to integrate their emotional and rational spheres (to reason about their emotional experiences). In fact, there is already scientific evidence that EI (besides the cognitive ability) is the real pillar of the most effective decisions we make, the basis of the companies that prove to be the most successful and also for the ones that have the most satisfying ("happy") lives (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997).

According to Ceitil (2010), three fundamental events that influenced the conditions for creating the concept of emotional intelligence can be considered: (1) the emergence of the concept of competences as a more accurate indicator than the intelligence quotient (IQ) for measuring the performance of a professional; (2) the decrease in the importance of the concept of general importance (IQ), due to the emergence of the theory of multiple intelligences and (3) the fact that the theory of multiple intelligences included two types of intelligence similar to the concept of EI, called intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983). In addition, neuroscience findings point to the fact that emotions play an important role in cognition (Damásio, 1995; Damásio 1999; Ledoux & Phelps, 2000). Thus, Gardner (1983) with the theory of multiple intelligences and namely of intra and interpersonal intelligences, made a valuable contribution to other researchers for the effective construction of the concept of EI.

According to Goleman (2000), the IQ (Intelligence Quotient) changes little after adolescence, but regarding the learning of EI, it is practically all assimilated and developed over the years, that is, as we learn and grow from experiences. Goleman (2000) also mentions that it is possible to learn to dominate negative emotions and to improve those that bring us more "benefits", this path being called "acquiring maturity", that is, EI can be learned as long as the individual so desires and strives. All these assumptions are supported based on psychophysiological research, as it can be seen in one of the books published by Goleman (2000) on EI, where cases of research evidence in the field of education are provided.

More and more organizations, specifically companies, understand that it is essential for their management philosophy (namely in their Human Resources policies) to consider the capabilities of EI and its encouragement (Goleman, 2000). Thus, EI directly influences some aspects essential for the success of an organization (and careers), such as, for example, decision making, relationships in the organizational (work) context, communication, leadership and performance, teamwork, change management and creativity and innovation (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). In the existing literature on this theme, it is possible to find many benefits associated with an organization (such as lower stress levels, increased creativity, greater degree of organizational commitment and greater job satisfaction), whenever its collaborators have a high level of EI. According to Tesluk, Vance & Mathieu (1999), these effects have an influence on the positive results regarding productivity, performance and organizational effectiveness.

More than ever, people are one of the great foundations of business and organizational environments, set on the achievement of competitive advantages (Bohlander, Snell & Sherman, 2003). According to Ceitil (2007), people have an enormous source of potential within them, which, being effectively used by organizations, generates added value. It was this idea that led to the introduction of the expression "human capital" in the Human Resources Management lexicon, an expression that was made known to the public in the "Investment in Human Capital", an article that was the Nobel Prize for Economics, written by Theodore W. Shcultz and published in 1961 in the American Economic Review.

In the last decades, organizational environments have undergone profound and accelerated changes, the result of the era in which we live: the era of Globalization and Knowledge. Thus, organizations were "forced" to respond to the new demands in terms of management, it became necessary to give a greater focus, according to Neves & Costa (2012), to creativity, personal and organizational flexibility, constant innovation, orientation, change and focus on results. The times that the principle "do not mix personal and professional matters" was transmitted by organizations to their collaborators are not so far away. But, according to Goleman (2003), it is not possible for us to set aside emotions in the professional context and adds that denying one's own emotions will not make a more productive person. For Goleman (2003), knowing how to recognize and manage one's emotions is really the most important thing. The truth is that nowadays, people are not only evaluated by their intelligence or skills, they are also evaluated by the way they manage themselves and the relationships with others. This evaluation is seen at the most varied levels, being more evident in the professional context: choice of hiring, entry and exit of collaborators and promotions. It seems very clear that for organizations these "human talents" are increasingly necessary to their success, so the familiarization with EI is increasing. According to Dulewicz & Higgs (2000), an interest's increase about matters related to EI is considerably justified by the speed organizational and social changes occur, in an increasingly globalized world. Portugal is not a country unrelated to these changes and it is already noticeable that working in organizations is nowadays a daily challenge as there is great competitiveness. Thus, organizations that invest in EI, Knowledge Management and Competence Management (e.g. adoption of soft skills development policies), obtain positive and beneficial results for the entire organization.

THE IMPORTANCE OF SOFT SKILLS

Highlighting the global recognition of the critical role played by specific transversal skills for effective participation in work and life in the 21st century, Whittemore, S. (2018) addresses a call to action, highlighting the urgent need for a more focused attention, of organizations and individuals, concerning continuous learning and development in essential skills, especially in soft skills, referred to in the image below.

It is now an established fact that organizations and individuals are continually facing unprecedented complex changes due to the fast and radical technological advances, to the transformational forces and challenges of globalization, to the environmental sustainability, demographic changes and migration and to the political uncertainty that surrounds all stakeholders. Human capital in organizations is forced to process difficult decisions with clarity, responsibility and common sense, despite the turmoil of uncertainty, ambiguity and volatility that surrounds them.

For organizations, workforces and citizens, learning to adapt to these important changes, which will have an unprecedented impact on humanity (for example, globalization and artificial intelligence), represents a significant challenge, but it is essential to avoid the marginalization.

To survive and thrive in this competitive, hyper-connected, technology-driven global economy, organizations and their collaborators need to develop and deploy a core set of cross-cutting skills as the cornerstone of all their endeavours. These skills, such as collaborative problem solving, awareness and cultural expression, are the currency that will allow them to understand complex changes and participate as agents of change and innovators, and not just as pawns in a process.

Most importantly, cross-cutting skills will provide organizations, workers and citizens the control over their own destinies, rather than being controlled by outside forces.

Thus, the question arises: "What are the transversal and central skills that are not normally provided in formal education, and that the 21st century citizen needs to adapt and prosper in work and in life, and why?"

Documentary analysis from a variety of international and transnational sources, with a strong emphasis on international organizations, reveals a broad emerging consensus on a common core of ten cross-cutting skills: digital skills, problem solving, initiative, learning to learn, cultural awareness, resilience, social intelligence, creativity, critical thinking and adaptability UNWTO (2014).

Figure 1. Transversal competencies essential for future proofing the workforce
Source: Simon Whittemore, July 2018

Tourism is an industry based on people, with human capital at its core, bringing authenticity, values, quality, innovation and competitiveness to companies and tourist destinations. In general, tourism companies need support, locals need to be sure that newcomers will not affect their quality of life in a negative way and visitors expect a world-class experience. All national, regional and local government institutions need to be aware of all these challenges and work in collaboration with organizations from the tourism sector to develop the most efficient management strategies.

The current technological changes will have an impact on the tourism industry, which will lead to a demand for specialized and qualified labour so that the tourism sector remains competitive. This requires considerable investment in human capital development, tourism education and research linked to digitalization, in order to develop digitally enabled tourism products, services and systems to support the sector's transition to the digital future. In addition, investment is also needed to support companies in the transition to digital, in order to improve the tourist experience in destinations.

A recognized trend is the digital tools used in museums or cultural heritage sites where augmented, mixed or virtual reality is used to improve the tourist experience. It is also common that mobile technology is quickly and easily used to provide instant information to visitors during their stay. Real-time translation software is also becoming a convenient tool for tourists to travel to countries where they do not speak the language (OECD, 2018). It is conceivable that virtual tourism can complement or supplant physical travel for some travellers. On the other hand, with lives increasingly connected, some people are already looking for alternative "real" natural experiences while traveling. As the behaviours of tourists will change in the light of these types of paradigm-changing technologies, it is something that remains to be "discovered" (OECD, 2018).

Picture 2 is a word cloud generated from the answers to the previous question. The bigger and more prominent the word, the more frequent is its use. "Sustainability" is clearly the most frequently used word, followed by "growth" and "change" and then "competitive" and "excessive tourism". These terms are the subject of much of the current literature.

SOCIAL SKILLS

A study by the University of Oxford (2017) predicts that by 2030, social skills will become more valued as artificial intelligence and machines perform a wide range of tasks. The researchers conclude that the future will be about humans and machines together, rather than humans versus machines. This will require a joint effort to develop transversal skills.

Physical and Practical Skills Attitudes & Values

These cross-cutting skills are generally not part of the formal education standard, whether at school age or at university, so individuals need to develop, improve and highlight them in other contexts. However, it is possible for individuals to develop these skills effectively through the challenges and opportunities they face in life without realizing it: for example, a person who had to overcome and adapt himself/herself to significant social, physical or circumstantial difficulties and still remains positive and constructive, has developed a high level of resilience and adaptability, but may not realize how he/she has developed it. In fact, resilience depends on the governance quality of each tourist destination according to Fabry and Zeghin (2019).

The digital age brings with it a new way of information and communication and, like all new changes, there are significant implications, opportunities and risks in terms of power and influence. Examples that include the use of personal data for political and advertising purposes; trolling and cyber-bullying; biotechnology and security; the accelerated impact of social media (positive examples in countries where there is political and social repression; negative examples where social media are used to generate and encourage hatred, as extremist organizations) Therefore, the existence of collective responsibility is

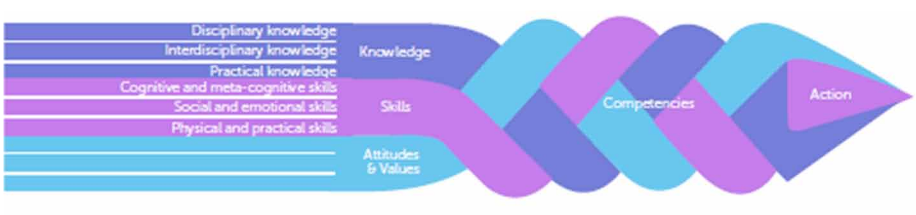
Figure 2. Words used to describe European tourism, European Parliament, 2019

increasingly crucial in order to ensure that this extraordinary tool of enormous power and influence - digital technology, which is driving the Fourth Industrial Revolution - is a force for good, for tolerance, for democracy, for collaboration and for constructive learning.

This article also tries to demonstrate that the most important skills to enable students and citizens to succeed in life and work are cross-cutting skills which require a joint effort by individuals, organizations and governments to harness the huge power of the digital age for human skills of social learning.

Success depends on providing the next generation human skills that even Artificial Intelligence can't imitate such as creativity, innovation, resilience, dealing with conflicts, great wealth and uncertainty. Human resources must now prepare themselves considering this close reality (OECD, 2018).

Figure 3. OECD PISA 2030 Vision



CONCLUSION

The development of human capital in our country is crucial to increase the competitiveness of tourist services and to introduce quality tourist offers, lined up with world market standards. According to data from the World Tourism Organization, Portugal globally occupies the 10th position considering the positive balance of the tourist balance.

Companies and individuals struggle daily with processes to create economic value in a hypercompetitive environment. The contexts that condition and motivate them are turbulent, complex and uncertain. The option of producing more with less has been overtaken by the inevitability of quickly conceiving adaptable differences and features.

Economic dynamics are driven by innovative activities, strongly dependent on knowledge, interactive learning processes and multiple proximity. The great economic agents are those with the capacity to integrate in their business strategies the complexity resulting from the articulation between products, processes and technologies, maximizing for a long time a non-linear function of product/market appropriation (Nunes & Cavique, 2008).

Portugal and its organizations are "stuck" between two worlds: one of technological leadership in advanced countries and the other one of leadership considering wage costs in less developed economies. The difficulty in defining coherent strategies stems from the conceptually gathering of "organizations" and "high technology".

The fact that countless collaborators perform their functions in the 131 thousand companies that functioned in 2018, in the Tourism sector in Portugal, according to the INE, suggests a set of implications:

- The ability to generate innovation in organizations is centred on motivated, participative and open to knowledge sharing individuals. This implies a strong commitment to education and training, not only formally but also in the field of developing personal and social skills;
- The implementation of scientific-technological policies, in order to take profits in terms of creating a business structure with a competitive and innovative knowledge base. This must be accompanied by measures to promote and stimulate the creative spirit, since it seems to be at the level of personal skills, that is, behavioural aspects, which is the main genesis of value creation in companies that generate tourism innovation;
- As the behavioural variables are relevant to the capacity of generating innovation in organizations, particularly in the Tourism area, all cultural issues of society acquire a greater importance within the context of economic development and competitiveness policies;
- The integration of professional experience in training processes, particularly those of an academic nature, may be an important element to enhance the emergence of a greater propensity to create innovation in Portuguese tourist companies;
- Training practices aimed at collaborators and aimed at fostering innovation should move towards differentiation, based first on behavioural aspects. Only later appears the instrumental and management themes, following the changes in terms of the structure of intangible assets, which operate in organizations as they develop;
- The promotion of knowledge networks and collaborative partnerships and all kinds of cooperation practices, contribute to fighting cultural aspects that are too individualistic and, thus, contribute to boost knowledge sharing;

- The bet on dynamic and modern work processes and individuals valuing systems and their capacity to innovate will increasingly assume relevance for the development of organizations and societies;
- Knowledge centres such as, for example, research laboratories, technology parks, universities and polytechnics, contribute to the success of policies aimed at boosting innovation in Tourism and other areas of knowledge;
- This reflection also made it possible to verify that the relationship pattern of these organizations involves other stakeholders, namely, customers, suppliers and competitors, as well as academic institutions and public institutions.

Human Capital is essential for organizations as they have to maintain their competitiveness in the world market, due precisely to the changes resulting from the phenomenon of Globalization. It is not possible to dissociate people from their emotions, and it is in this context that Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Competence Management and Emotions themselves assume an extremely relevant role in this process of adapting organizations to world competitiveness.

The conclusion of this reflective analysis identifies that knowledge management within tourism organizations involves anticipating customer needs, technological prospection, constant evaluation of products or services, open environments where communication flows easily, decentralized and shared power, flexible structures, constitution of multidisciplinary groups, continuous monitoring of projects, encouragement of creativity, tolerance to error, stimulus to the development of skills, flexible working hours, the establishment of partnerships, among others (Cebi et al., 2010; Tabrizi et al., 2011).

Machines can never overlap people (as the most important factor in the production process) since they are the only ones who have the power to invent, create and innovate products and services. Innovating always implies logical and emotional thinking.

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Chapter 2
Understanding Human Resources Needs in Tourism:
A Competittive Advantage

Teresa Dieguez
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4886-1446
Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave, Portugal

ABSTRACT

As one of the world's largest economic sectors, travel and tourism creates jobs, drives exports, and generates prosperity across the world. Comprising a wide range of industries, it supports one in every ten jobs on the planet, has accounted for one in five of all jobs created across the world over the past five years, and is a dynamic and complex engine of employment opportunities. Its companies are inside a competitive arena and must ensure its sustainability on the basis of its greatest asset: its employees. Nowadays in the workplace there are a great diversity of cultures, ages, and generational differences, and employers have to explore new ways to motivate people to efficiently work. Each generation is unique and usually this variety does not work without supervision. The study will be conducted on two Portuguese Polytechnic Institutes with Masters Students from Hospitality and Tourism. As a methodology, it will be used a quantitative research. Conclusions may help companies to better understand the reasons why employees abandon them or are attracted by them.

INTRODUCTION

As one of the world's largest economic sectors, Travel & Tourism creates jobs, drives exports and generates prosperity across the world. Comprising a wide range of industries, it aims to serve and support domestic, international, business and leisure visitors. Companies, large and small, in industries ranging from accommodation and transportation to food & beverage, retail and culture and sports & recreation, all make every effort to generate products and/or services that bring people together, support communities and celebrate the surprises that our planet can offer. This sector, according to the World Travel & Tourism Council's (WTTC, 2019) accounted for 10.4% of global GDP and 319 million jobs, or 10% of

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch002

total employment in 2018. It supports one in every ten jobs on the planet, has accounted for one in five of all jobs created across the world over the past five years and is a dynamic engine of employment opportunities. Jobs in Travel & Tourism particularly support women, youth and other, often marginalised groups of society (Manzo, 2019). Factors influencing the flow of travellers around the world, such as a destination's attractiveness and its currency strength, will continue to affect traveller behaviour in the coming years. New developments will emerge and Travel & Tourism will become even more critical as an engine of economic development and as a vehicle for sharing cultures and building mutual understanding (UNEDOSC, 2010).

For all these reasons, nowadays the tourism industry is highly competitive and more than ever the literature see it as problematic (Abreu-Novais, Ruhanen & Arcodia, 2016). As a complex phenomenon, tourism is a multi-sectorial, multifaceted business and this in itself creates difficulties when attempting to generalise about the management of tourism businesses (Pender & Sharpley, 2005). In fact, beyond the specific challenges of managing hotel operations, a broader focus on quality management in the provision of accommodation can be justified for a number of reasons, namely: i) quality (Kandampully, 1997; Langer, 1997; Poon, 1993); ii) overall tourist experience (Middleton, 1988) and iii) human aspects of the delivery system (Witt & Mühlemann, 1994).

These reflect that companies must ensure its sustainability on the basis of its greatest asset: its employees (Bilhim, 2007). According to Drucker (1954) the collaborators have a fundamental role on the success of organizations and are their strategic key-resource. More and more organizations have to invest in their Talents through their medium-term development: people will no longer be a problem for organizations but the solution to their problems and reinforce their competitive advantage (Chiavenato, 2000). In this sense, the big challenge will be Talents' retention rather than attracting them, because people are looking for new projects that stimulate and develop their skills helping them to progress in their career (Tulgan, 2001). Nowadays in the workplace there are a great diversity of cultures, ages and generational differences and employers have to explore new ways to motivate people to efficiently work (Zemke, Raines, Filipczak, 2000). Each generation brings a unique culture, perspective and experience to the workplace, and usually this variety does not work without supervision. The problem is accentuated by itself due to the late retirement of Idealists / Baby Boomers and the abundance of Millennials / Y, who are trained but inexperienced, while Individualist Generation / X workers are not currently a bridge between the previous two (Jones, 2016). By 2020 it is estimated that around the world one third of the workforce will be constituted by Millenium Generation / Y (Manpower, 2016). Therefore, it is mandatory to evaluate what this generation privileges in order to be able to attract and retain Talents (Alves, Dieguez & Conceição, 2019).

The study will be conducted on two Portuguese Polytechnic Institutes (Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave - IPCA and Polytechnic Institute of Porto - IPP) with Masters Students from Hospitably Direction and Tourism Management. It also will have contributions from 5 practitioners. As a methodology it will be used a quantitative research. Conclusions may help companies to better understand the reasons why employees abandon them or are attracted by them.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Human Capital: Concepts and Relevance

During the 60's the human capital concept was fully developed and formalised by (1961) and Becker (1962, 1964). "… education is the most important component of human capital" (Schultz, 1993: 17), a concept including activities such as formal education, off-the job training (general human capital) and on-the-job training (specific human capital) (Becker, 1962). However an increasing number of authors argue that formal education is only one way to create skills (Dieguez, 2007). Arrow (1962) and Young (1992), among others, have stressed the role of other forms of skill improvement, such as 'learning-by doing' and on-the-job training. Human capital and skills are often treated as synonymous concepts (e.g., Harris & Helfat, 1997) and involve complex connections (Teixeira, 2002). Skills can be acquired through education and (formal) training, as well as through the course of people's activities at work (i.e., learning-by-doing), therefore appearing as a chain concept linking human capital, knowledge and technology (Wood & von Tunzelmann, 1996). Regardless of the issue of tangibleness, it is undeniable that skills and human capital are interrelated (Teixeira, 2002). Human capital is not a visible factor and it comprehends internal and external effects, being an advantage competitive factor (Teixeira, 1999). When people acquire skills they not only make themselves more productive, more able to produce more output for a given amount or effort, but they commonly also make them more adaptable (Boothe & Snower, 1996).

Human capital refers to knowledge, education, work competence, and psychometric evaluations (Namasivayam & Denizci, 2006). In simple terms, is anything but physical capital such as properties, equipment and financial capital (Pasban & Nojedeh, 2016). It is not considered as a simple input, since it plays a more complicated role in the process of producing goods or providing services, displaying an intrinsic talent, which can both change or moderate itself and other inputs, guiding o the continuous vitality of economy (Menzies, 2003). In fact, there are a range of definitions of human capital, emphasizing different characteristics. However, Weatherly (2003) considers it as a collection of features, life trade, knowledge, creativity, innovation, and energy, which people invest it in their work. In this context, human capital is the investment in human resources in order to increase their efficiency: an investment for future use. Learning Organizations choose the investment in individuals, because people are valuable human capital with unlike qualities (Burund & Tumolo, 2004; Pasban & Nojedeh, 2016). Commonly, organizational capital is a interconnected set of qualitative features, including educational, skilled, and cultural, which creates value added for the organization (Namasivayam & Denizci, 2006; Claus, 2019).

The accumulation of knowledge and human capital has a direct effect on efficiency and positively affect the economic growth in the long term (Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2005; Faria, Montesinos-Yufa, Morales, & Navarrobe (2016). Organizations depend more on intangible assets especially human capital than on tangible assets, playing human resources the major role an constituting the most important investment (Drucker, 1954). Employing and keeping the best employees is a big challenge (Alves et al, 2019) which requires special attention from Organizations to raise the level of organizational learning, increase the level of employees' skills and abilities through encouraging them, and provide a learning atmosphere where knowledge is created, shared and applied (Stiles & Kulvisaechana, 2003). People are the only resource of the inimitable organization, creates value and plays a central role in contributing to the improvement of the company's competitiveness and results (Rego et al., 2015).

Millennial Generation in the Workplace

Nowadays workplace diversity is high, with socioeconomic, cultural and management differences which requires from the employers´ side new ways of motivating people to efficiently work (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). People on companies are usually from different generational groups and this reality must be well understood by managers. By definition, a generational group shares historical and social life experiences, which affect the way people in that generation develop and distinguish one generational group from another (Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008). The social context in which a generational group develops impacts their personality and a person's feelings towards authority, values, beliefs, work ethic, goals and aspirations for their work life, among others. (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Each generation brings a unique culture, perspective and experience to the workplace, and this variety usually does not work without supervision. The problem worsens as Baby Boomer late retirement and a number of professionals from the Generation Millennium, who have training, but who have no experience, are entering, without having a generation's bridge between them (Jones, 2016). Over the past sixty years, there have been three generations dominating the workplace: Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennials (Kaifi, Nafei, Khanfar, & Kaifi, 2012). The Baby Boomer generation is anyone born between 1943 and 1960, in a prosperous economic time and without growing under dependency on technology (Kaifi et al., 2012; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Generation X, people born between 1961 and 1979, significantly smaller than previous and succeeding generations (Kaifi et al., 2012) and with parents working out during all day. This generation grew up around divorce, a poor economy, and high crime (Cahill & Sedrak, 2012). The individuals born between 1980 and 2000 are the most recent generation to enter the workforce and are known as Millennials, because of their closeness to digital and the new millennium (Kaifi et al., 2012). This generation was influenced by computers and a greater acceptance of non-traditional families and values (Andert, 2011). As the Baby Boomer generation, Millennials will dominate the workforce (Smith & Nichols, 2015; Jones, 2016; Weirich, 2017) and this requires a special attention from managers to learn more about their employees' job satisfaction (Guha, 2010; Ahmad & Ibrahim, 2014) and organizational commitment levels as new generations merge with older established ones (Gibson, Greenwood, & Murphy, 2010; Kaifi et al., 2012). Differences among the generations can create problems such as distrust among employees and high turnover rates, as well as arising conflicts (Deyoe & Fox, 2011).

Millennials are confident and this confidence comes from their trust and optimism (Guha, 2010; Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010), encourage by previous generations (Kaifi et al., 2012). Research shows that Millennials rank higher in self-esteem and assertiveness when compared to previous generations at that same age (Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg, 2010) and are known to be achievement focused, aiming to become Leaders, surpass all goals and aspirations (Kaifi et al., 2012; Kowske et al., 2010). Millennials are more willing to work harder to help an organization succeed (Hauw & Vos, 2010). They also feel responsible for their actions (Kowske et al., 2010), love to work on team and are more open-minded (Andert, 2011; Kaifi et al., 2012), than earlier generations (Kowske et al., 2010). Millennials have been raised on sports teams, standardized testing, and group learning, so it is not surprising that this would transfer into the workplace (Kowske et al., 2010). This generation's value of teamwork has also instilled a greater tolerance in other people's races, nationalities and gender preferences (Behrens, 2009). They are family-focused and thus need to have a better work/life balance. This generation grew up with an emphasis on family and prefer focusing on their private lives as opposed to their careers which has created a shift in the workplace (Andert, 2011). Millennials enjoy utilizing technology and it is thought that as more Millennials begin taking over the workplace, the more integrated technology will be in work processes (Kaifi et al., 2012). Millennials become more elastic and suited to the individual's needs, triggered by seeing their parents sacrifice their home life only to fall victim to downsizing (Bannon et al., 2011). However, Millennials can be difficult to interact with, are entitled, and overly service-focused (Deal et al., 2010). They like to express opinions and making greater demands than their more elder and "experienced" counterparts (Levenson, 2010). As they are too confident and focused on their own interests (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010) are impatient, lacking in work ethic, self-important, and disloyal. Millennials may attempt to gain important positions in large projects soon after being hired (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). Millenials create conflict with Baby Boomer coworkers (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010) and this conflict could be the background mentality that Millennials are selfish and lazy and they do not sacrifice themselves for their career (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010).

Management Control and Challenges

Business market has undergone several changes in the more global, more technological, faster, more incident and more fickle market (Campelo, 2019). Nowadays our competitors are all over the world, which increases competition rivalry, forcing companies to obtain more efficient and better responses, in order to achieve good performance and obtain positive results (Listra, 2015). Knowledge and information are competitive factors that exist in companies, but need to be recognised, evaluated, measured and interpreted. "... variables such as innovation and sustainability practices, excellence in brand management, customer relationships, mechanisms for incorporating technology, governance models, knowledge and talent management capacity, among others" are critical for company's performance (COTEC Portugal, 2013, p .6).

Management Control is the process by which managers influence other members of the organization, when want to implement the organization's strategies" (Anthony & Govindarajan, 2007, p. 17). It is a process that adds a set of activities and instruments, a Management Control System, and which differs from organization to organization, regardless of whether or not they are profitable. It is a process that can be more or less complex and more or less formal, but which has to adapt to the reality of each organization (dimension, business, management style and organizational culture) (Santos, 2010).

Defining Management Control is not an easy task and several definitions appear in the literature. In 2008, Jordan Neves & Rodrigues (2008, p.21) defined Management Control as "a set of instruments that motivate decentralized managers to achieve the company's strategic objectives, privileging action and decision making in a timely manner and favoring delegation of authority and accountability ". In 2015, the same authors (Jordan et al, 2015, p. 28) add more perspectives and define Management Control as "the permanent effort made by the company's main managers to achieve the objectives set". It must "provide all those responsible with the instruments to pilot and make appropriate decisions that ensure the future of the company" (Jordan et al, 2015, p. 28), being "a set of instruments that motivate decentralized responsible persons to achieve the objectives strategic aspects of the company, privileging action and decision making in a timely manner and favoring the delegation of authority and accountability" (Jordan et al., 2015, p. 30). Since Management Control is a process in which the organization strives to achieve planned or desired results, or "performances", the various actions to be taken will serve to minimize the negative effects caused by the external and internal environment, thus representing a method to manage the organization's performance (Sljivic, Skorup, & Vukadinovic, 2015). In this context, we propose the understanding that Management Control is a system of qualitative and quantitative convergence between the company's objectives and those Individualized by those responsible.

For the coming years, the major challenges will go through four main axes: i) the challenge of innovating strategically (Milutinović, Stošić, & Mihić, 2015); ii the continuous search for competitive advantages through the development and reconfiguration of dynamic capabilities (Banerjee, Farooq, & Upadhyaya, 2018); iii) the search for articulation and absorption of knowledge, aiming at learning that aims at continuous learning (Learning Organization) (Senge, 2006); and iv) the challenge of understanding the organizational context and making sense of the subjective experience (symbolism) of an organization and its members (Ruso & Avasilcai, 2015).Digital transformation is inevitable and organizations will have to adapt to an ecosystem in which Information and Communication Technologies have also conquered their space (Ismail, Khater, & Zaki, 2018). An integrated training strategy is needed, involving the whole country to train and retain professionals knowledge (Monteiro, 2018). New professions are expected in the coming years and a lot of machine intervention to replace operations with little added value. iCloud, Big Data, Business Analytics, mobility, blockchain, Internet of Things, robotics, artificial intelligence, machine learning, virtual / augmented reality, 3D printing, among others, are just technology. For this reason, also the ICT's to be used must be chosen and integrated into the organization's management processes, where people have a determining role.

Human Capital plays a central role on the competitive company's in their medium and long term sustainability. It also plays a relevant role in transforming inputs into successful outputs (Faems & Subramanian, 2013) being considered the most valuable strategic resource. Innovation is a pillar of competitive advantage (Banbury & Mitchell, 1995; Tushman & O'Reilley, 1996) and is the key-factor for business survival (Chesbrough, 2006, *apud* Alves et al, 2019). For these reasons, People Management and monitoring must be aligned with the organizational strategic objectives in order to build an environment able to stimulate innovation (Storer & Hyland, 2009).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out during December 2019 and January 2020. As methodology it was used a qualitative research as it seeks answers to a question, systematically uses a predefined set of measures to answer the question, collects confirmation, produces findings that were not determined in advance, produces findings that are applicable outside the immediate borders of the study. Furthermore, it seeks to understand a given research problem or topic from the perspectives of the particular population it involves, and provides complex textual descriptions of how people experience a given research issue (Mack et al., 2005). It provides information about the "human" side of an issue – that is, the often contradictory behaviors, beliefs, opinions, emotions, and relationships of individuals. Qualitative methods are also effective in identifying intangible factors, such as social norms, socioeconomic status, gender roles, ethnicity and generations, among others,

Our sample was of convenience using semi-structured interviews with two kinds of players: i) students from Hospitality and Tourism already working on a professional context linked with their educational area and ii) practitioners with more than 10 years of experience on Tourism.

The students (12) were from the Polytechnic Institute of Porto (IPP), Portugal, and from the Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave (IPCA), Portugal. From IPP, 4 were from the Master of Tourism Management (4) and Hospitality Management (3). From IPCA, 5 were from the Master of Tourism Management. The practitioners (5) were from Higher Education Institutions (2) and Professional Tourism Schools (3). A script according to the conducted above literature review was elaborated, later validated by three professionals of the Hospitality and Tourism sectors. The interviews were conducted by skype, with an average duration of 30 minutes and totally conducted in Portuguese language.

The study aimed to comprehend what Millenialls value and make them stay happy and for long with the company. It also intended to better understand the reasons why Millennials easily abandon the companies where are working on. For protection and confidentiality of the interviewees and their Institutions, the denomination of the analysed interviews was replaced by the identification code MG, followed by 1, 2, 3..., n (order of the interviews), for students (MGS) and for practitioners (MGP).

The interview guide was divided into two main areas, namely: i) motivation and total disinterest for students and ii) perceptions and shared experiences from practitioners. For motivation the specific questions to be answered were: "What Millennials are expecting from their employees?" (Question 1) and "what really Millennials value?" (Question 2). For total disinterest, "What does not contribute to Millenials value as a professional and as a person?" (Question 4) and "What Millennials really don´t like in workplace environment?" (Question 4). In what concerns practitioners, the research was linked with its perception and experience (Question 5), as well as organizational relevance of better knowing Millennial' generation characteristics for better compete on the future (Question 6).

DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

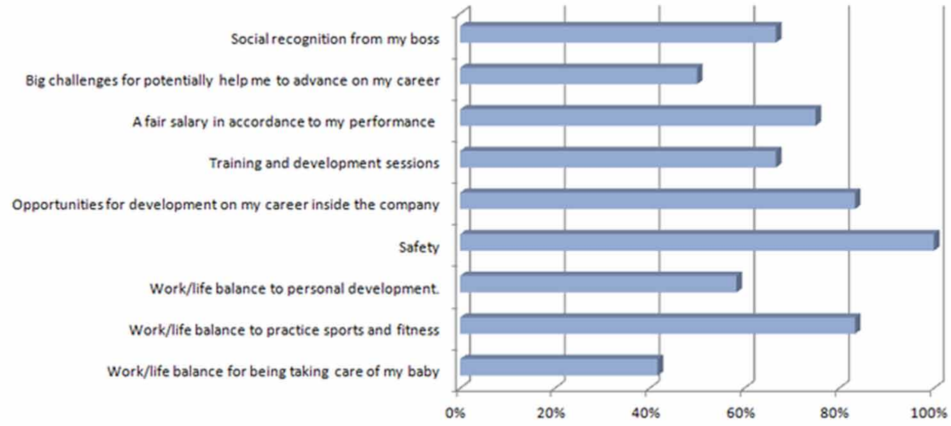
For research question 1 - **"** What Millennials are expecting from their employers**?",** as we can see on Table 1, students pointed out nine special reasons, namely: i) Work/life balance for being taking care of family, ii) Work/life balance to practice sports and fitness, iii) Work/life balance to personal development, iv) Safety, v) Opportunities for development on career inside the company, vi) Training and development sessions, vii) A fair salary in accordance to own performance, viii) Big challenges for potentially help to advance on career and ix) Social recognition from the boss. Table 1 also presents reviewed authors who corroborate these results. The tables that will follow later (Table 2, Table 3, Table 4, Table 5 and Table 6) will have the same logic.

Table 1. Millennials' expectations from their employers

Illustrative phrases	Authors
Work/life balance for being taking care of my baby and family	Andert (2011)
Work/life balance to practice sports and fitness	Kowske et al. (2010)
Work/life balance to personal development.	Rego et al. (2015)
Safety	Alves et al. (2019)
Opportunities for development on my career inside the company	Tulgan (2001); Hauw & Vos (2010)
Training and development sessions	Hauw & Vos (2010)
A fair salary in accordance to my performance	ManpowerGroup (2016)
Big challenges for potentially help me to advance on my career	Hauw & Vos (2010)
Social recognition from my boss	Andert (2011)

Source: own elaboration

Figure 1. Relative frequency of Millennials' expectations from their employers
Source: own elaboration



In fact, for students already working the main expectations seemed to be linked with Safety, Opportunities for development on career inside the company, Work/life balance to practice sports and fitness, as well as a fair salary in accordance to own performance. Next Figure (Figure 1) shows the relative frequency of the achieved main expectations.

In what concerns question 2 - " What Millennials really value?", as we can see on Table 2, students pointed out seven special reasons, namely: i) Financial rewards and bonus, ii) Social recognitions from peers, iii) Leadership positions within the workplace, iv) Team work, v) Transparent and clear career path, vi) Organizational culture and vii) Corporate Social Responsibility.

Table 2. Factors most valued by millennials

Illustrative phrases	Authors
Financial rewards and bonus	Alves et al. (2019)
Social recognitions from peers	Myers & Sadaghiani (2010)
Leadership positions within the workplace	Smith & Nichols (2015)
Team work	Deal et al. (2010)
Transparent and clear career path	Alves et al. (2019)
Organizational culture	Kaifi et al. (2012)
Corporate Social Responsibility	Hauw & Vos (2010)

Source: own elaboration

Financial rewards and Team work seems to be the most Millennials valued factors, followed by Transparent and clear career path *exequo* with Social recognitions from peers. Figure 2 presents the relative frequency of the achieved main valued factors.

Figure 2. Relative frequency of Millennials' most valued factors
Source: own elaboration

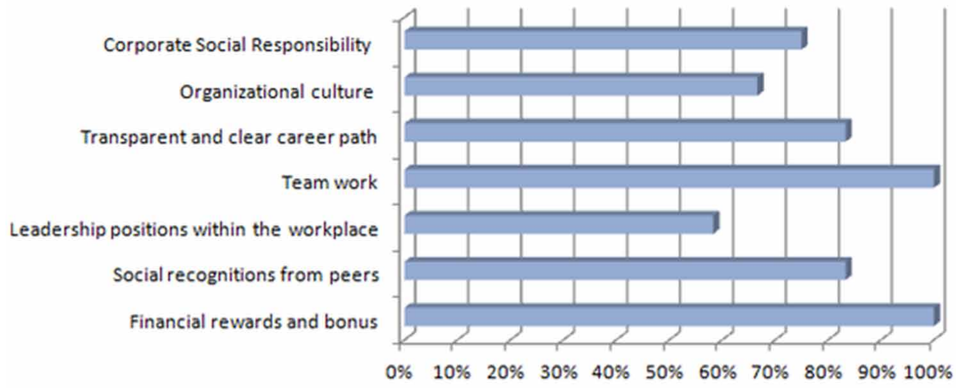


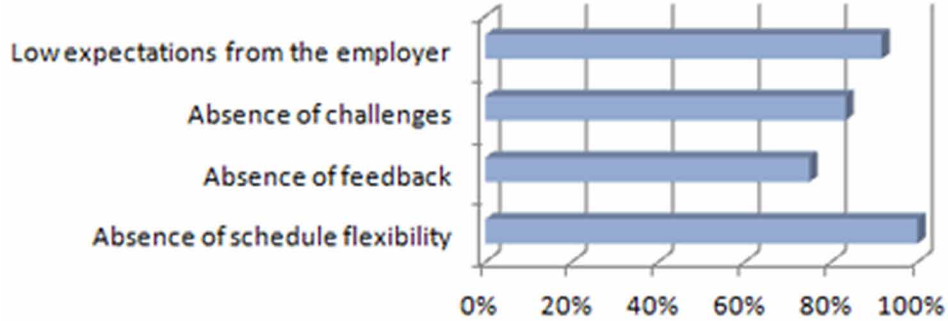
Table 3. Factors who don´t contribute to Millennials value as a professional and as a person

Illustrative phrases	
Absence of schedule flexibility	Kaifi et al. (2012)
Absence of feedback	Cahill & Sedrak (2012)
Absence of challenges	Hauw & Vos (2010)
Low expectations from the employer	Alves et al. (2019)

Source: own elaboration

Regarding research question 3 - "What does not contribute to Millenials value as a professional and as a person?" answers were linked with: i) Absence of schedule flexibility, ii) Absence of feedback, iii) Absence of challenges and iv) Low expectations from the employer, as can be seen on Table 3.

Figure 3. Relative frequency factors who don´t contribute to Millennials value as a professional and as a person
Source: own elaboration



Absence of schedule flexibility is the most cited factor, followed by Low expectations from the employer and Absence of challenges. Figure 3 presents the relative frequency of the achieved main factors that don´t contribute to Millennials value as a professional and as a person.

For research question 4 – "What Millennials really don´t like in workplace environment", Table 4 presents the ten achieved results, namely: i) Do not identify with the company's values, ii) Lack of transparency in performance' evaluation, iii) Authoritative management style, iv) Individualistic and task-focused work style, v) No performance evaluation at all about performance, vi) No training and no outdoor team activities, vii) No socializing activities with co-workers, viii) Lack of communication about the company's strategy, ix) No feedback about performance and x) No feedback about Department's performance .

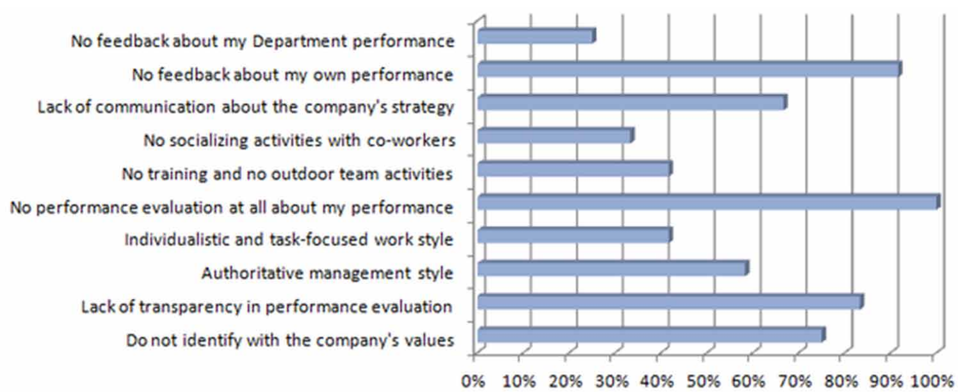
Table 4. Factors who millennials don´t like to see//have in workplace environment

Illustrative phrases	
Do not identify with the company's values	Alves et al. (2019)
Lack of transparency in performance' evaluation	Alves et al. (2019)
Authoritative management style	Smith & Nichols (2015)
Individualistic and task-focused work style	Bannon et al. (2011)
No performance evaluation at all about my performance	Cahill & Sedrak (2012)
No training and no outdoor team activities	Kowske et al. (2010)
No socializing activities with co-workers	Kowske et al. (2010)
Lack of communication about the company's strategy	Alves et al. (2019)
No feedback about my own performance	Cahill & Sedrak (2012)
No feedback about my Department performance	Alves et al. (2019)

Source: own elaboration

Figure 4 presents the relative frequency of the achieved main factors.

Figure 4. Relative frequency of factors who Millennials don´t like to see/have in workplace environment
Source: own elaboration



Special emphasis is given to evaluation and feedback performance, as well as Lack of transparency in performance' evaluation, followed by no identification with company' values, On the end appears No feedback about Department's performance, preceded by No socializing activities with co-workers.

Regarding practitioners and answering research question 5 – "What is the perception about Millennials behaviour in workplace when compared with other generations?", Table 5 presents the seven achieved results, namely: i) Millennials are more technologically advanced, ii) tend to introduce ITC in their daily practiced, iii) without feedback, feel its work not satisfactory, iv) don´t want too much rules and regulations, v) want companies to bet on their ideas, vi) love to work on team and vii) are more tolerant to race, ethnicities, cultures and gender.

More technological skills and fewer prejudices in what concerns race, ethnicities, cultures and gender are the main characteristics of Millennials when compared with other generations. Figure 5 presents the obtained results.

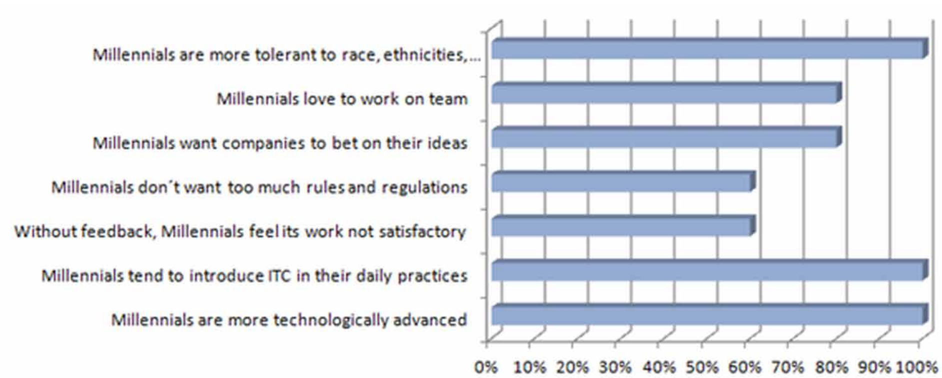
For research question 6 – "What do you think are the main benefits for companies to well know the differences between its Human Resources in what concerns generations and motivations behaviours?", practitioners highlighted five benefits, namely: i) Attract and retain Talents, ii) Harness Human Resources

Table 5. Main perceived generation's differences in workplace environment by practitioners

Illustrative phrases	
Millennials are more technologically advanced	Kaifi et al. (2012)
Millennials tend to introduce ITC in their daily practices	Kaifi et al. (2012)
Without feedback, Millennials feel its work not satisfactory	Cahill & Sedrak (2012)
Millennials don´t want too much rules and regulations	Kaifi et al. (2012)
Millennials want companies to bet on their ideas	Cahill & Sedrak (2012)
Millennials love to work on team	Cahill & Sedrak (2012)
Millennials are more tolerant to race, ethnicities, cultures and gender	Behrens (2009)

Source: own elaboration

Figure 5. Relative frequency of main perceived generation's differences in workplace environment by practitioners
Source: own elaboration



talent, iii) Minimizing potential conflicts between generations, iv) Avoid conflict and better motivate Millennials, v) Effectively and assertively communicate to all HR and vi) Take advantage of Millennials to enhance social and environmental responsibility actions inside and outside company. Table 6 presents the collected data.

Table 6. Main perceived benefits for companies to know better Millennials characteristics

Illustrative phrases	
Attract and retain Talents	Alves et al. (2019)
Harness Human Resources talent	Alves et al. (2019)
Minimizing potential conflicts between generations	Deyoe and Fox (2011)
Avoid conflict and better motivate Millennials	Deyoe and Fox (2011)
Effectively and assertively communicate to all HR	Alves et al. (2019)
Take advantage of Millennials to enhance social and environmental responsibility actions	(Hauw & Vos, 2010

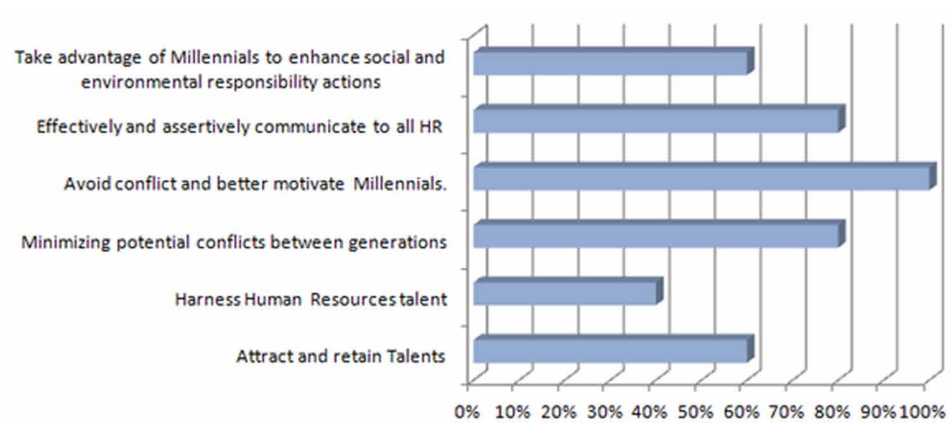
Source: own elaboration

Avoid conflict and better motivate Millennials, Effectively and assertively communicate to all Human Resources and Minimizing potential conflicts between generations seem to be the main benefits. Figure 6 shows the obtained results.

LIMITATIONS

Respondents were limited to answering almost closed questions; even researchers felt were not enough to evaluate the complex theme under study. Respondents were not representative, but as an exploratory study,

Figure 6. Relative frequency of main perceived benefits for companies to know better Millennials characteristics.
Source: own elaboration



possible conclusions could be later replied and verified in more detail. No geographic area or difference between sample respondents was done, but it is relevant to note that our sample was of convenience. The chapter could be stronger if the universe was more representative, including other generations and maybe more deeply research.

FUTURE RESEARCH

For future research it would be interesting to have more students (working on Tourism or Hospitality) and practitioners (Formal and Informal Education). In a first step the universe could be only constituted by the two studied Portuguese Polytechnics: Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave (IPCA) and Polytechnic Institute of Porto (P. Porto). Another suggestion would be to study the differences between students from Hospitality Management and students from Tourism Management, both at bachelor's and master's levels. Use more open questions and a mix methodology. These researchers could also be replied on other Institutions or activity sectors. As public policies, it is suggested that training programs / actions must be created at national level in these areas, as well as organized Workshops and Conferences where Good Practices would be disseminated and the quantitative and qualitative results presented.

CONCLUSION

Nowadays, companies are under great pressure with challenges markets', demanding customers and increased competitiveness (Feenan, 2015). Organizational excellence is required and Human Resources (HR) departments can make a real contribution to the business through the capacity to generate value and reduce risk (Mitsakis, 2014). Large teams are organizations that learn how to develop new skills and know-how which lead to new thoughts and feelings that in turn modify beliefs and opinions (Riche & Alto, 2001). Within all the internal company resources, people are the most important one (Badea, Mihaiu, & Iancu, 2015). Several authors, including Peter Drucker (1954), argue that HR plays a major role in the organization and define them as one of the most important investment that an organization can make, constituting the organization itself (Drucker, 1954). Known as learning organizations, they define themselves as "organizations in which people continually expand their capacity to create the results they really want, where new and comprehensive thinking patterns are stimulated, where collective aspiration gains freedom and where people learn to learn together" (Senge, 2012, p. 28). These learning organizations are constituted by people who constantly develop their capacity to create the desired results, which encourage new and wide patterns of behaviour, where collective ambition reaches power and where joint learning is valued (Riche & Alto, 2001).

The reviewed literature confirmed that each generation is different and are a result of its experiences and year of birth age, among other factors. For the present study the main motivations for Millenials seem to be linked with Work/life balance (Andert, 2011; Kowske et al., 2010; Rego et al., 2015), Scheduled flexibility (Kaifi et al., 2012), Salary and bonus in accordance to own performance (ManpowerGroup, 2016), Challenging Leadership (Hauw & Vos, 2010) and Opportunities for development on career (Tulgan, 2001; Hauw & Vos, 2010).

Behaviors/Attitudes that must be avoid from companies when dealing with Millennials are Absence of Transparent and clear career path (Alves et al, 2019), Absence of feedback (Cahill & Sedrak, 2012;

Kaifi et al., 2012: Hauw & Vos, 2010), Absence of scheduled flexibility (Kaifi et al., 2012) and Lack of communication about the company's strategy (Alves et al., 2019).

As valued factors Millennials love to work on team (Deal et al., 2010), develop activities with peers outside daily work practices (Kowske et al., 2010), train and socialize with co-workers (Kowske et al., 2010) and be part of a Company with concerns about Social Responsibility (Hauw & Vos, 2010).

Millennial refuse to work with Companies whose Values are not similar to their own values (Alves et al., 2019), detest Authoritative management style (Smith & Nichols, 2015) and are more tolerant to race, ethnicities, cultures and gender (Behrens (2009).

Millennials are more technologically advanced when compared to other generations (Kaifi et al., 2012) and tend to introduce ITC in their daily practices (Kaifi et al., 2012), skills that must be harnessed by companies in order to increase their competitive advantage an compete on a more and more digital world (Ismail, Khater, & Zaki, 2018).

Finally, it will be relevant to reaffirm the need for companies to know and manage their Human Resources, taking into account their motivations, aspirations, dreams and, above all, reasons why they can trigger them to leave the company. In an unbalanced market such as the one we are in, where the demand for work is higher than the offered jobs, these issues may seem to be of less importance. However, it should always be present that Human Resources are our talent, our inimitable assets and part of our competitive advantage. If motivated and encouraged, they can help us to grow and sustainably compete on the medium and long term. Retaining and attracting Talents, build winning teams and create favourable learning environments are concerns that companies should have and should know how to manage them ... after all, most of the success of organizations depends on their inimitable resources: their priceless Human Resources.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Asset: A resource with economic value that an individual, corporation, or country owns or controls with the expectation that it will provide a future benefit. Assets are reported on a company's balance sheet and are bought or created to increase a firm's value or benefit the firm's operations. An asset can be thought of as something that, in the future, can generate cash flow, reduce expenses, or improve sales, regardless of whether it's manufacturing equipment or a patent.

Baby Boomer Generation: Anyone born between 1943 and 1960 and called so because when the men returned from fighting in World War II, a large increase in birth rates followed, thus creating a baby boom. This generation rose in a prosperous economic time but without being dependent on technology.

Competitive Advantage: An advantage that arises from internally developed core competences or distinctive capabilities based on knowledge developed through organizational learning. It depends on the behavior of the organization rather than its competitive environment.

Core Competencies: Are the resources and capabilities that comprise the strategic advantages of a business. A modern management theory argues that a business must define, cultivate, and exploit its core competencies in order to succeed against the competition. A variation of the principle that has emerged in recent years recommends that job seekers focus on their personal core competencies in order to stand out from the crowd. Some personal core competencies include analytical abilities, creating thinking, and problem resolution skills.

Dynamic Capability: The firm's ability to integrate, build, and reconfigure internal and external competences to address rapidly changing environments. It can be distinguished from operational capabilities, which pertain to the current operations of an organization. Dynamic capabilities, by contrast, refer to the capacity of an organization to purposefully create, extend, or modify its resource base, The basic assumption of the dynamic capabilities framework is that core competencies should be used to modify short-term competitive positions that can be used to build longer-term competitive advantage.

Generation: A group which can be identified by year of birth, age, location, and significant events that create their personality. It can be developed by significant life events such as pandemics, new technologies, wars or major economic or political transitions. These events form the personality, values, and expectations of that generation.

Generation X: A generation also called Gen X, or Xers, born between 1961 and 1979. A generation immediately after the Baby Boomers and the first generation to return home from school without a parent to greet them, as their parents were out working. This generation grew up around divorce, a poor economy, and high crime.

Human Capital: The investment in Human Resources in order to increase their efficiency: an investment for future use. Human capital refers to knowledge, education, work competence, and psychometric evaluations.

Intangible Asset: An asset that is not physical in nature. Goodwill, brand recognition and intellectual property, such as patents, trademarks, and copyrights, are all intangible assets. Intangible assets exist in opposition to tangible assets, which include land, vehicles, equipment, and inventory. Additionally, financial assets such as stocks and bonds, which derive their value from contractual claims, are considered tangible assets.

Learning Organizations: A place where people continually expand their capacity to create results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free and where people are continually learning how to learn.

Management Control: A set of instruments that motivate decentralized managers to achieve the company's strategic objectives, privileging action and decision making in a timely manner and favouring delegation of authority and accountability.

Millennials: A generation with individuals born between 1980 and 2000. Its name is linked with the closeness to the new millennium and the growing in a a more digital age. This generation was influenced by computers and a greater acceptance of non-traditional families and values.

Organizational Capital: A interconnected set of qualitative features, including educational, skilled, and cultural, which creates value added for the organization.

Organizational Culture: A set of shared assumptions that guide what happens in organizations by defining appropriate behaviour for various situations. It affects the way people and groups interact with each other, with clients, customers, and other stakeholders. Also, organizational culture may influence how much employees identify with their organization.

Chapter 3
Soft Skills vs. Hard Skills in Tourism:
Anything Else?

Andreia Antunes Moura
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1722-3476
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

Maria do Rosário Campos Mira
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8878-955X
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

Vânia Natércia Costa
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4202-8779
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal & GOVCOPP, University of Aveiro, Portugal

ABSTRACT

This chapter presents a qualitative study, resulting from a systematic literature review using a text analysis technique through the NVivo software, version 10.0. This technique involves grouping words that reveal semantic similarity to each other and results indicate that considerations around soft and hard skills in tourism have been different over time. In short, it might be said that it is hard skills that lead people to job interviews, but it is soft skills that allow them to be recruited for employment. Hence, it is the combination of the two skill types that enables people to have a job in the tourism industry, manage a career, and contribute to the differentiation of tourism companies in the tourism global marketplace that tends to be increasingly competitive.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch003

INTRODUCTION

The globalization of the world economy integrates and connects the different economies and labor markets and according to the European Strategy and Policy Analysis System [ESPAS] (2015), it is estimated that, in the forthcoming years, there will be a reduction of the gap between industrialized and emerging economies. This aspect will allow a greater distribution of products and services of high financial value, creating a challenge for the more consolidated economies given the arrival of new market players. The key to maintaining competitiveness is to be innovative and invest in human capital. Skills will determine, to a large extent, competitiveness and the ability to generate innovation in organizations, becoming a factor of attraction and financing, and playing a crucial role in social cohesion. Economic growth and the creation of new jobs intensify the need for continuous improvement of qualifications and competences that correspond to the growing needs of a new labor market inserted in contemporary societies increasingly grounded on knowledge (BM, 2010; EC, 2016; WEM, 2018; WTTC, 2015).

In the next decades, half of the current jobs will be at risk of extinction and will be replaced by new types of jobs that demand better and different qualifications from workers. In 2025, six out of ten young people entering the world's workforce will perform jobs that do not exist today (WEM, 2018). Therefore, people should be concerned about their skills.

These competencies, abilities or capacities are those characteristics that focus on the individual and can be defined by the set of knowledge, attitudes and personal features, essential for employability, transferable to the work environment and which must be continuously updated throughout life (Athey & Orth, 1999; Jeou-Shyan, Hsuan, Chih-Hsing, Lin & Chang-Yen, 2011; Raybould & Wilkins, 2006).

The literature defines two different types of skills: Soft skills and hard skills (Andrews & Higson, 2008; Awan, Ahmed, & Zulqarnain, 2015; Croes & Visser, 2015; Huang, Lalopa & Adler, 2016; Mitchell, 2008; Ruetzler, Baker, Reynolds, Taylor & Allen, 2014; Tesone & Ricci, 2006). On one hand, soft skills mirror individuals' lifestyles and people's attitude towards work, so companies are starting to give them more importance when choosing their employees. Individual and social skills such as problem-solving ability, flexibility, confidence, creativity and good interpersonal relationships, as well as an interest in contributing positively to society's development meet the challenges faced by contemporary companies. On the other hand, hard skills are technical skills or represent specific professional knowledge, so they can be easily measured or tested in job interviews, in practice at the workplace, or in other assessment situations. They are fundamental for effective performance and functioning in any field of activity, being directly associated with performance and task fulfillment.

In tourism, the competitiveness of destinations and companies is distinguished by their ability to use, in a sustainable and efficient way, all the resources available, with special emphasis on human capital (OECD, 2013; Sitompul, Kustono, Suhartadi, & Setyaningsih, 2017; Valkonen, Huilaja, & Koikkalainen, 2013). Tourism service providers ensure quality, guaranteeing the best added value for tourists and attracting new market shares. Without highly qualified staff, tourism loses quality, and consequently, competitive capacity. Thus, the qualification or requalification of human resources is the main challenge that tourism destinations face today. As such, the principal objective of this study is to present a systematic literature review about the main dimensions of human resource qualification in the tourism sector: soft skills and hard skills.

BACKGROUND

Skills result from the relation between the application of individual attributes and the performance of operational or technical tasks that allow better professional performance, i.e., they represent the inputs or knowledge, aptitudes, attitudes and individual behaviors of each one, which are based on their personal and / or technical attributes and which translate into better outputs or performance in a given work situation. (Christou, 2002; Coll & Zegwaard, 2006; Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea & Roberts, 2010; Kyllonen, 2013; Lowry & Flohr, 2005; Spowart, 2011; Weinland, Gregory & Petrick, 2016). Skills are all the knowledge acquired by individuals based on their abilities, aptitudes and knowledge, which can be developed through education and training and directed according to organizations' interests and objectives (Wagenaar, 2014).

Attributes of a cognitive origin are called hard skills or technical skills, and those originating in behaviors are called soft skills or behavioral skills (Coll & Zegwaard, 2006; Lowry & Flohr, 2005; Ramlall & Ramlall, 2014; Windels, Mallia & Broyles, 2013).

Hard skills, technical or cognitive skills, are considered the knowledge necessary for the performance of a specific occupation or task and are defined as the capacities individually held and apprehended, derived from obtained knowledge through education, training or professional experience, clearly identifiable and easily measurable and can be improved or developed (Junrat, Jenphop, Suravee, & Kanokorn, 2014; Sisson & Adams, 2013; Sitompul et al., 2017). Hard skills allow the assessment and identification of problems, and consequently, the development of creative and complex solutions (Coll & Zegwaard, 2006; Robles, 2012; Shooter, Sibthorp & Paisley, 2009; Weber, Crawford & Dennison, 2012; Weber, Finley, Crawford & Rivera, 2009). They are also clearly identifiable and easily measurable and can be improved or developed through education, training and professional experience (Junrat et al., 2014; Sisson & Adams, 2013; Sitompul et al., 2017).Hard skills are demonstrable: courses, diplomas, demonstration of techniques, case solving, use of tools, among others.

Soft skills are a sociological term that relates to emotional intelligence, that is, they are intangible competences, human characteristics and personality traits, which contribute to an organization's success and which are based on individual attitudes and behaviors (Coll & Zegwaard, 2006; Ibrahim, Boerhannoeddin & Kayode, 2017; Rivera Jr & Lee, 2016; Robles, 2012; Sitompul et al., 2017; Truong, Laura & Shaw, 2016; Weber, Crawford, Lee, & Dennison, 2013). They are the basic skills that must be acquired beforehand and continuously throughout life, as employers consider them as unique and adding value to business. Nevertheless, these skills are very difficult to teach and equally difficult to measure. Soft skills are developed by experience and personal experiences, which are necessary for the application of knowledge and technical aspects in a professional environment, being transferable and transversal to the performance of any job, regardless of the industry. Soft skills allow better employability and performance of employees and therefore of organizations, communities and economies (Boyce, Williams, Kelly & Yee, 2001; Junrat et al., 2014; Sisson & Adams, 2013; Tsitskari, Goudas, Tsalouchou & Michalopoulou, 2017; Weber et al., 2012; Weber et al., 2009).

What distinguishes these two concepts is their applicability. Hard skills apply directly to the performance of an occupation, that is, they apply only to the performance of a certain task or activity. On the contrary, soft skills are broadly applicable to the performance of all occupations, tasks or activities. Thus, soft skills complement the technical requirements or hard skills necessary to perform a particular job and are considered even more important, especially in the service industry, given the proximity and personal imprint of employees in their relationship with clients (Frantz & Misal, 2016; Robles, 2012).

Educators and professionals believe that administrative, conceptual, leadership and interpersonal domains complement hard and soft skills (Millar, Mao & Moreo, 2010). Those skills may be called transversal skills. Wilson, Murray and Black (2000) indicated 15 competencies essential for contract catering and most of them came from a range of managerial activities. According to Su, Miller and Shanklin (1997), general management knowledge/skills are very important and lead the way to success in the tourism/ hospitality industry. This corroborates Gursoy and Swanger (2004, 2005, 2007, 2010) in their various studies, which support industry professionals seeing the most important task of tourism and hospitality management programs as developing students' managerial and personal skills throughout their education.

Historically, careers were stable and linearly progressive. However, the current dynamic labor environment has led to a revolution in the way people design and manage their careers, given that, today, constant skills development is required throughout life, especially personal skills (Kong, Cheung & Song, 2012).In the process of recruiting new employees, companies seek to assess candidates' level of knowledge and management attributes, but when previously, the most experienced candidates with the best technical skills were selected, nowadays, greater importance is given to candidates who have adequate transversal and soft skills. Autonomy, ease of communication, interpersonal interaction, team work, versatility, adaptability to different professional contexts and problem-solving are some of the most valued soft skills (Frantz & Misal, 2016; Kim & Jeong, 2018; Robles, 2012; Valkonen, Huilaja & Koikkalainen, 2013; Weber et al., 2009). Employers have realized that these skills better reflect the way professionals apply professional knowledge, thus contributing to the creation of more successful careers, and construction of strong and lasting relationships with their organizations (Baum, 2002).

In tourism, the proximity and personal contact between tourists and service providers is constant, so human resources are assumed to be determinant in the perceived quality of the final product provided and in the perceived image of the destination, influencing satisfaction, loyalty, repetition and recommendation (Giannakis & Harker, 2014). In the special case of tourism, being a business sector based on service provision, this implies a high level of human involvement, requiring face-to-face interaction (Mira, Mónico & Moura, 2017) that greatly influences consumption of the tourism product itself. It is understood, therefore, that tourism professionals support destination competitiveness and should be highly qualified individuals (Camison & Forés, 2015). Nevertheless, according to employers, there are skill gaps in the tourism labor market such as:

1. communication skills, people and task management, reaction to innovation and change (Chung-Herrera, Enz & Lankau, 2003; Lolli, 2013; Lowry & Flohr, 2005; Nyanjom & Wilkins, 2016);
2. skills that allow employees to perform multiple functions, be creative, have flexibility, the ability to create bonds and empathy with customers, showing sympathy, warmth and kindness, particularly in the service industries, and mainly in the tourism sector (Baum, 2002; Christou, 2002).
3. computer skills, since tourism employees are expected to be able to use the various digital tools of organizational tourism procedures (Breiter & Hoart, 2000; Cobanoglu, Dede & Poorani, 2007);
4. professional ethics, effective oral and written communication in their native and foreign languages, leadership skills, people, product and business management skills, creative thinking, problem identification and resolution skills and adaptation to change (Chung, 2000; Johanson et al., 2010; Lin, 2002; Truong et al., 2016).

In the last decades, the sector's business models have changed and followed the fluctuating demand (Baum & Devine, 2005). Globalization has changed the nature of traditional jobs, given the speed of communication and easy access to information in societies that are increasingly "online" (Gekara & Snell, 2018). Nowadays, competitiveness lies in receptiveness, innovation and (re) qualification of human resources for the new challenges of the tourism market, anticipating and / or forecasting vital skills that guarantee better responses to global changes and trends (Frantz & Misal, 2016; Lashley, 2009; Mira, Mónico & Moura, 2017; Nyanjom & Wilkins, 2016). So it is imperative that tourism workers are increasingly better prepared for the new challenges of an evolving labor market:

- new needs for more comprehensive skills and competences (Jeou-Shyan et al., 2011; Lashley, 2009);
- adaptable and adjustable training (Breiter & Hoart, 2000; Dale, Decosta & Weir, 2017; Hsu, 2018; Lin, 2002);
- flexibility for employees (Jeou-Shyan et al., 2011);
- growing needs and expectations of customers (Bañuls, Rodríguez & Jiménez, 2007);
- ability to forecast market changes and anticipate future competence needs in order to maintain competitiveness (Weinland et al., 2016);
- focus on individual and specialized qualification (Baum & Devine, 2005; Junrat et al., 2014);
- better definition of individual contribution to the pursuit of organizational objectives (Johanson et al., 2010);
- knowledge transfer between the organization's members (Mira, Mónico, Moura & Breda, 2017);
- environmental sustainability and social responsibility in the societies in which companies operate (Baum, 2002; Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Kay & Moncarz, 2004);
- speed in implementing the changes necessary to remain globally competitive (Athey & Orth, 1999).

In short, the literature reveals that human capital is the most valuable resource in any organization. This is particularly relevant in the case of tourism. Tourism presents characteristics of intangibility and inseparability between the consumer and the service provider which are a vital part of the tourism experience. That is, tourism professionals have a dynamic role in attracting and engaging tourists in the whole process of co-creating their unique and significant experiences and memories about a destination (Sørensen & Jensen, 2015). At the same time, the transition from industrial societies to knowledge societies has changed business models, giving rise to new market needs (López-Bonilla & López-Bonilla, 2014; Ramlall & Ramlall, 2014). In this context, it appears obvious that technical qualifications are insufficient and inadequate for current tourism sector needs, since complementarity with personal and interpersonal skills is central to the quality of the service or product.

In an increasingly globalized and volatile world, good professional performance is associated with a balance between hard, management, transversal and soft skills (Coll & Zegwaard, 2006; Daniel, Costa, Pita & Costa, 2017; Tsitskari et al., 2017). Hence, it is fundamental to identify and understand the skills needed for increased productivity, effectiveness and efficiency in tourism businesses, to drive the growth and development of tourism destinations (Bañuls et al., 2007).

SKILLS IN TOURISM

Tourism activities cannot be separated from the service provider or supplier, and as a result, human resources require multiple skills. Despite the importance of human resources for the sector, in general, employment in this industry is characterized by low wages, long working hours, gender inequalities, both in job opportunities and in wages, poor or non-existent professional careers, informal recruitment practices, a lack of good practices in development and people management, low union participation and high levels of employee turnover (Baum, 2002). However, the tourism industry has revealed intentions of restructuring and evolving, with the consensus that there should be a continuous review of skill needs in order to reflect and follow the changes experienced in the market (Raybould & Wilkins, 2006; Testa & Sipe, 2012; Wilton, 2012).

Methodology

The objective formulated in this study stems from the problem identified by the World Travel & Tourism Council (2015), that there is a deficit of 14 million jobs and a low level of education among human resources in tourism. Combining this concern with the changes observed in tourism, the aim was to find out what skills are required by professionals in this sector.

A qualitative study was carried out, using a systematic review of the literature, aiming to identify existing knowledge of the main challenges and constraints to the competitiveness of tourist companies, related to the skills of human resources. A descriptive analysis of the documentary sample was carried out using NVivo (version 10.0), which allowed the construction of a word cloud and organizing skills by area of activity in the tourism sector.

Personal, professional, management and transversal skills, as well as the link between education and the job market, appear as the most relevant variables in this matter. The association between the creation of potential value through human resource qualification and companies' competitive performance is summarized in the following objective: to identify the behavioral skills (soft skills), technical skills (hard skills), management and transversal skills, most required to work in tourism.

Systematic Review Studies

The documentary research was guided by the following keywords: soft skills, hard skills, management skills and transversal skills in tourism. The documents were collected between September 2017 and March 2018, resulting in 112 publications. This research sought to be as comprehensive as possible, choosing documents in digital format, on the following platforms or free access bibliographic bases: (i) B-on (https://www.b-on.pt/) ; (ii) Google Scholar (https://scholar.google.pt/); (iii) ResearchGate (https://www.researchgate.net/).

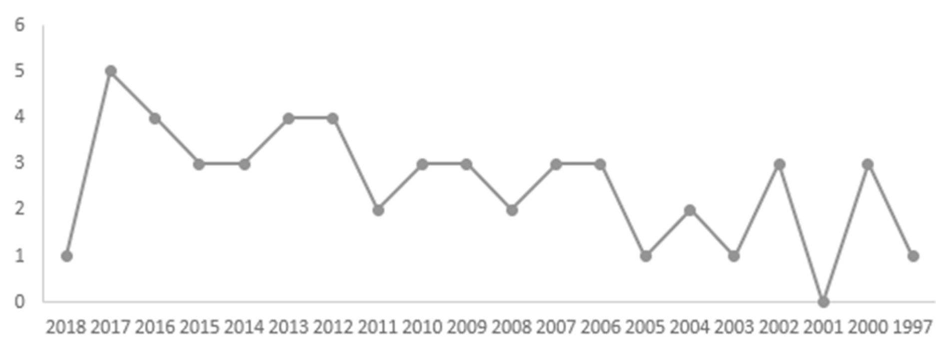
Analysis of these 112 publications focused on the scientific domain of the study, selecting those that addressed the skills of human resources in tourism, in different areas of activity. In addition to the 'study object' criterion, a few more documents were excluded, for the following reasons: (i) publications in which the file transformed into Portable Document Format (PDF) was recorded as an image and not as text, not being editable; (ii) publications in which the full text was not freely accessible; and (iii) publications in which the full text was available in languages other than English, French, Spanish or Portuguese.

Application of these criteria and full reading of the documents led to the exclusion of 61 publications, with 51 documents being retained to form the documentary sample, most of which (96%, n = 49) are articles. These publications made it possible to extract relevant information on the relationship between the concepts of tourism, soft and hard skills. The detailed characterization of these documents regarding authors, year, title, source, country, scientific domain and aim of the study, is presented in Appendix 1.

Documentary Sample Characterization

In Appendix 2 the documentary sample is characterized according to: authors, year, title, source and quote. It appears that study of the skills of human resources in tourism has increased since 2006, observing a growing trend in the number of publications in this field. The reduced number of documents in 2018 is associated with the period in which the documentary research was carried out (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Number of publications by year
Source: Own elaboration

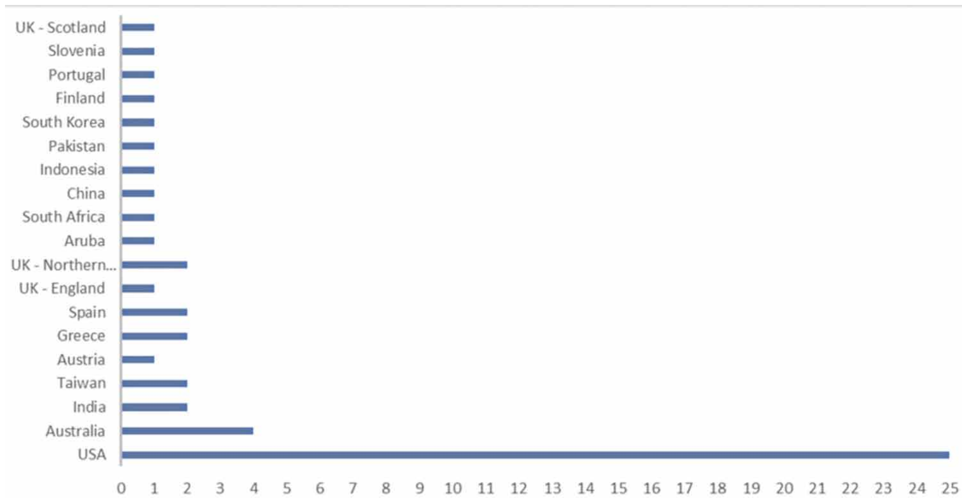


Considering the first author's country of origin, a somewhat uniform distribution is observed in terms of the number of publications. Authors publishing in the United States stand out (Figure 2).

Figure 2 shows that most research has been done on this topic in America (n = 26, 51%), followed by Europe (n = 12, 23.5%), Asia (n = 8, 15.6%), Oceania (n = 4, 7.9%) and Africa (n = 1, 2%). We emphasize that the topic has aroused the interest of the scientific community on all continents, in accordance with globalization and new labor challenges worldwide (Frantz & Misal, 2016; Gekara & Snell, 2018; Lashley, 2009; Mira, Mónico & Moura, 2017; Nyanjom & Wilkins, 2016).

Table 2 shows that study of the relationship between skills and human resources in tourism has essentially interested researchers in the areas of education / training and hotels / tourism. Despite finding a greater number of publications in magazines specializing in hospitality and tourism, it is the authors who publish in education and / or training magazines in human resources or tourism that are most cited. This information can provide clues for future investigations, as it identifies the scientific family focusing on this research question and the journals most receptive to publications on these topics, as well as the authors of reference (see Table 2 and Appendix 2).

Figure 2. Number of publications by original country of the first author
Source: Own elaboration



The frequency analysis carried out in the NVivo computer program, with the 51 documents of the documentary sample, allowed construction of the word cloud represented in Figure 3. Competences in the areas of management, hospitality, tourism and education / teaching stand out.

Transversally way, knowledge and a career in tourism stand out. Management skills are fundamentally associated with communication, training, research and marketing; hospitality skills include leadership, internationalization and information; tourism skills add the importance of developing projects, services, programs and businesses; and teaching / education is associated with analytical thinking, higher education, the need for graduates and interpersonal communication.

RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Analysis of the information allowed grouping competences according to different perspectives: (i) personal and professional core competences for tourism; (ii) soft-skills; (iii) hard-skills; (iv) competencies that can be considered either soft-skills or hard-skills, depending on context variables, the type of companies or other situations; and (v) competences across all sectors of tourism activity, of which human resources must already have minimal knowledge before entering the labor market (Table 2), as already mentioned in the literature (Christou, 2002; Coll & Zegwaard, 2006; Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea & Roberts, 2010; Kyllonen, 2013; Lowry & Flohr, 2005; ; Millar, Mao & Moreo, 2010; Spowart, 2011; Weinland, Gregory & Petrick, 2016).

Table 3 specifies the human resource skills considered by the authors to contribute most to competitiveness in tourism, distinguishing between Soft skills, Hard skills and Soft and hard Skills.

The nature of the concepts that make up the Soft and hard Skills typology refers to the management skills of services or companies, as a whole (see Table 3). As for Transversal skills, knowledge of languages (mother tongue, English, French, German and Spanish) was valued, computer knowledge from the user's perspective, knowledge of marketing, digital marketing and social media management. The

Table 1. Sources by scientific domain and quotes

Issue	Journal	Nº of Papers	Quotes
Education / Teaching	Higher Education in Europe	1	901
	Journal of Vocational Education & Training	2	257
	Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism	3	197
	Journal of Information Systems Education	1	6
	International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies	1	5
	Journal for Contemporary Research in Management	1	2
	Doctoral dissertation on Education	1	27
	TOTAL	**10**	**1395**
Hospitality and Tourism	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	11	574
	Tourism and Hospitality Research	3	256
	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	3	161
	Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	4	139
	International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration	1	65
	Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education	2	57
	Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism	1	19
	TOTAL	**25**	**1271**
Others	Business Communication Quarterly	1	986
	Journal of Poverty, Investment and Development	1	22
	International CHRIE Conference-Refereed Track	1	22
	Social and Behavioral Sciences	1	8
	TOTAL	**4**	**1038**
Hospitality	Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly	2	528
	International Journal of Hospitality Management	6	388
	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	1	28
	TOTAL	**9**	**944**
Tourism	Tourism Management	2	227
	Current Issues in Tourism	1	30
	TOTAL	**3**	**257**

Source: Own elaboration

authors state that this knowledge must already be part of human resources' basic skills when they enter the labor market.

Analysis of human resource competencies by area of activity indicates that this issue has been studied, essentially, in two major areas: tourism and hospitality (see Table 4).

Although there is concern about management, knowledge, career and business development in these two areas of activity, it appears that the meaning or what is prominent in each of these domains differs (see Table 4). This agrees partially with the studies by Gursoy and Swanger (2004, 2005, 2007, 2010).

Figure 3. Frequency analysis of the documental sample
Source: Output of software NVivo (version 10.0)

In the tourism perspective, the management function requires higher education and the admission of graduates and experienced people. From the hospitality perspective, knowledge is important, but it does not appear to be equivalent to academic qualifications. It is mainly associated with technical and professional knowledge. Leadership skills, communication skills and analytical thinking also stand out. In the 'Knowledge' category, both perspectives value the need for human resources to have higher education, to perform functions in both tourism and hospitality. From the tourism perspective, this issue is clarified, linking the elaboration of course curricula to research carried out on the needs of the labor market. This idea appears again in the contents associated with the 'Career development' category, reinforcing the need for human resources working in tourism to invest in a lifelong learning plan, aligned with the outcomes resulting from the effect of their work. This issue, from the hotels perspective, indicates the need for training, but in the work context. The focus on business management, from the tourism perspective, highlights the areas of management and marketing as central to the professionalization of services, for which communication skills, analytical thinking and knowledge are essential. The business management model, from the hotels perspective, points to a model centred on resource management, on analysis of the impacts of the results and attention to what is new. These findings corroborate Kong, Cheung and Song (2012), Raybould and Wilkins, (2006), Testa and Sipe (2012) and Wilton (2012), emphasizing the need for skills development throughout life.

Table 2. Type of skills

Skills	Authors
Core for Tourism	Chung, Kyoo and Yup (2000); Cobanoglu, Dede, Poorani and Ali (2007); Dale, Decosta and Weir (2017); Gursoy and Swanger (2004); Gursoy and Swanger (2005); Gursoy and Swanger (2007); Gursoy and Swanger (2010); Huang, Lalopa and Adler (2016); Jaykumar, Fukey and Balasubramanian (2014); Jiang e Alexakis (2017); Johanson, Ghiselli and Lin (2002); Johanson, Shea and Roberts (2010); Lolli (2013); López-Bonilla and López-Bonilla (2014); Millar, Mao and Moreo (2010) Raybould and Wilkins (2006); Su, Miller and Shanklin (1997).
Soft Skills	Baum and Devine, (2007); Christou (2002); Chung (2000); Chung-Herrera, Enz and Lankau (2003); Cobanoglu, Dede and Poorani (2007); Gursoy and Swanger (2004); Gursoy and Swanger (2005); Holtzman and Kraft (2016); Holtzman, Diane, Kraft and Ellen (2016); Huang, Lalopa, and Adler (2016); Jeou-Shyan, Hsuan, Chih-Hsing, Lin and Chang-Yen (2011); Jiang and Alexakis (2017); Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea and Roberts (2010); John (2009); Kay and Russette (2000); Kim, Park and Choi (2017); Lin (2002); López-Bonilla and López-Bonilla (2014); Lowry and Flohr (2005); Maelah, Aman, Mohamed and Ramli (2012); Millar, Mao and Moreo (2010); Mitchel, Skinner and White (2010); Mitchell (2008); Mitchell, Pritchett and Skinner (2013); Ramlall and Ramlall (2014); Raybould and Wilkins (2006); Rowley (2014); Ruetzler, Baker, Reynolds, Taylor and Allen (2014); Singh, Thambusamy, Ramly, Abdullahd and Mahmud (2013); Sisson and Adams (2013); Su, Miller and Shanklin (1997); Tesone and Ricci (2006); Testa and Sipe, (2012); Truong, Ronald and Shaw (2016); Tsai (2017); Watson e McCracken (2002); Weber, Crawford and Dennison (2012); Weber, Crawford, Lee and Dennison (2013); Weber, Finley, Crawford and Jr. (2009); Wilson, Murray, and Black (2000); Wilton (2012); Zehrer and Mössenlechner (2009).
Hard Skills	Banco de Portugal (2014); Baum and Devine, (2007); Breiter and Hoart (2000); Christou (2002); Chung (2000); Chung-Herrera, Enz and Lankau (2003); Cobanoglu, Dede and Poorani (2007); Holtzman and Kraft (2016);Huang, Lalopa, and Adler (2016); Jeou-Shyan, Hsuan, Chih-Hsing, Lin and Chang-Yen (2011); Jiang and Alexakis (2017); Jiang and Alexakis (2017); Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea and Roberts (2010); Kay and Russette (2000); Lin (2002); Lin (2002); Millar, Mao and Moreo (2010); Lin, Shun-Chuan (2002); Maelah, Aman, Mohamed and Ramli (2012); Millar, Mao and Moreo (2010); Mitchell (2008); Mitchell, Skinner and White (2010); Ramlall and Ramlall (2014); Sisson and Adams (2013); Su, Miller and Shanklin (1997); Tesone and Ricci (2006); Testa and Sipe, (2012); Truong, Ronald and Shaw (2016); Tsai (2017); Watson and McCracken (2002); Wilson, Murray, and Black (2000); Zehrer and Mössenlechner (2009)
Soft Skills and Hard Skills	Awan, Ahmed and Zulqarnain, (2015); Baum and Devine, (2007); Breiter and Hoart (2000); Christou (2002); Chung (2000); Holtzman and Kraft (2016); Chung-Herrera, Enz and Lankau (2003); Cobanoglu, Dede and Poorani (2007); Holtzman and Kraft (2016); Huang, Lalopa, and Adler (2016); Jeou-Shyan, Hsuan, Chih-Hsing, Lin and Chang-Yen (2011); Jiang and Alexakis (2017); Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea and Roberts (2010); John (2009); Kay and Moncarz (2004); Kay and Russette (2000); Kim, Park and Choi (2017); Lin (2002); López-Bonilla and López-Bonilla (2014); Maelah, Aman, Mohamed and Ramli (2012); Millar, Mao and Moreo (2010); Mitchell (2008); Mitchell, Skinner and White (2010); Ramlall and Ramlall (2014); Raybould and Wilkins (2006); Rowley (2014); Ruetzler, Baker, Reynolds, Taylor and Allen (2014); Singh, Thambusamy, Ramly, Abdullahd and Mahmud (2013); Sisson and Adams (2013); Su, Miller and Shanklin (1997); Tesone and Ricci (2006); Testa and Sipe, (2012); Truong, Ronald and Shaw (2016); Tsai (2017); Watson and McCracken (2002); Weber, Crawford, Lee and Dennison (2013); Weber, Finley, Crawford and Jr. (2009); Wilson, Murray, and Black (2000); Wilton (2012); Wilton (2012); Zehrer and Mössenlechner (2009).
Transversal Skills	Baum and Devine, (2007); Breiter and Hoart (2000); Christou (2002); Chung (2000); Cobanoglu, Dede and Poorani (2007); Holtzman and Kraft (2016); Jeou-Shyan, Hsuan, Chih-Hsing, Lin and Chang-Yen (2011); Jiang and Alexakis (2017); John (2009); Kay and Moncarz (2004); Kim, Park and Choi (2017); Kim, Park and Choi (2017); Lin (2002); Maelah, Aman, Mohamed and Ramli (2012); Millar, Mao and Moreo (2010); Ramlall and Ramlall (2014); Ruetzler, Baker, Reynolds, Taylor and Allen (2014); Sisson and Adams (2013); Su, Miller and Shanklin (1997); Truong, Ronald and Shaw (2016); Tsai (2017); Watson and McCracken (2002); Wilton (2012); Zehrer and Mössenlechner (2009)

Source: Own elaboration

The results add two themes, 'Market' and 'Performance', found in publications on human resource competencies in the hospitality sector, which did not collect content with a similar meaning from the tourism perspective. 'Market' associates the contents of 'Service', 'International', 'Development' and 'Customer', stressing the need for products and services to be designed according to customers, according to the characteristics and trends of tourist flows worldwide. 'Performance' gathers the contents of

Table 3. Skills by typology

Soft skills	Hard skills	Soft and Hard skills
Assertiveness	Economics and finance	Analytical thinking
Attendance and Punctuality	Endogenous products in the region where you work	Change management
Attention to detail	Etiquette and protocol	Conflict management
Autonomy	Event organization	Creativity
Availability to perform unforeseen tasks	Global distribution systems	Customer orientation
Balance personal and professional life	Accessible tourism	Ability to anticipate problems
Charisma	Health and well-being	Economic and financial management
Critical thinking	Industry technical terminology	Entrepreneurship
Desire to grow professionally	Itineraries	Goal orientation
Ease of relating to others	Revenue management systems	Guidance for meeting deadlines
Empathy	Sales and marketing techniques	Human resource Management
Ethics	Specific products for your job	Innovation management
Listening to others	Tour guide	Training management
Motivation	Specific software for the sector in which you work	Leadership
Openness to new ideas or working methods	Statistics	Management of work teams
Oral communication	Accommodation area	Market analysis
Organization capacity	Gastronomy and wines	Network and alliance management
Perform different tasks simultaneously	Code of ethics	Ability to make decisions
Presentation and personal image	Law and sector legislation	Organization
Proactivity	Recreational and cultural activities	Organizational climate management
Resilience	Rental and transport	Organizational performance management
Responsibility	Catering area	Planning
Self confidence	Commercial area	Problem solving
Self-control	Travel agencies and tour operators	Results oriented
Team spirit	Sports	Social responsibility and sustainability
Tolerance	Tourism area	Strategic management
Written communication	Transport and logistics	

Source: Own elaboration

‘Soft skills’ and ‘Performance’, and it can be inferred that the performance level of human resources and hospitality depends essentially on ‘Soft skills’

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Globalization has added multiculturalism to different contexts and technological advances mean we are permanently connected, requiring greater mastery of complex, broader skills, especially linked to

Table 4. Skills by activity area

Themes	Tourism	Frequencies	Hospitality	Frequencies
Management	management	1221	hotel	999
	industry	1027	study	665
	hotel	797	managers	629
	employees	366	knowledge	514
	graduates	217	important	501
	work	215	communication	345
	degree	186	analysis	331
	experience	142	leadership	240
	Total	**4171**	technical	237
			professionals	216
			Total	**4677**
Knowledge	education	688	employees	660
	study	476	education	564
	important	358	career	464
	curriculum	308	students	442
	research	301	graduates	252
	university	184	higher	209
	higher	170	**Total**	**2591**
	studies	169		
	model	160		
	based	152		
	needs	142		
	success	142		
	Total	**3250**		
Career development	students	631	work	696
	programs	456	training	453
	courses	384	job	279
	learning	278	**Total**	**1428**
	business	241		
	information	193		
	career	171		
	outcomes	163		
	development	156		
	Total	**2673**		
Business	managers	400	business	307
	knowledge	364	resources	266
	communication	250	effect	247
	analysis	213	new	232
	service	193	model	224
	professionals	179	results	208
	marketing	152	**Total**	**1484**
	Total	**1751**		

Source: Based on the outputs of NVivo (version 10.0) software information and communication technologies. In this context, organizations need to restructure and adapt to be competitive in these knowledge societies in permanent change and evolution (Cobanoglu et al., 2007; Hsu, 2018; Zehrer & Mössenlechner, 2009). These global changes have influenced consumer behavior, generating new and specific needs. This phenomenon is leading organizations to give greater emphasis to soft skills and, as shown in this research, transversal and managerial skills, instead of focusing exclusively on technical or hard skills.

Hence, it should be of great interest to understand which soft, transversal and management skills are most appreciated by employers, when hiring tourism professionals. Future studies may focus on:

1. Different tourism fields, such as travel agencies, tour operators, restaurants, hotels, events and others;
2. Managerial levels, as operational jobs are distinct from management or strategic ones;
3. Comparative analysis between continents and countries, encouraging more research about this issue in locations other than the United States.

Currently, the labor market values interpersonal skills, communication skills, teamwork, resilience and leadership, among other skills identified in the course of this investigation. In the scope of innovation, evolution and organizational development, the different studies suggest that these competences are central to the development of these processes, which stimulate companies' competitiveness. However, the skills most valued in the different sectors of tourism may be different. The fact that research on this subject is currently emerging in the areas of tourism and hospitality is highlighted. Research in the fields of travel agencies, entertainment and transport, among others, is still scarce. Perhaps the hospitality industry feels more pressure from market competition, and perhaps, as the tourism field is more related to regulation, planning and development of the sector, it is in these areas that concerns about the study of human competences arise. In these areas it has already been realized that human resources make the difference. It would be good to awaken other sectors of activity to this fact, because people will increasingly be competitive companies' major assets.

CONCLUSION

Hard and soft skills are assumed to be determinant in the recruitment process. Nowadays, most organizations associate their competitiveness and overall success with the retention of qualified human capital. The balance between hard and soft skills is proven to be the solution for better individual and organizational performance.

In tourism in the EU, the level of worker qualification is lower than in other economic sectors. This may be explained by the fact that tourism is a point of entry to the labor market for migrants and / or young people with a low level of education, given that employment in this sector is characterized by temporary, seasonal contracts, part-time work and low pay, also associated with precarious working conditions, and as a rule, with no provision of training or opportunities for personal development (EC, 2016).

Thus, it appears that the sector needs comprehensive and innovative tools and strategies for human capital and people management. Improved qualifications and skill adjustment to customer/ tourist expectations, and adapted teaching and / or training to the real needs of the tourism labor market is a challenge to be pursued.

It is fundamental to encourage and stimulate companies to invest in their employees' skills, allowing knowledge transfer and sharing, which, in turn, will improve tourism destination quality. However, most governments do not have educational or training policies in tourism to support the acquisition or updating of specific skills. In the long term, there is no guarantee that the need for qualified personnel can be met or sustained by the domestic supply and that it can compete and achieve the growth of the expected international demand for qualified personnel (EC, 2013).

In conclusion, it is urgent to increase professional training so that learning pathways are a progressive transitional process in relation to the labor market, responding to market needs and expectations (EC, 2016; OECD, 2016). Hard, soft, transversal and management skills should be included in these new educational programmes, ensuring tourist satisfaction, destination competitiveness and overall tourism quality.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Hard Skills: Technical skills or specific professional knowledge, fundamental for effective performance and functioning, directly associated with performance and task resolution.

Management Skills:: Hard and soft skills essential for change and organizational and personal development, in terms of career management.

Soft Skills: Reflecting individuals' lifestyles and attitude towards work, which must be acquired beforehand and throughout life.

Transversal Skills:: Skills in the domain of languages and ICT, developed prior to entering the labor market.

APPENDIX 1 - DOCUMENTAL SAMPLE

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
1	Andrews & Higson (2008)	Graduate Employability, 'Soft Skills' Versus 'Hard' Business Knowledge: A European Study	*Higher Education in Europe, 33*(4), 411-422.	HR and Education	Slovenia; Austria; Romania; UK	"The aim of the study was to conceptualise and identify key individual and business related skills and competencies required by employers of business graduates and holders of other higher level qualifications, and to discover whether higher education business programmes are meeting the needs of the European marketplace" (p. 412).
2	Awan, Ahmed, & Zulqarnain (2015)	Impact of Project Manager's Soft Leadership Skills on Project Success	*Journal of Poverty, Investment and Development, 8*, 27-46.	Human Resources	Pakistan	"Purpose of this study is to identify and assess the impact of project managers' communication, interpersonal, coordination, team building and delegation, problem finding, analysing, solving skills on project success while concurrently assessing the impact of team work as moderating variable on association between project mangers' soft leadership skills and project success" (p. 27).
3	Baum & Tom (2002	Skills and training for the hospitality sector: a review of issues	*Journal of Vocational Education and Training, 54*(3), 343-364. doi:10.1080/13636820200200204	Hospitality - HR	UK - Scotland	"This article considers skills issues in relation to the hospitality sector. It draws upon the work of Noon & Blyton (1995) in applying their approach to the classification and analysis of skills within hospitality. The article also draws on Ashton & Green's (1996) critique of vocational education as a basis for understanding some of the problems inherent in skills development in hospitality. The article addresses the skills debate in hospitality in four key theme areas: the nature of work and skills in hospitality; de-skilling within the hospitality workplace; the technical/generic skills debate within hospitality; skills and the education/training process in hospitality" (p. 343).
4	Baum &Devine (2007)	Skills and training in the hotel sector: The case of front office employment in Northern Ireland	*Tourism and Hospitality Research, 7*, 269 – 280.	Hospitality - HR	UK - Northern Ireland	"This paper is concerned with the skills set and training background of one set of service workers, those in hotel front office, located within Northern Ireland. This paper reports the findings of a survey of front office workers working in 4- and 5-star hotels in Northern Ireland. This survey identifies the skills and training profile of this group of employees and measures attitudes to key skills requirements within front office work" (p. 269).
5	Breiter & Hoart (2000)	Competencies in Foodservice Information Technology Expected by the Foodservice Industry of Graduates of Hospitality Bachelor's Degree Programs in the United States	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education 12*(2), 11-17.	Hospitality - Education	USA	"The objectives of this study are: 1. To describe data entry and report generation skills related to foodservice information systems, and to describe interpretive competencies related to compute-generated reports and to the concepts encompassed in food service software applications. 2. To rate the importance of the described competencies in data entry, report generation, and report interpretation skills and knowledge, and 3. To describe expected information technology competencies of Hotel, Restaurant, and Tourism Management graduates by demographic characteristics of respondents and the establishments in which the respondents were employed" (p. 11).
6	Camison & Forés (2015)	Is tourism firm competitiveness driven by different internal or external specific factors? New empirical evidence from Spain	*Tourism Management, 48*, 477-499.	Tourism - HR	Spain	"(...) in recent years the nature of competition and shifting economic conditions have given rise to new theoretical approaches that complement the assumptions underlying both environmental and firm theories. Specifically, this study contributes by examining the regional environment effect, the district effect and the strategic group effect. Through a study of 364 Spanish tourism firms, this research explores the relative importance of distinct external forces such as the general environment or country effect, the regional effect, the competitive environment or industry effect, the district effect, and internal factors such as the firm's tangible resources, capabilities and strategy selection" (p. 477).
7	Christou (2002)	Revisiting Competencies for Hospitality Management: Contemporary Views of the Stakeholders	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 14*(1), 25-32.	Hospitality - HR	Greece	"The Tas study is considered as one of the most innovative (Eaton and Christou, 1997) and pioneering (Baum, 1991) examinations of hospitality management competencies. Baum (1990) who replicated the Tas study in Britain and Christou and Eaton (2000) who carried out the same research in Greece in 1996 introduced the European dimension concerning the industry expectations of education for hotel management competencies. (...) The present paper is aimed at reporting the replication of the Tas, Baum and Christou and Eaton studies in Greece, a traditional Mediterranean tourism destination in Europe. (...) The findings of the present survey might be considered as a pilot indication for researchers at other Mediterranean tourism destinations. The research described here was intended to add a new dimension in the previous Tas-modelled surveys: it focuses on both hotel managers and recent graduates of hospitality management courses" (p. 26).
8	Chung (2000)	Hotel management curriculum reform based on required competencies of hotel employees and career success in the hotel industry	*Tourism Management*, *21*, 473-487.	Hospitality - Education	South Korea	"This study was conducted to layout an effective plan for reforming the hotel management curriculum of Korean universities" (p. 473).

APPENDIX 2 - NUMBER OF CITATIONS PER PUBLICATION

Table 6. DOCUMENTAL SAMPLE (continuation)

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
9	Chung-Herrera, Enz & Lankau (2003)	Grooming Future Hospitality Leaders: A Competencies Model	*Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *44*(3), 17-25.	Hospitality - Education	USA	"In this article we present a leadership-competency model that is industry specific and future based. Our goal in creating this model was to provide the hospitality industry with a functional-competency model that: (1) organizations can use to develop their own model for leadership development,(2) employees can use to understand the competencies they need for advancement, (3) hospitality schools can use to design curriculum, and (4) students can use to craft career paths. We first describe the nature and use of competency models and then describe our study. We examine the critical competencies that we found to be important (and those that, surprisingly, are not as important). Last, we consider the possible uses for the industry-wide model that we have developed" (p.17).
10	Cobanoglu, Dede &Poorani (2007)	An Analysis of Skills and Competencies of Full Service Hotel Technology Managers	*Journal of Teaching in Travel &Tourism*, *6*(4), 19-35.	Hospitality -Education	USA	"The purpose of this study was to identify the skills needed by hotel Information Technology (IT) managers at the property level in full service hotels (...). In addition, this study explored the educational background of current IT managers in order to learn about the extent of their previous IT education and training. The overall objective of this study was to earmark the skills-set needed by these professionals to be integrated into the hospitality management curriculum and practice" (pp. 19-20).
11	Croes & Visser (2015)	From Tech Skills to Life Skills: Google Online Marketing Challenge and Experiential Learning	*Journal of Information Systems Education, 26*(4), 305-316.	HR and Education	Aruba	"The objective of the current study is to explore student perceptions of the expected learning outcomes described above and use an inductive approach to examine any broader personal or life skills that are endorsed by students. The study seeks to examine: What are students' perceptions of the GOMC [Google Online Marketing Challenge]? What are the perceived learning outcomes resulting from participation in the GOMC? Do the learning outcomes expand beyond the targeted technical skills? What do students like most about the GOMC? What challenges (if any) did the students face? What recommendations do students have for future implementation?" (p. 305).
12	Dale, Decosta & Weir (2017)	Semantics of learning outcomes for a tourism degree across institutions, industry and governing bodies	*Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *30*, 15-21.	Tourism - Education	Australia	"(...) Do current Australian tourism degree course objectives and graduate attributes align with the new standards? And do the semantics, or naming conventions, for particular graduate attributes cause confusion across the various stakeholders such as industry recruiters and even students and their families. This paper considers this question with regard to the tourism and events management degree offered in a middle sized Australian university tourism program" (p. 15).
13	Daniel, Costa, Pita & Costa (2017)	Tourism Education: What about entrepreneurial skills?	*Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 30*, 65-72.	Tourism - Education	Portugal	"The aim of this paper was to understand the perspective of tourism students on the relevance of entrepreneurship education within their courses. Also, the impact and overall structure of the 'Learning to be' program was assessed, as well as the benefits of having public and private organizations collaborating in it" (p. 71).
14	Frantz & Misal (2016)	Identification of Generic Skills for Human Resources in Hospitality: A Literature Review	*Journal for Contemporary Research in Management*, July, 36-41.	Hospitality - HR	India	"The Aim of the research paper is to survey the literature to identify what constitutes generic skills, and its application in the hospitality industry" (p. 36).
15	Gekara & Snell (2018)	Designing and delivering skills transferability and employment mobility: the challenges of a market-driven vocational education and training system	*Journal of Vocational Education & Training, 70*(1), 107-129.	Human Resources	Australia	"This paper examines the challenges of developing transferable skills among a nation's workforce and the tensions that can emerge between training design intentions and training delivery outcomes when training delivery is marketized. Australia, where incremental training sector reforms have occurred since the late 1980s, serves as the context for this study" (p. 107).
16	Gursoy & Swanger (2004)	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 16*(4), 13-20.	Hospitality - Education	USA	"The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of industry professionals regarding the importance of course subject areas for success in the hospitality industry. This included identifying any gaps between the ever-changing operational environment of the industry and current hospitality curriculum. (...) The specific research questions of this study were: 1. What are the perceptions of industry professionals regarding the importance of course subject areas? 2. Are there any gaps between the industry needs within the changing operational environment and the current hospitality curriculum?" (pp. 13-15).
17	Gursoy & Swanger (2005)	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business: Part II	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 17*(2), 45-56.	Hospitality and Tourism - Education	USA	"The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of industry professionals regarding the importance of course content items for success in the hospitality industry and to identify the course in the Gursoy and Swanger model where those items could be placed. (...) The specific research questions of this study were: 1. What are the perceptions of industry professionals regarding the importance of course content items on success in the hospitality industry? 2. Based on those perceptions, where in the proposed Gursoy and Swanger model could each course content item be placed?" (p. 49).

Table 7. DOCUMENTAL SAMPLE (continuation)

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
18	Gursoy & Swanger (2007)	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business: Program Learning Outcomes- Part III	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 19*(2), 14-28.	Hospitality - Education	USA	"The purpose of this study was to identify the program learning outcomes for hospitality school students and to develop an instrument to assess those learning outcomes to improve the quality of the undergraduate learning experience. Doing so will help ensure that students graduate with the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities deemed important for a successful career in business and society" (p. 16). "The specific research questions of this study were: 1. What are the learning outcomes for a hospitality management program housed in an accredited college of business as determined by an industry-driven model for curriculum? 2. What are the dimensions and top-level performance criteria (objectives) measures of each of the learning outcomes? 3. How can a hospitality school assess whether the learning outcomes are achieved?" (p. 14).
19	Gursoy & Swanger (2010)	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business: e-assessment Tool (e-AT) – Part IV	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 22*(2), 5-19.	Hospitality and Tourism - Education	USA	"This paper reports research findings on the last of a six-stage project to assess the curriculum of a four-year hospitality school, housed in an accredited college of business. Its specific purpose is to develop an e-assessment tool (e-AT), based on a proposed model, to monitor student growth over time in the program" (p. 5). "The specific research questions of this study are: 1. How can a hospitality school in an accredited college of business develop a process for monitoring real-time growth of students through the cycle of assessment? 2. How can a hospitality school in an accredited college of business develop a process for tracking alumni as they move through their careers and industry partners who have a stake in the program?" (p. 6).
20	Huang, Lalopa, & Adler (2016)	An analysis of entry level management requirements: Are there differences in perceptions of hospitality recruiters versus hospitality students?	*Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 15*(3), 346-364.	Hospitality - HR	USA	"The purpose of this study was to determine whether the perceptions students have of the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) needed to secure an entry-level management position in the hospitality industry match those of recruiters. The narrower the gap, the more efficient and effective the selection process would be for those recruiting entry-level hospitality management candidates. To that end, the study had the following research objectives: 1) Identify the key KSAs that students perceived they need to be hired for entry-level hospitality management positions;2). Identify the KSAs that recruiters perceived students need to be hired for entry-level hospitality management positions; 3) Examine whether there is a gap between hospitality recruiters' perceptions and hospitality students' perceptions regarding essential KSAs needed to secure an entry-level hospitality management position upon graduation; and, 4) Identify ways to close gaps which may be identified if one is found in this study, so that graduates are better prepared for entry-level hospitality management positions" (p. 347).
21	Jeou-Shyan, Hsuan, Chih-Hsing, Lin & Chang-Yen (2011)	Competency analysis of top managers in the Taiwanese hotel industry	*International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30*(4), 1044– 1054.	Hospitality - HR	Taiwan	"The purpose of the present study was the following: (1) to identify managerial competency needs in the Taiwanese hotel industry, (2) to identify the relationship between generic and technical managerial competencies, and (3) to rank present and future managerial competency demands requested by top hotel managers" (pp. 1052-1053).
22	Jiang &Alexakis (2017)	Comparing students' and managers' perceptions of essential entry level management competencies in the hospitality industry: An empirical study	*Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 20*, 32–46.	Hospitality - HR	USA	"Our study derived data regarding curriculum for future leaders from two sources: industry and students. We compared and contrasted the views of these hospitality education stakeholder groups. We compared the perceptions of employers and students related to essential managerial competencies. We identified any possible incongruities between what industry professionals and students deem as important managerial competencies. (...) We also discussed the practical implications of employer and student opinions to engage a variety of readers and provide suggestions for future research directions so that hospitality programs can make informed curricular decisions" (p. 33).
23	Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea & Roberts (2010)	Revealing Key Competencies of Hospitality Graduates Demanded by Industry: A 25-year review	*International CHRIE Conference-Refereed Track, Event 5, 1-10.*	Hospitality - HR	USA	"The purpose of this study is to review competencies that have been emphasized by hospitality industry leaders for success in the field over the years, and to report similarities as well as key changes in skills demanded of students graduating from hospitality management programs. Relevant studies in the hospitality field published over the past 25 years detailing such exigency have been analyzed and the findings critiqued. Discussion focuses on how such demands have evolved, and how they have altered faculty perceptions and curricula within hospitality programs across the U.S. and hence, evokes the question, what's next?" (p. 2).
24	Kay & Moncarz (2004)	Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities for Lodging Management	*Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 45*(3), 285-298.	Hospitality - HR	USA	"This study examines the effect of the following knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) on managers' lodging success: human resources management, marketing, financial management, and information technology" (p. 285).

Table 8. DOCUMENTAL SAMPLE (continuation)

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
25	Kong, Cheung & Song (2012)	Determinants and outcome of career competencies: Perspectives of hotel managers in China	*International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(3), 712– 719.	Hospitality - HR	China	"This study aims to explore the determinants and outcome of [hospitality] career competencies" (p. 712)
26	Lashley (2009)	The right answers to the wrong questions? Observations on skill development and training in the United Kingdom's hospitality sector	*Tourism and Hospitality Research, 9*, 340 – 352.	Hospitality - HR	UK - England	"This article reports on elements of a literature review undertaken for People 1st. This is the body which act as the Sector Skills Council in England for hospitality, leisure, travel and tourism employers, and is charged with ensuring that 'the skills employers want are the skills they get (www.people1st.co.uk/national-skillsstrategy). (...) The article is based around three themes that reflect erroneous assumptions. The first considers government training policy as a by-product of political assumptions about the role of government and industry in Britain. In particular, there is an assumption that employers are the key stakeholder and that other training stakeholders such as employees, trade unions, communities, parents or even academics have no contribution to make. This represents a major philosophical difference in the United Kingdom when compared to most mainland European nations. The second theme takes as its starting point an understanding that different service offerings to hospitality sector customers involve quite different skills sets, and as a consequence there is not one uniform set of skills needs. This leads on to the third theme of the article, that different labor market conditions exist based on skills sets. Under current arrangements, training and development policies lack a detailed understanding of the demand for labor and are frequently hampered by fl awed assumptions" (pp. 341-342).
27	Lin (2002)	Exploring the Relationships Between Hotel Management Courses and Industry Required Competencies	*Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 2*(3/4), 81-101.	Hospitality and Tourism - Education	Taiwan	"The purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between important competencies and career success in the hotel industry. This study further investigated hotel management courses and their relationships to important competencies" (p. 82).

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Table 8. Continued

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
28	Lolli (2013)	Interpersonal communication skills and the young hospitality leader: Are they prepared?	*International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32*, 295–298.	Hospitality - HR	USA	"The purpose of this study was to determine entry-level hospitality leaders' perceptions of which interpersonal communication skills are important and whether their college curriculum prepared them to be competent interpersonal communicators when communicating with subordinates" (p. 295).
29	López-Bonilla & López-Bonilla (2014)	Holistic competence approach in tourism higher education: an exploratory study in Spain	*Current Issues in Tourism, 17*(4), 312-326.	Tourism and Education	Spain	"The present study aims to propose and empirically contrast a structural model of relationships between academic–professional competences in tourism higher education. (...) This study is focused on a subject of the tourism degree in the University of Seville (Spain)" (p. 312).
30	Lowry & Flohr (2005)	No Student Left Behind: A Longitudinal Assessment of the Competency-Based Framework Used to Facilitate Learning in a Capstone Tourism Course	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 17*(4), 28-35.	Tourism - Education	USA	"The purpose of this longitudinal study was to evaluate the effectiveness of using a competency-based framework for mastering a core body of discipline, specific knowledge and fostering competency skills for successful managers, lifelong learners, and responsible citizens" (p. 29).
31	Millar, Mao & Moreo (2010)	Hospitality & Tourism Educators vs. The Industry: A Competency Assessment	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 22*(2), 38-50.	Hospitality and Tourism - HR	USA	"Specifically, the purpose of this study is to determine the discrepancies, if any, in the competencies being taught in the classroom for HTE students enrolled in four-year university programs versus what lodging and food and beverage professionals believe are the most important competencies to be taught. The findings can shed light on whether discrepancies exist and why certain competencies are deemed important. The results can also help enhance hospitality education for college students by equipping them with adequate competencies that meet the industry's needs" (p. 38).
32	Mitchell, Skinner & White (2010)	Essential Soft Skills for Success in the Twenty-first Century workforce as perceived by Business Educators	*The Delta Pi Epsilon Journal, 52*(1), 43-53.	HR and Education	USA	"The purpose of this study was to determine Alabama business educators' perceptions of the importance of soft skills for success in the twenty-first century workforce" (p. 43).

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Table 8. Continued

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
33	Nyanjom, Wilkins (2016)	The development of emotional labor skill in food and beverage practical training	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 28*(4), 178-188.	Hospitality - Education	Australia	"(...) the current study takes a qualitative approach and uses observation and in-depth interviews in exploring the following research questions: -How prevalent is the development and demonstration of emotional labor in the F&B training restaurant? -How explicit is emotional labor in the training curriculum? - How is emotional labor managed within the training restaurant environment? The exploration of these research questions provides an insight into how students develop emotional labor skills while undertaking training in a simulated service environment" (pp.178-179).

Table 9. DOCUMENTAL SAMPLE (continuation)

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
34	Raybould & Wilkins (2006)	Generic Skills for Hospitality Management: A Comparative Study of Management Expectations and Student Perceptions	*Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *13*(2), 177-188.	Hospitality and Tourism - Education	Australia	"This article reports on research that aimed to compare hospitality managers' expectations of graduate skills with student perceptions of the skills that hospitality managers valued" (p. 177).
35	Robles (2012)	Executive Perceptions of the Top 10 Soft Skills Needed in Today's Workplace.	*Business Communication Quarterly, 75*(4), 453–465.	Human Resources	USA	"The purpose of this study was to determine the critical soft skills that employers want from their employees so that business educators can promote these skills in their curriculum to improve the employability of graduating business seniors" (p. 454).
36	Ruetzler, Baker, Reynolds, Taylor & Allen (2014)	Perceptions of technical skills required for successful management in the hospitality industry—An exploratory study using conjoint analysis	*International Journal of Hospitality Management, 39*, 157–164.	Hospitality - HR	USA	"This paper explores how important various technical skill sets are perceived to be by students, faculty, and industry professionals today. Building on the extant literature, we identified seven key technical skills: Academic performance (using grade point average as a surrogate), social networking, time management, strategic planning, spread-sheet acumen, written communication, and oral communication" (p. 157).
37	Sisson & Adams (2013)	Essential Hospitality Management Competencies: The Importance of Soft Skills	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 25*(3), 131-145. doi: 10.1080/10963758.2013.826975	Hospitality - Education	USA	"The purpose of this study was to determine the essential competencies and to determine whether differences exist between competencies needed by managers in lodging, food and beverage, and meeting and event management" - (p. 131).
38	Sitompul, Kustono, Suhartadi, Syarif & Setyaningsih (2017)	The Relationship of the Learning of Tourism Marketing, Hard Skills, Soft Skills and Working Quality of the Graduates of Tourism Academy in Medan	*International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies, 3*(4), 124-133.	Tourism - Education	Indonesia	"To identify the competence of the graduates of Tourism Academy in Medan to be a marketer of tourism places from both hard skills and soft skills. It is expected that the result of this research would offer broad description of the graduate competence of Tourism Academy in Medan" (p. 126).
39	Spowart (2011)	Hospitality Students' Competencies: Are They Work Ready?	*Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 10*(2), 169-181.	Hospitality - HR	South Africa	"The objective of this research was to establish what competencies (soft skills) the hospitality management final year students from the School of Tourism and Hospitality, University of Johannesburg, South Africa thought they needed at the start of their semester of work-integrated learning compared to their thoughts at the end of that semester" (p. 169).

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Table 9. Continued

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
40	Su, Miller & Shanklin (1997)	Perceptions of Industry Professionals and Program Administrators about Accreditation Curriculum Standards for Hospitality Programs	*Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 9*(4), 36-40.	Hospitality - Education	USA	"The purpose of this study was to determine the importance of the ACPHA [Accreditation Commission for Programs in Hospitality Administration] accreditation standards for the curriculum in the Hospitality Administration and Work Experience section. The importance of the general management knowledge/ skills identified in the recent literature as useful for graduates entering the hospitality industry was also assessed. Perceptions of importance for each of 13 subject areas and general management knowledge/skills were compared between hospitality program administratorsand industry professionals" (p. 36).
41	Tesone & Ricci (2006)	Toward a Definition of Entry-Level Job Competencies	*International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration, 7*(4), 65-80. doi: 10.1300/J149v07n04_04	Hospitality - HR	USA	"The objective of the study was to determine specific entry-level worker knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes of importance to practising hospitality managers within the Florida metropolitan statistical area (MSA)" (p. 70).
42	Testa & Sipe, (2012)	Service-leadership competencies for hospitality and tourism management	*International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*, 648– 658.	Hospitality and Tourism - HR	USA	"Competency models have become useful tools for management development in hospitality and tourism organizations. At the same time, these models provide limited focus on leadership behaviors that facilitate employee service performance and customer satisfaction. The present study seeks to address this issue by developing a "service-leadership" competency model for use in the hospitality and tourism context" (p. 648)
43	Truong, Ronald & Shaw (2016)	New Insights for Soft Skills Development in Vietnamese Business Schools: Defining Essential Soft Skills for Maximizing Graduates' Career Success	*World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology International Journal of Industrial and Systems Engineering, 10*(6), 1857-1863.	HR and Education	Vietnam	"The burden of the present paper is first to reveal the results of our survey in Vietnam which make explicit the extent to which major Vietnamese industrial employers' value the potential role that soft skill competencies can play in maximizing business success. Our final task will be to determine which soft skills employers discern as best serving to maximize the economic interests of Vietnam within the global marketplace" (p. 1857).

Table 10. DOCUMENTAL SAMPLE (continuation)

Nº	Authors	Title	Source	Scientific domain	Country	Aim of the study
44	Tsitskari, Goudas, Tsalouchou &Michalopoulou (2017)	Employers' expectations of the employability skills needed in the sport and recreation environment	*Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 20*, 1–9.	Tourism - HR	Greece	"This study's purpose was to test the applicability of the Survey of Employability Skills Needed in the Workforce (Robinson, 2006) in the field of sport and recreation, in a Greek sample of employers. Moreover, it aimed to examine how the various groups of skills are valued and to what different extent in each sector of the sport market, in an attempt to test whether employers' needs differentiate according to their operating sector. This research may help sport HEIs to better achieve the aim of offering the kind of education that may meet the needs and expectations of the sport organizations/employers" (p. 1).
45	Valkonen, Huilaja & Koikkalainen (2013)	Looking for the Right Kind of Person: Recruitment in Nature Tourism Guiding	*Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 13*(3), pp.228–241.	Tourism - HR	Finland	"We examine the nature of qualifications necessary in interactive service work by studying the recruitment of safari guides in the commercial nature tourism sector in Finnish Lapland" (p. 228).
46	Weber, Finley, Crawford & Jr. (2009)	An exploratory study identifying soft skill competencies in entry-level managers.	*Tourism and Hospitality Research, 9*(4), 353–361.	Tourism - HR	USA	" The purpose of this project is to identify a comprehensive list of soft skills that will be rated according to human resource (HR) professionals' perceptions of soft skills needed for entry-level [hospitality] management positions" (p. 353)
47	Weber, Crawford & Dennison (2012)	North Carolina Human Resource Professionals'- Perceptions of Soft Skill Competencies	*Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 11*(3), 225-238.	Human Resources	USA	"The purpose of the authors in this project is to have human resource professionals rate the importance of soft skill competencies found in literature, and to determine the relative importance of the seven categories of soft skill competencies" (p. 225).
48	Weber, Crawford, Lee & Dennison (2013)	An Exploratory Analysis of Soft Skill Competencies - Needed for the Hospitality Industry	*Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 12*(4), 313–332.	Hospitality - HR	USA	"The purpose of this project was to extend previous research on soft skill competencies in hospitality management by developing a tool that identifies the necessary soft skill competencies of entry-level managers. This project asked human resource (HR) professionals to rate the relative importance of soft skill competencies found in the literature and to determine the importance of each of the seven categories of soft skill competencies. This study used a convenience sample of members in the Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM), with a variety of job titles from President/CEO to HR Specialist. (...) In this study, the authors had three specific objectives: ● To determine the relative importance and reliability of soft skill competencies. ● To examine the factor structure of the soft skills through an exploratory factor analysis. ● To propose a soft skill competency tool to be used by HR professionals, especially those in hospitality" (p. 314).
49	Weinland, Gregory & Petrick (2016)	Cultivating the aptitudes of vacation ownership management: A competency domain cluster analysis	*International Journal of Hospitality Management, 55*, 88–95.	Hospitality - HR	USA	"This study contributes to ongoing research into hospitality industry competencies, adding to the understanding of industry leaders with particular interest in the vacation ownership segment of the industry and informing them regarding the competencydomain clusters that are likely to influence organizational success in the vacation ownership industry. In addition, because the literature remains silent regarding a generic competency domain model specifically created for the vacation ownership segment of the hospitality industry. This research seeks to model Koenigsfeld's(2007) research in surveying current management-level personnel in the vacation ownership industry for their opinions concerning the importance of and the frequency with which each competency domain cluster is used in the vacation ownership industry" (p. 91).
50	Wilson, Murray, & Black (2000)	Contract catering: the skills required for the next millennium	*International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 12* (1), 75-79.	Hospitality - HR	UK - Northern Ireland	"This study is aimed at rectifying the lack of information on contract catering management, by examining this sector of the hospitality industry in Northern Ireland. Consequently, this study is intended to help bridge this knowledge gap by determining the competencies essential for contract catering management, and by ascertaining the differences between what managers do and the importance attached to these activities. Additionally, the study displays the differences between sub-sections of the contract catering sector (business and industrial catering, healthcare, education, government/local authorities and area management)" (p. 75-76)
51	Zehrer & Mössenlechner (2009)	Key Competencies of Tourism Graduates: The Employers' Point of View	Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 9(3-4), 266-287.	Tourism - HR and Education	Austria	"The purpose of the present paper is to theoretically discuss the concepts of employability, skills requirements, and competencies for [tourism] graduates and to present the results of a quantitative survey carried out among domestic and international Management Center Innsbruck internship partners to assess the required employability skills of the market from the employers' point of view" (p. 266).

Nº	Authors	Year	Title	Source	Quotes
1	Andrews and Higson	2008	Graduate Employability, 'Soft Skills' Versus 'Hard' Business Knowledge: A European Study1	Higher Education in Europe	901
2	Awan; Ahmed and Zulqarnain	2015	Impact of Project Manager's Soft Leadership Skills on Project Success	Journal of Poverty, Investment and Development	22
3	Baum	2002	Skills and training for the hospitality sector: a review of issues	Journal of Vocational Education and Training	249
4	Baum and Devine	2007	Skills and training in the hotel sector: The case of front office employment in Northern Ireland	Tourism and Hospitality Research	78
5	Breiter and Hoart	2000	Competencies in Foodservice Information Technology Expected by the Foodservice Industry of Graduates of Hospitality Bachelor's Degree Programs in the United States	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	21
6	Camisón and Forés	2015	Is tourism firm competitiveness driven by different internal or external specific factors? New empirical evidence from Spain	Tourism Management	51
7	Christou	2002	Revisiting Competencies for Hospitality Management: Contemporary Views of the Stakeholders	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	131
8	Chung	2000	Hotel management curriculum form based on required competencies of hotel employees and career success in the hotel industry	Tourism Management	176
9	Chung-Herrera, Enz and Lankau	2003	Grooming Future Hospitality Leaders: A Competencies Model	Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly	381
10	Cobanoglu, Dede and Poorani	2007	An Analysis of Skills and Competencies of Full Service Hotel Technology Managers	Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism	30
11	Croes and Visser	2015	From Tech Skills to Life Skills: Google Online Marketing Challenge and Experiential Learning	Journal of Information Systems Education	6
12	Dale, Decosta and Weir	2017	Semantics of learning outcomes for a tourism degree across institutions, industry and governing bodies	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	1
13	Daniel, Costa, Pita and Costa	2017	Tourism education: What about entrepreneurial skills?	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	39
14	Frantz and Misal	2016	Identification of Generic Skills for Human Resources in Hospitality: A Literature Review	Journal for Contemporary Research in Management	2
15	Gekara and Snell	2018	Designing and delivering skills transferability and employment mobility: the challenges of a market-driven vocational education and training system	Journal of Vocational Education & Training	8
16	Gursoy and Swanger	2004	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	42
17	Gursoy and Swanger	2005	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business: Part II	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	70
18	Swanger and Gursoy	2007	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business: Program Learning Outcomes Part III	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	26
19	Swanger and Gursoy	2010	An Industry-Driven Model of Hospitality Curriculum for Programs Housed in Accredited Colleges of Business: e-assessment Tool (e-AT) – Part IV	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	21
20	Huang, Lalopa and Adler	2016	An analysis of entry level management requirements: Are there differences in perceptions of hospitality recruiters versus hospitality students?	Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	9
21	Jeou-Shyan, Hsuan, Chih-Hsing, Lin and Chang-Yen	2011	Competency analysis of top managers in the Taiwanese hotel industry	International Journal of Hospitality Management	114
22	Jiang and Alexakis	2017	Comparing students' and managers' perceptions of essential entry level management competencies in the hospitality industry: An empirical study	Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education	27
23	Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea and Roberts	2010	Revealing Key Competencies of Hospitality Graduates Demanded by Industry: A 25-year review	International CHRIE Conference-Refereed Track	22
24	Kay and Moncarz	2004	Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities for Lodging Management Success	Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly	147
25	Kong, Cheung and Haiyan Song	2012	Determinants and outcome of career competencies: Perspectives of hotel managers in China	International Journal of Hospitality Management	60
26	Lashley	2009	The right answers to the wrong questions? Observations on skill development and training in the United Kingdom's hospitality sector	Tourism and Hospitality Research	44
27	Lin	2002	Exploring the Relationships Between Hotel Management Courses and Industry Required Competencies	Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism	57
28	Lolli	2013	Interpersonal communication skills and the young hospitality leader: Are they prepared?	International Journal of Hospitality Management	52

Table 12. NUMBER OF CITATIONS PER PUBLICATION (continuation)

Nº	Authors	Year	Title	Source	Quotes
29	López-Bonilla and López-Bonilla	2014	Holistic competence approach in tourism higher education: an exploratory study in Spain	Current Issues in Tourism	30
30	Lowry and Flohr	2006	No Student Left Behind: A Longitudinal Assessment of the Competency-Based Framework Used to Facilitate Learning in a Capstone Tourism Course	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	20
31	Millar, Mao and Moreo	2010	Hospitality & Tourism Educators vs. The Industry: A Competency Assessment	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	72
32	Mitchell	2008	Essential soft skills for success in the twenty-first Century workforce as perceived by Alabama Business/marketing educators	Doctoral dissertation on Education	27
33	Nyanjom and Wilkins	2016	The Development of Emotional Labor Skill in Food and Beverage Practical Training	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	4
34	Raybould and Wilkins	2006	Generic Skills for Hospitality Management: A Comparative Study of Management Expectations and Student Perceptions	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	121
35	Robles	2012	Executive Perceptions of the Top 10 Soft Skills Needed in Today's Workplace	Business Communication Quarterly	986
36	Ruetzler, Baker, Reynolds, Taylor and Allen	2014	Perceptions of technical skills required for successful management in the hospitality industry: Na exploratory study using conjoint analysis	International Journal of Hospitality Management	40
37	. Sisson and Adams	2013	Essential Hospitality Management Competencies: The Importance of Soft Skills	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	123
38	Sitompul, Kustono, Suhartadi and Setyaningsih	2017	The Relationship of the Learning of Tourism Marketing, Hard Skills, Soft Skills and Working Quality of the Graduates of Tourism Academy in Medan	International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies	5
39	Spowart	2011	Hospitality Students' Competencies: Are They Work Ready?	Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	68
40	Su, Miller and Miller	1997	Perceptions of Industry Professionals and Program Administrators about Accreditation Curriculum Standards for Hospitality Programs	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	44
41	Tesone and Ricci	2006	Toward a Definition of Entry-Level Job Competencies	International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration	65
42	Testa and Sipe	2012	Service-leadership competencies for hospitality and tourism management	International Journal of Hospitality Management	116
43	Tsitskaria, Goudasb, Tsalouchoua and Michalopouloua	2017	Employers' expectations of the employability skills needed in the sport and recreation environment	Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education	30
44	Jaykumar Va, Fukeya and Balasubramanian	2014	Hotel managers perspective of managerial competency among graduating students of hotel management programme	Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences	8
45	Valkonen, Huilaja and Koikkalainen	2013	Looking for the Right Kind of Person: Recruitment in Nature Tourism Guiding	Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism	19
46	Weber, Finley, Crawford and Rivera, Jr	2009	An exploratory study identifying soft skill competencies in entry-level managers	Tourism and Hospitality Research	134
47	Weber, Crawford and Dennison	2012	North Carolina Human Resource Professionals' Perceptions of Soft Skill Competencies	Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	12
48	Weber, Crawford, Lee and Dennison	2013	An Exploratory Analysis of Soft Skill Competencies Needed for the Hospitality Industry	Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	50
49	Weinland, Gregory and Petrick	2016	Cultivating the aptitudes of vacation ownership management: A competency domain cluster analysis	International Journal of Hospitality Management	6
50	Wilson, Murray and Black,	2000	Contract catering: the skills required for the next millennium	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	28
51	Zehrer and Mössenlechner	2009	Key Competencies of Tourism Graduates: The Employers' Point of View	Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism	110

Chapter 4
Emotional Labor in the Tourism Industry:
Strategies, Antecedents, and Outcomes

Rajat Gera
Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies, India

Shilpa Arora
Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies, India

Sahil Malik
Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies, India

ABSTRACT

The chapter reviews the key concepts, definitions, individual and organizational antecedents, and individual and organizational outcomes of emotional labour (EL) in the tourism industry. The application of the concept in research and practice is discussed along with the implications. The theoretical domains of convergence and divergence are identified. key challenges and applications of EL with airlines cabin crew, restaurant service staff, and hotel industry frontline staff are identified and discussed. A systematic review of literature on EL in tourism is undertaken followed by critical appraisal of the implications of EL for HR practices in the tourism and hospitality industry.

INTRODUCTION

Hochschild's (1983) initially conceptualized emotional labor within the theatre metaphor wherein service is envisioned as a "show", service employee as the "actor", customer as the "audience" and the work place as the "stage, " in which the actor (employee) is expected to enact a role according to a script. Emotional labor is highly relevant to service's as they are difficult to evaluate, perishable (which makes it impossible to rectify any mistakes in the service which has been offered), and employee behavior and

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch004

attitude significantly impact customer emotions, cognitions and behaviors produced during the service encounters Zapf (2002).

Tourism is labor intensive service (Deery & Jago, 2009) with humans at the centre of exchange process (McKercher & Robbins, 1998). Therefore, emotional displays by employees potentially can determine the employee-customer relationship in the service delivery (Julian, 2008; Lee & Ok, 2015). The emotional labor of the service provider is therefore embedded in the tourism product (Olsen, 2002; Sharpe, 2005; Van Dijk & Kirk, 2007).

Employees in hospitality and Tourism Industry are expected to express cheerfulness, enthusiasm, friendliness as mandated and expected by the Organization even if they are experiencing negative emotions (Pizam, 2004; Wong and Wang, 2009). The service providers (employees) may embody the product being offered such as ‘adventure’, ‘excitement’, ‘intrigue’ or ‘fantasy’ when enacting their role irrespective of the routine nature of the work(Beardsworth & Bryman, 2011;).

The Tourism industry expects the employees to perform by offering emotional labor in addition to the physical and Intellectual labor (Chu & Murrmann, 2006; Sharpe, 2005; Zapf, 2002, Constanti & Gibbs, 2005; Guerrier & Adib, 2003). Employees in the Hospitality and tourism industry are in direct contact with customers of the employing organization and need to enact a role which requires them to perform emotional labor in their encounter with the customer/visitor (Anderson, Provis, & Chappel, 2003). The three types of workers who deliver tourism are Directors and stage managers, performers and intermediaries of cultural performances who embody the attributes of emotional labor and power. Thus for exp., workers who provide ‘dancing’ as part of hotel evening entertainment have a human capital requirement of ‘dancing’ but it also has elements of emotional labor as they are expected to have friendly and positive disposition even with irate, demanding or impatient customers .

The most studied jobs in Tourism have at least two of the characteristics specified by Hochschild (1983) for high EL jobs ie frequent interactions with the public (i.e., customers); the expectation of inducing emotions in others, and the management or control of these emotional interactions. From perspective of tourism industry, the jobs most researched are cabin crew, frontline staff of airlines, tour guides and restaurant waiters to some extent.

Tourism focused service providers (employees) provide emotional expressions to service receivers (visitors) to elicit the desired emotional response to the interaction (Sharpe, 2005). The employers manage the same by designing and providing scripts consisting of simple instructions to detailed processes to direct their employees physical and emotional movements. (Erickson and Wharton, 1997).

Hotel service work requires managers to manage their own emotions and those of the service employees (Young and Corsun, 2009) for organizational success. This requires emotion management between the service provider and service receiver in order to meet the desired service quality expectations (Lashley, Morrison, & Randall, 2005). These rules and norms are framed by the hospitality organizations to maximize customer satisfaction and service quality, Kim (2008).

Organizational norms or “feeling rules’ are attempts to control the private thoughts or feelings and inner lives of employees. However, scholars later argued that the appropriate term is “display rules” as organizations can only regulate the observable behavior or emotional expressions and had no control over the unobservable inner states (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989).

The customers (visitor’s) reaction and perception to the experience is partially determined by the service providers adoption of appropriate emotional expressions (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005). Thus service quality may be evaluated adversely if the customer (visitor) does not perceive the emotional expressions and facial and bodily cues as authentic (Ekman, Friesen, & O’Sullivan, 1988;

Grandey et al., 2005; Olsen, 2002). Though the service provider may display false emotions (surface acting) or genuine emotions (deep acting) to enact the experience being offered (e.g. adventure, excitement, fun) (Van Dijk & Kirk, 2008),the emotional expressions perceived as authentic would benefit the organization (Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2005).

Table 1. Theoretical models and definitions

Hothschild (1983)	Hochschild defined the organizationally desired expression of emotions by employees as acting. Surface Acting is when the the employee enacts certain emotions without feeling them ie she is regulating the emotions expressed by her, "just an actor, not sincere" (HochschIld1983). However, Deep Acting is when the employee generates authentic feelings for the role for which she is displaying emotions
Ashforth and Humphrey (1993)	Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labour as "act of displaying appropriate emotions" and observable behavior and they evaluated the affect of EL on task effectiveness as against employee health. According to them, whether Customers perceive the emotions expressed by employees as genuine.or not is important. Employees expressed emotions will become natural over period of time as they identify with the role being played routinely and the organization they are working for.
Morris and Feldman (1996)	Morris and Feldman (1996) defined Emotional Labour as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions" (Emotional Labour has four dimensions (a) interaction frequency (b) interaction Intensity and duration of emotions (c) Variety of emotions expected to be expressed and (d) Emotional Dissonance. (discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions) This model was supported by Hochschild, (1983), Brotheridge and Lee (1998), Grancley (2000) and Zapf et al. (1999)
Brotheridge and Lee (1998)	Brotheridge and Lee (1998)::Emotional Labour defined as "actions undertaken as a means of addressing role demands". According to them, Surface Acting is a indication of Emotional Dissonance
Gross's (1998)	Gross's (1998) model states that Emotion Regulation might occur when individuals regulate the precursors of emotions and modifies the physiological signs of emotions (antecedent focused) and when she modifies her physiological state to express the specific emotional response (response focused similar to surface acting) or suppresses her true emotions.
Grandey (2000)	Grandey (2000) defined emotion regulation as "the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" The two aspects of antecedent focused regulation are attentional deployment (when person thinks about events that elicit the required emotions) and cognitive change (when person reappraises her personal thoughts about the external situation similar to deep acting. Emotional Labour is influenced by situational variables of interaction expectations (Frequency, Variety, Duration, And Display rules) and positive and negative emotional events. Organizational factors like job autonomy and co worker/supervisor support also influence the way EL is performed. Individual well-being which is likely to affect job satisfaction, and burnout, and organizational well-being and its effect on performance and withdrawal behavior are the long term consequences of EL.
Zapf (2002)	Zapf (2002) used the term Emotional Work as "the psychological processes necessary to regulate organizationally desired emotions." Zapf (2002), argued that EL is the psychological part of work process, and therefore the cognitive processes are linked to work environment and behavior through psychological regulation

There is a debate as the appropriate theoretical framework of EL in Tourism Industry and service Industry in general is still lacking and there is no single framework adopted by the studies. The review of theories and definitions (Table 1.0) also indicates the existence of multiple definitions of EL being adopted in Tourism sector. There is lack of consensus on whether EL is acting, impression management or self regulation of feelings . There is also variance in conceptualization of EL of whether it's a cognitive, emotional or behavioral dominant concept. Though EL is construed as self management of emotions as per role expectation, it's also evaluated as a behavioral (Surface acting) and cognitive (Emotional Intelligence) concept .

Emotional labor strategies: According to Hochschild(1983), EL strategies are of two types: surface acting and deep acting . Surface Acting is enactment of emotions without genuinely feeling them or trying to feel them by regulating the expressed emotionsand sees herself as "just an actor, not sincere" (HochschIld, 1983). However, Deep Acting is when the individual genuinely feels the emotions and consciously tries to feel the emotions being expressed for the role being performed. Later, a third strategy was proposed ie Genuine acting wherein expressed emotions are congruent with the emotions being felt by the employee(Chu, Baker, & Murrmann, 2012).

The individual can regulate emotions at two points, by modifying the situation(antecedent focused regulation) prior to the encounter and by modifying their physiological reactions to the situation (response focused regulation) during the encounter (Gross,1998)

LV et al (2012) categorized emotional labor strategies into five types as surface acting, deep acting (active deep acting or positive consonance), deliberative dissonance acting, negative consonance and automatic emotional regulation (passive deep acting)

Emotional Suppression involves inhibiting ones emotion-expressive behavior (Gross and John, 2003) like displaying a poker face during a card game. Emotional suppression and denial are linked with lower levels of immunity and susceptibility to viral infection and cardio vascular disease (Schaubroeck and Jones, 2000) and result in reduced memory for social information (Sieverding, 2009) and other physiological, social, affective, and cognitive consequences.

Emotional consonance is when individual naturally expresses his/her genuine felt emotions (Yugo, 2009; Zammuner & Galli, 2005b). It is similar to deep acting as the felt emotions are congruent with the expressed emotions.

Emotional labor strategies have also been differentiated based on the extent to which they involve an antecedent-focused or response focused emotion regulation strategy. Emotional regulation involves all conscious and unconscious efforts to manage elements of one's emotions, (Gross,1999). which can be: antecedent –focused and response-focused. The individual evaluates the source of the emotion in case of antecedent-focused (waiter reminding himself to be friendly towards an irate customer) while in response-focused regulation, the individual manipulates her physiology, behaviors, cognition, facial/bodily expressions when emotional reaction has already occurred (waiter attempting to show positive emotion to a customer who is misbehaving with her), (Coˆte´ and Morgan, 2002). Gross, (1998) found that the psychological strain is greater in case of response –focused emotion regulation as compared to antecedent-focused strategy and Coˆte´ and Morgan (2002) found the same pattern in job-related outcomes as response-focused response strategies resulted in lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intentions.

However, emotional consonance has a number of positive effects, including enhanced feelings of personal accomplishment and decreased levels of emotional exhaustion (Na¨ring, Brie¨t, & Brouwers, 2006).

Deep Acting protects the employee from negative moods (Judge et al., 2009; Polletta and Tufail, 2016), and minimizes her emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion. (Brotheridge and Lee, 2003; Kim and Kim, 2018). Deep Acting negatively impacts personal accomplishment, and can produce conflicting results with surface behavior (Kruml and Geddes, 2000; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Johnson and Spector, 2007). As per the conservation of resources (COR, Hobfoll, 1989) model, individuals attempt to enhance, protect and preserve their psychological resources. According to hospitality and tourism researchers surface acting is negatively associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and positively associated with turnover intentions: Deep acting is associated with positive attitudinal outcomes(e.g., Kim & Back, 2012; Wu & Shie, 2017).

Deep acting has positive impact on resources through cognitive effort, by eliminating the gap between internal feelings and displayed expressions leading to a positive interaction (Xu et al., 2017a). It produces a more positive emotional experience (Grandey, 2003) and develops positive resources overtime by resulting in enhanced satisfaction.

Thus, outcomes of emotional labor are dependent on the emotion labour strategy adopted by the employee and the organizational context in which service is performed (Grandey and Gabriel, 2015). Personality and emotional intelligence are the most widely studied individual antecedents of emotional labor (Kim et al., 2012; (Sohn and Lee, 2012; Gursoy et al., 2011; Kim, 2008). Positive and negative affect are linked with emotional dissonance levels Chu et al. (2012) while other antedecents of EL include mindfulness (Li et al., 2017), exhaustion and work-family conflict (Zhao et al., 2014) and national culture (Newnham, 2017)

Organizational antecedents of emotional labor ie organizational support (Lam and Chen, 2012; Hur et al., 2013)., job autonomy Gursoy et al. (2011) and Intensity, variety, frequency, duration, autonomy and the display rules of service interactions moderate the impact of individual factors on the EL strategies (Kim, 2008). Customer orientation culture (Lee et al., 2016), customer misbehavior (Hu et al., 2017; Karatepe et al., 2010) and human resource management practices (recruitment selection, training and empowerment, (Johanson and Woods, 2008) are other organizational antecedents of EL) Hu et al.,2017). Customer misbehavior has negative affect on emotional labor while customer verbal aggression triggers emotional dissonance amongst hospitality employees (Karatepe et al., 2009).

Outcomes of EL

Burnout, (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment are the most studied employee outcomes of emotional labor (Chu et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2017; Hur et al., 2013; Kim, 2008; Lee and Ok, 2012; Li et al., 2017; Lv et al., 2012; Newnham, 2017; Rathi et al., 2013. EL is positively linked with emotional exhaustion, and depression (Wharton, 1993), employee stress (Pugliesi & Shook, 1998), and adversely correlated with job satisfaction (Bulan, Erickson, & Wharton, 1997) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002).

Surface acting involving "suppression of emotions" (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002) could cause distress in employees when they lose resources and desire to escape or quit the job (Xu et al., 2017a) and is related with negative outcomes of commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions while deep acting which involves trying to feel positive internally and positive and authentic display of emotions is positively linked with higher outcomes of job satisfaction, employee commitment and lower turnover intentions (Kim & Back, 2012; Wu & Shie, 2017)

Burnout can affect employees job satisfaction (Rutner, Hardgrave, & McKnight, 2008), physical health (Dormann & Kaiser, 2002; Wegge, Vogt, & Wecking, 2007; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999), performance problems (Bakker & Heuven, 2006), work withdrawal, and turnover intentions (Abraham, 1999; Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Rutner et al., 2008).

Some of the negative organizational consequences of burn out are higher turnover, and employees intentions to quit, adverse work attitudes, and lower performance levels (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Surface acting drains employees' motivational resources and eventually their creativity levels (Shin, Hur, & Oh,

2015) and positively impacts CWB (e.g., service sabotage) in hospitality employees (Lee and Ok, 2014) while deep acting is related to employees ego depletion (Deng, Walter, Lam, and Zhao, 2017).

Moderating Variables: Social support (Abraham, 1999) moderates the impact of emotional dissonance on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The relationship of EL with positive and negative outcomes (tipping) is moderated by LMX quality (quality of relationship between managers and employees) (Medler-Liraz 2014). Climate of Authenticity has a moderating effect on relationship of surface acting with emotional exhaustion (Li et al., 2017) as employees who engage in surface acting experience less emotional exhaustion within a strong organizational climate . The effect of emotional intelligence on emotional labor is moderated by employee gender and position (deep and surface acting). (Jung and Yoon, 2014) as per their study on hotel employees. However, there is dearth of empirical studies on the effects of gender on emotional labour performance. One relevant study on adventure tour leaders in Australia showed no significant affect of gender on surface and deep acting (Torland, 2011).

Display Rules: Organizations use formal control mechanisms in form of explicit and implied norms to ensure that employees display the emotions valued by customers (Hochschild, 1979, 1983; Leidner, 1999). These norms or standards prescribed by an organization are in form of recommended expressions of emotions and attitudes during service interactions with customers and labeled as "Organizational display rules" (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983). Display rules provide guidance to employees in the service encounters with customers as regards which emotions are to be expressed and in what ways and when (Susskind et al., 2007). They are communicated through human resource practices (Xu, 2020).Display rules are reflected through the organizational philosophies, values and culture as core values and mission statements (Ashkanasy, 2002;; Zapf, 2002).

For example, Southwest Airlines' commitment to customer service (i.e., display rules) is reflected in their mission statement: "The mission of Southwest Airlines is dedication to the highest quality of customer service delivered with a sense of warmth, friendliness, individual pride, and Company Spirit" (Southwest Airlines, 2012).

Employees "perceptions of expression of positive emotions" are referred to as positive display rules while "perceptions of suppression of negative emotions" are referred to as negative display rules (Kim, 2008, p. 153). Positive display rules in workplace are associated with deep acting while negative display rules are linked with surface acting Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand's (2005).

Most studies have adopted the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) for evaluating the individual antecedents and individual, organizational and customer outcomes of EL and adopted the AET (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), theory for evaluation of organizational antecedents of EL. AET postulates that affective experiences affect individuals' evaluative judgments of their jobs and work environments (positive and negative emotions).

However, many of the studies (Chu et al., 2012; Kim, 2008; Lv et al., 2012; Newnham, 2017; Rathi et al., 2013; Sandiford and Seymour, 2002; Sohn and Lee, 2012) have lacked a theoretical framework or have used a context-specific theoretical model. Diverse measures of EL which are outcomes of EL but have been employed in Tourism (including emotional dissonance and emotive effort) as measures of EL in many studies (Lee, 2019). Further, very few studies have considered the longitudinal or temporal variation of EL and the contextual or situational effects on EL have not been adequately explored.

Table 2. Antecedents and outcomes of EL

Attributes	Measure of Emotional labor	Source
Antecedents		
Emotional regulation and intelligence	Emotional dissonance and emotive effort	Lee and Ok (2012)
	EL Strategies	Jung and Yoon (2014b)
	EL strategies	Kim et al. (2012)
Personality	EL Strategies	Sohn and Lee (2012)
	Emotional effort and dissonance	Gursoy et al. (2011)
	EL Strategies	Kim (2008)
Mindfulness	Surface acting	Li et al. (2017)
Affect	EL Strategies	Medler-Liraz (2014)
	EL Strategies	Chu et al. (2012)
Work-family conflict	Faking positive and suppressing negative	Zhao et al. (2014)
Exhaustion	Faking positive and suppressing	Zhao et al. (2014)
National culture	EL Strategies	Newnham (2017)
Organizational support	EL Strategies	Hur et al. (2013)
	EL Strategies	Lam and Chen (2012)
Job characteristics	EL Strategies	Kim (2008)
	Emotional effort and dissonance	Gursoy et al. (2011)
Customer orientation	EL Strategies	Lee and Hwang (2016)
Customer misbehavior	Emotional effort and dissonance	Hu et al. (2017)
	Emotional Dissonance	Karatepe et al. (2009)
Empowerment, recruitment, selection and training		Johanson and Woods (2008)
Supervisor support		Abbas, Mansour, and Elshawarbi (2018)
Harmonious passion, Obsessive passion		Chen et al. (2019)
Affect, Emotional contagion, Emotional concern		Chu, Baker, and Murrmann (2012)
Extraversion, Neuroticism		Gursoy et al. (2011)
Big Five Personality		Hameed (2016)
Age, Work experience, Emotional intelligence		Hur, Moon, and Han (2014)
Perceived organisational support		Hur et al. (2013)
Psychological capital,, Co worker support		Hur, Rhee, and Ahn (2016)
Coworker support		Hwa (2012)
Emotional intelligence Extraversion,		Jeon (2016)
Emotional intelligence		Kim et al. (2012)
Emotional intelligence		Kim et al. (2019)
Outcomes		
Employee Well-being		Sandiford and Seymour (2002)
Employee creativity and job stress	EL Strategies	Geng et al. (2014)
Burnout	EL Strategies	Kim (2008)
	EL Strategies	Newnham (2017)
	Emotional effort and dissonance	Lee and Ok (2012)
	EL Strategies	Hur et al. (2013)
	Emotional effort and dissonance	Hu et al. (2017)
	EL Strategies	Rathi et al. (2013).
	EL Strategies	Lv et al. (2012)
	Surface acting	Li et al. (2017)
	EL Strategies	Chu et al. (2012)
Job satisfaction		Abbas, Mansour, and Elshawarbi (2018)
Customer Oriented behaviour, Service Performance, Customer Loyalty		Aziza, Najafia,Shamsudinb, and Alshuaibi (2016)
Strain		Beal et al. (2013)
Job satisfaction		Bozionelos (2016)
Tip		Bujisic, Wu, Mattila, and Bilgihan (2014)
Job satisfaction, Service performance		Chen et al. (2012)
Job satisfaction, Emotional Exhaustion		Chen et al. (2019)
Service performance, CW B		Chi & Grandey (2019)
Service performance		Chi & Wang (2018)
Service performance,		Chi et al. (2011)
Tip Job satisfaction, Emotional exhaustion		Chu, Baker, and Murrmann (2012)

continued on following page

Table 2. Continued

Attributes	Measure of Emotional labor	Source
Customer satisfaction CWB		Collishaw, Dyer, and Boies (2008)
CWB		Deng et al. (2017)
Customer oriented behaviour		Fu (2013)
Creativity		Geng, Liu, Liu, and Feng (2014
Customer satisfaction		Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, and Sideman (2005)
Job satisfaction		Gursoy et al. (2011)
Ervice performance		Hameed (2016)
Tip		Hülsheger et al. (2015)
Organizational Commitment		Hur, Moon, and Han (2014)
Organizational commitment,Turnover Intention		Hur et al. (2013)
Turnover intention		Hur, Rhee, and Ahn (2016)
Emotional Exhaustion		Hwa (2012)
Customer-oriented behaviour		Jeon (2016)
Burnout		Jung & Yoon (2014
Service performance		Kim et al. (2012)
Service performance, Turnover Intention		Kim et al. (2019)
Turnover intention		Krannitz et al. (2015)

Adapted from Lee et al, 2019 and Xu et al., 2020

EL and Customer Service Performance

Emotional labor is positively linked with performance as emotional expressions are perceived as sincere by customers and have negatively impact on performance (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) if viewed as insincere. Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, and Sideman (2002) discovered that customer's can differentiate between faked smiles and authentic smiles of a hotel clerk, and respond positively to authentic smiles. Bærenholdt and Jensen (2009) in their study at Danish tourist attractions found that recognition from visitors was a relished reward for frontline employees for their emotional performance and contributed to their enhanced sense of self-development and self-esteem.

Hence, chances of surface acting being perceived as insincere are higher as the desired emotions are faked, while deep acting has higher probability of being perceived as sincere because the felt emotions and displayed emotions are equivalent (Grandey, 2000). Employees therefore need to adjust their emotional display to each customer and situation depending on the verbal and non vernal cues transmitted by customers.

Display of positive emotions have significant association with organizational objectives of customer delight, return intentions and positive word of mouth (Johanson and Woods, 2008;) which in turn have financial implications. Financial implications of positive emotional display by service employees especially in Hospitality Industry is universally accepted (Fox, 2001; Pugh, 2001). Positive customer consequences are related to deep acting while negative outcomes are linked with surface acting. (Van Dijk et al., 2011).

Psychological research results show that positive displays and authentic expressions are linked with interpersonal outcomes (Frank & Ekman, 1993; Surakka & Hietanen, 1998). Positive emotional displays of greeting customers, having eye contact, and smiling have been found to be related with positive mood, service quality, and positive behavioral intentions (i.e., willingness to recommend and repurchase intentions) (Ford, 1995; Mattila & Enz, 2002; Tsai, 2001). Pugh (2001) and Tsai and Huang (2002) found positive displays by employees are associated with service quality perceptions and positive behavioral intentions which may be mediated by customer affect and perceptions of the employee's friendliness.

However, smiling and similar behavioral cues only have been the focus of most studies (e.g., Ford, 1995; Pugh, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2002).

Sector Specific Studies of EL

While most of the results enumerated above are similar across the different sectors of Hospitality and Tourism, some of the studies results are sector specific. The four most studied roles are Tour operators, airlines cabin crew, frontline staff of Hotels and service staff of restaurants.

The unique aspects of these sectors are as follows

Tour Leader

Tour leader roles have dual role as a service provider to the visitors and a consumer representative to vendors of the group package components. Tour leaders have to display positive and suppress negative emotions inspite of unreasonable and demanding tour participants while at the same time express or fake negative emotions to suppliers to ensure delivery of service quality and problem resolution (e.g., Sutton, 1991). Men have been found to adopt surface acting more often as compared to women and older Tour guides who have spent more years on the job adopt deep acting as they are more successful at internalizing themselves and their emotions.

Cabin Crew (Airlines)

Commercial Airlines have traditionally mandated their staff to adhere to high level of emotional display rules especially as regards cabin crew who are expected to manage the intricacies of surface acting, deep acting and other emotional coping approaches (Hochschild, 1983; Williams, 2003).

Flight attendants experience emotional exhaustion as a result of surface acting (Hur et al. 2013) due to distress or strain from displaying emotions they do not feel (Li et al. 2017) . Flight attendants service conditions of providing service over a long period of time; high pressure in the aircraft cabin and hermetic space; passengers complexity of temperament; disease prone environment; uncertain work hours causing work family conflicts and heavy work loads may induce burnout leading to flight attendants' alienation from work . Flight attendants are prone to emotional exhaustion due to long periods of stressful work environment.

As mentioned by a male cabin crew in one of the studies ; It's fatigue – you're working a harder roster. They throw in an Atlantic, late Europe's, early Europes. I can say I haven't been as tired in the last 15 years as I have been in the last six months that's for sure. They're tightening up the working hours, more productivity, they're maximizing

Frequent misbehaviors by passengers make the staff vulnerable to emotional exhaustion and make them experience higher levels of emotional labor.(Hu et al., 2017).

A cabin crew expressed her situation as "Passengers are just miserable because we are delayed! All I can do is smile when really I want to just tell them all to go home if they don't want to fly with us. Of course I can't really say that to them" (Mary, 2007).

An illustration of display rules of airlines is " Passengers have to be addressed politely and courteously at all times . Flight attendants are expected to be good mannered at all times and make use of "please," "thank-you," "excuse me," "Sir," "Madam," and should address passengers by their names whenever applicable. The following terms "you guys," "Hon," "dear," and "love" are not acceptable".

Restaurant

Restaurant industry employs standardized work practices such as scripts to protect service workers from the psychological costs of depersonalization and alienation from their true feelings. (Leidner,1993). Female workers, are likely to be exposed to gendered emotional labour due to suggestive jokes, undesirable bodily contact and innuendos.

As quoted by one waitress: `If you sell yourself all the time you end up losing your identity. You must hold a part of you back. You don't want to end up being just part of the meal experience. You need to learn to keep respect for yourself. Hence, service workers in standardized roles feel the need to personalize their service to retain their individual character and self identity', whereas those engaged in highly personalised authentic service contexts feel the need to hide their true selves from the customers view through deep acting.

Hospitality

The success of guest services is dependent on employees' displayed hospitality behaviors such as courtesy and full attention, as customer service require's constant face-to-face interaction with customers in an effort to satisfy their varied demands and expectations (Lee, 2002). These employees are mostly required to stand or sit still for long time periods and sometimes maintain awkward postures during the shits of 10-12 hours every day. The job involves displaying the appropriate attitude, with correct level of authenticity, and concern for guests. Employees, in their interactions with customers, are expected to exhibit certain emotional displays such as friendliness, cheerfulness, confidence, warmth, or enthusiasm, for long periods of time

Discourse on Emotional Labour (EL)

The research on EL in Tourism has been bounded by the theatre analogy and it is assumed that EL is only relevant to the performance of the front stage employees and does not have much relevance to the backstage performers or workers at the boundary of front and back stage for example ticket checking staff, customer service representatives, security personnel at airports who may also need to produce EL for effective service experiences. These roles have not been studied or focused on in Tourism industry,

Many organizations are small and medium scale, micro entrepreneurial ventures for example transportation agencies, travel agents and workers who are on contractual basis where HRM departments with specific skills and processes may not be existent. For example owner managed enterprises who engage with service customers. EL has only been considered on employee-employer context and how EL is experienced by owners who are also service providers have not been explored. For example, a taxi driver who is also owner of the taxi provides service to passengers in similar contexts as cabin crew but with different levels of job autonomy and psychological situation.

Most of the studies on EL have been focused on establishing the dyadic linkages of EL with organizational variables and psychological well being of the Individuals. The Cognitive appraisal theories of emotion have predominated the theoretical approach in understanding EL and its effects which raises the question of whether tourism industry needs to manage EL uniquely or management of employee EL is a generic competency. The AET theory states that cognitive interpretations by employees trigger emotional states, which then drive affect-driven behaviors (e.g., emotional displays). However, processes and mechanisms through which emotions influence outcomes at work remain unanswered.

The antecedent, moderating and outcome effects on EL ie job autonomy, emotional intelligence, extraversion, neuroticism, social support, display rules, supervisor support, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, burnout have not been studied together. Their concurrent impact has not been understood which makes the results prone to selection bias.

The most correlated outcomes of EL studied in literature are burnout, job satisfaction, depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. Other organizational and individual outcomes such as employee commitment, employee engagement, motivation have been relatively ignored.

There is a dearth of longitudinal studies on EL and culture, EL and gender, EL and different role categorizations. Most of the studies have been undertaken in Europe, USA and Australia. Some of the studies in other parts of the world are of in Japan (Ogino, Tak*gasak'& Inaki, 2004) and China (Shulei & Miner, 2006 and Wu ýi & Cheng, 2006) and are limited to customer contact persons in Hospitality, restaurant, airlines and Tour operators.

There are methodological issues also. Actual turnover has not been measured in these studies as intentions to quit may not reflect the actual behavior. There is dearth of quantitative research on Emotional Labour and Emotional Dissonance (Dormann & Zapf, 2004; Heuven & Bakker, 2003) and many of the studies have used semi structured data collection methods. There is lack of concurrence regarding the conceptualization of EL and theoretical approach to be adopted for evaluating the effects and causes of emotional labor (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002) and its operationalization (Bono and Vey, 2005). There is a debate on whether researchers should investigate individual differences while attempting to understand the variability in consequences of emotional labor as individual characteristics determine how individuals deliver emotional labor (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Zapf and Holz, 2006).In their review paper (Xu et al., 2020), authors have made an attempt to develop an integrated model of EL.

However, further research is required on the cross cultural differences in EL, group behavior and EL, gender and age effects, the positive emotional outcomes produced in customers through interactional transactions, and whether the results are generalizeable to back stage interactions between employees, and spill-over effects of EL on family life and society

There is lack of clarity on whether the results of investigations on EL predominantly undertaken in the airlines (cabin crew), hospitality (front-line), restaurant (service staff) and Tour leaders can be generalized to other sectors, roles and positions in Tourism. It's also not established whether managers and back stage personnel need to regulate their emotions in their interactions with frontline personnel and service staff and how their interactions with the personnel engaged with customers affect the delivery of service The literature on EL in Tourism has not adequately investigated the positive outcomes of EL and how to leverage deep acting for enhanced customer satisfaction and loyalty.. For example, what job design changes to implement for cabin crew to alleviate the negative outcomes of EL experienced by them over their career. Specific recommendations are non-existent as general observations on higher job autonomy offer little managerial guidance.

Though airlines have become more sensitive to passenger's mis-behaviour with airlines stewardesses post 9/11, the literature does not provide any recommendations for HR practitioners on how to alleviate the emotional exhaustion and stress on account of adverse working environment.

Human Resource Management and Emotional Labor:

Some challenges which HR practitioners are likely to face are: Whether employees can be trained to surface /deep act and how to develop these competencies. How to define and measure the emotional intelligence and personality traits for specific roles and organizational culture? How to implement higher job autonomy in routine jobs? Can deep acting skills be developed over a period of time and how? Whether to offer higher rewards for EL? How to motivate employees in front line roles and adverse working environments for long hours and periods of time in their career? Where to draw the line regarding acceptable customer abuse? Whether positive emotional displays are the appropriate display strategies in all situations? For example, what emotions to display when employees have to undertake leadership roles for example in a crisis?

A functional approach has been adopted to assess the applicability of EL research to HR practices in Tourism. Thus, specific HR functions are examined for EL related practices.

Personality tests can used for selection of employees for frontline positions. By selecting candidates with desirable traits and better person-brand fit, tourism service providers can ensure better emotional performance. Hiring people with higher levels of extroversion and lower levels of neuroticism could lead to behavioral outcomes as a natural consequence of their personality. Certain situational and role play assessments may provide a better evaluation of the emotional dispositions of the potential employee.

Performance appraisal and reward systems can be designed to encourage positive affect and job autonomy? Having more control on various aspects of the job have been found to have positive association with EL. Hence extrinsic rewards can enhance intrinsic motivation by providing meaningful information about self-competence and when employees have discretion on how and when to complete the task .Incentive and reward systems that enhance employee control on their behavior can lead to higher levels of perceived organizational support and lessen the negative impact of EL on self and the organization.

Job design can minimize the need for EL for example in scripted and impersonal performances. However, the impact on self identity needs to be understood and tackled. What level of empowerment would reduce the negative effects of for example surface acting by front-line service staff can be examined.

Employees who need to perform EL can be provided supportive organizational contexts in form of higher perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support. The organizational rules may be more flexible as regards their behavior and adherence to norms and culture when they are not performing their roles. Training may be given to them on emotional self management and customer management strategies to minimize the negative impact of EL.

A supportive work culture would moderate the ill effects of EL on their health and organizational outcomes. HR practitioners can experiment and develop policies and practices which lead to a supportive work culture for EL performances. For example, an informal work culture in back stage for example in restaurant kitchen could lessen the impact of EL in front stage.

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Chapter 5
Great Expectations:
The Graduate View of Skills in Hospitality

Susana Silva
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Polytechnic Institute of Porto, Portugal & CITUR, Portugal

Cândida Silva
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Polytechnic Institute of Porto, Portugal & CITUR, Portugal

Gisela Soares
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Polytechnic Institute of Porto, Portugal

ABSTRACT

Skills are understood as key issues in the labour market and conceptualised as individual attributes needed to perform competent work. The distinction between hard and soft skills is one of the most used theoretical conceptualization – hard skills being understood as technical skills, required of professionals, and soft skills being seen as personal traits which are not specifically related to the function. One hundred years after the publication of Mann's A Study of Engineering Education (1918), and as employers expect a new level of readiness from new hires, the focus is on bridging the soft skills gap. However, most of the literature delves into mismatched expectations of both industry and educators, and little documentation can be found regarding the skills that future employees believe their employers will require.

INTRODUCTION

Skills are fundamental elements in the labour market. Several authors (e.g. Alsafadi & Abunafesa, 2012; Dixon, Belnap, Albrecht & Lee, 2010; Jaykumar, 2018) have conceptualized skills as individual attributes needed to perform competent work. Literature is not consensual regarding the conceptualization of skills, although the distinction between hard and soft skills is one of the most used theoretical conceptualization - hard skills are understood as technical skills, required of the professionals, and soft skills are seen as personal traits that are not specifically related to the function (Weber, Finely, Crawford & Rivera, 2009).

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch005

Recent studies (Alsafadi & Abunafesa, 2012; Jaykumar, 2018) have shown that there is a skills gap in hospitality, i.e., there is a significant difference between the skills valued by graduates and the skills valued by employers. Graduates consider as most important skills those involved in the technical dimension of work. On the other hand, employers do value soft skills such as problem solving, teamwork or communication.

In line with recent literature currently looking into the kind of skills needed for several professional activities in different business activities, this study aims to characterize the skills needed in hospitality. More specifically this study intends to identify hard and soft skills understood as important skills for hotel graduates.

The chapter is structured as follows. The first section presents an overview of the literature on skills, skills gap, and skills gap in hospitality. The second section presents the methodology, and the third section the results. Lastly, conclusions are drawn, highlighting the theoretical and practical implications of the study. Limitations are identified, in the end, as well as some future developments for further relevant research.

BACKGROUND

Skills are seen as key issues in the labour market and conceptualised as individual attributes needed to perform competent work (Dixon, Belnap, Albrecht & Lee, 2010). The distinction between hard and soft skills is one of the most used theoretical conceptualisations - hard skills being understood as technical skills, required of professionals, and soft skills being seen as personal traits which are not specifically related to the function (Robles, 2012; Weber, Finely, Crawford & Rivera, 2009).

"Hard skills are the technical expertise and knowledge needed for a job." (Robles, 2012, p. 453), they equate "technical skills" and, because they are often represented by subjects in educational curricula, they are narrowly associated with job qualifications. Hard skills "require the acquisition of knowledge, are primarily cognitive in nature and are influenced by an individual's intelligence quotient source." (Weber et al., 2009, p.354). Hard skills are job-orientated and job-specific; they are trainable, but not transferable. On their own, hard skills no longer guarantee employment or fast-track a career as employers seek for differentiating skills, and screen candidates for "interpersonal qualities, also known as people skills, and personal attributes that one possesses." (Robles, 2012, p. 453). Although Lim et al. (2016) argue that "both hard and soft skills are equally important criteria especially in employability" (p.125), many examples in the literature identify a trend to attribute a lesser import to hard skills, to which the hospitality sector is no stranger (Baum, 2002; Chung-Herrera, Enz & Lankau, 2003; Fraser, 2019; Kim, 2008; Sisson & Adams, 2013; Spowart; 2011; Tas, LaBrecque & Clayton, 1996). This does not, in any way, mean that hard skills are being discounted, quite the contrary. Studies by Baum (2002), Christou (1999), Dupre and Williams (2011), Kay & Russette (2000), Raybould and Wilkins (2005), Sigala and Baum (2003) all stress that specific skills are very important for developing a career.

Other concept words may be used, with a similar meaning, to describe soft skills, such as "employability skills", "core skills", "key skills", "transferable skills", "generic skills" and "non-technical skills" (Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry [ACCI and BCA], 2002; Ogbeide, 2006).

In order to be marketable, young graduates need to be able to demonstrate an array of both hard and soft skills (Lim, et al., 2016; Mann 1918). Across the 39 countries surveyed in OECD's Survey of Adult Skills, "Adults with greater proficiency in literacy, numeracy and problem-solving in technology-rich environments tend to have better outcomes in the labour market than their less-proficient peers." (2019, p.111), and are more likely to thrive in today's ever-changing technological societies (Grundke, Marcolin, Nguyen & Squicciarini, 2018). In other words, being labour market ready requires, alongside educational attainment, at least three key, highly transferable information processing skills, which, as they are not specifically related to the function, are soft skills proper.

The latter are also at the core of "career readiness", which the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) defines as "the attainment and demonstration of requisite competencies that broadly prepare college graduates for a successful transition into the workplace." (2020, para. 3). Eight competencies, deemed essential for the transition of graduates into the workplace, prove to be consistently used to screen candidates: Critical Thinking/Problem Solving; Oral/Written Communications; Teamwork/Collaboration; Digital Technology; Leadership; Professionalism/Work Ethic; Career Management; Global/Intercultural Fluency, their ranking showing little change year after year. In 2019's NACE's report, written communication skills, problem-solving skills, the ability to work in a team, initiative and leadership skills ranked top five in the employers' wish list, while technical skills ranked 10, with only 59.6% of the respondents stating to screen the candidates' *curriculum vitae* seeking proof of this particular attribute ("Job Outlook 2019", 2019). "Career readiness" would also imply that one's skills and one's level of proficiency match the ones sought after by employers in the sector of industry in which one seeks employment. The fact this is not always the case is referred to in the literature as a mismatch or skills gap.

As regards soft skills, such mismatches can be found across OECD countries, where, for example, 11% of workers report having "higher levels of numeracy skills than those typically required in their jobs, while 4% are under-skilled" (2019, p.110). The mismatch seems to extend to workers' and employer's perception of said mismatches, as NACE reports employers rating all eight career readiness competencies between "somewhat proficient" and "very proficient." Moreover, new hires seem not to have acquired the four most needed competencies, with reported proficiency levels well below proficiency needs on all top-four competencies – critical thinking/problem solving, teamwork, professionalism/work ethic, and oral/written communications (2019, p.35).

One hundred years after the publication of Mann's *A Study of Engineering Education* (1918), and as employers expect an unprecedented level of readiness from new hires (Fraser, 2019; Hanneman & Gardner, 2010; Harkison, Poulston & Kim, 2011; Saunders & Zuzel, 2010) as well as from students in work placements (Gault, Leach & Duey, 2010), the focus is still on bridging the soft skills gap (Alsafadi & Abunafesa, 2012; Lim et al., 2016; Fraser, 2019; Jaykumar, 2018; Johanson, Losekoot et al., 2018; Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009; Singh & Jaykumar, 2019; Sisson & Adams, 2013), which is poised to persist as digitalization operates dramatic changes to the workplace in virtually every sector of activity (Grundke et al., 2018; OECD, 2018). One of the world's largest economic sectors, Tourism, has not been spared the effect of the soft skills gap, nor has hospitality, one of its major subsectors.

Recent studies, showing that the skills gap in hospitality can be found across countries (Anderson, 2015; Bello, Kamanga & Jamu, 2019; Chung, 2000; Costa et al., 2005; Elshaer & Marzouk, 2019; Green & Erdem, 2016; Huang, Lalopa & Adler, 2016; Johanson, Ghisell, Shea & Roberts, 2016; Jauhari, 2006; Jiang & Alexakis, 2017; Kim, 2018; NACE, 2019; Quinn & Buzzetto-Hollywood, 2019; Sheehan, Grant & Garavan, 2018; Singh & Jaykumar, 2019; Spowart, 2011; Lu & Adler, 2009), illustrate academia's continued interest in designing curricula aimed not only at bridging the gap, i.e., meeting the present needs and expectations of both hospitality students and employers, but also meeting the future needs of the sector as a whole (Cooper & Shepherd, 1997; Enz, Renaghan & Geller, 1993).

Breaking away from the traditional, and somewhat narrow-sighted view inherited by its origins in vocational training, i.e., overly focused on the technical aspects of the business, Tourism Education embedded in higher education institutions has gained a more liberal arts stance, with a view to enable graduates to function in, question and shape a broader tourism world that does not yet exist (Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2008; Kim, 2008; Morrison & O'Gorman, 2008). A trend that may have spurred critical voices accusing educators and programme designers of what could be called an academic drift, as the latter question higher education role, objectives and responsibilities in an overly competencies or skill based, utilitarian educational model (Baum, 2002; Enz, Renaghan & Geller, 1993; Johanson et al., 2010; Morrison & O'Gorman, 2008; Wang, Ayres & Huyton, 2010).

Still programme administrators have been continuously striving to include "those transferable skills which are essential for employability at some level" (Kearns, 2001, p. 2) by including personal development modules or subjects (Kim, 2008), minicourses (Brownell & Chung, 2001), more or less lengthy work placements to ensure that undergraduates develop the soft-skills the industry requires (Baum, 2002; Lim et al., 2016; Kim, 2008; Losekoot et al., 2018; Ogbeide, 2006; Quinn & Buzzetto-Hollywood, 2019; Spowart, 2011), and working closely with the industry stakeholders (Bridgstock, 2009; Chung, 2000; Kay & Russette, 2000).

The drive to find a skills framework can be observed in the body of literature focussing on defining a workable skills framework for (mainly) hospitality managers (Millar, Mao & Moreo,2013) and on ranking the most important skills with a view to support curriculum design and ensuring graduates employability.

In 1993, Enz, Renaghan and Geller found that "Acting in an ethical manner, taking a leadership position, communicating with clients/ customers, working as a member of a team, identifying and defining problems" (p.92) were the five most important skills for the industry representatives and alumni in their sample. More than 15 years later, Weber, Finely, Crawford, and Rivera's study of soft-skills required of entry-level hospitality managers (2009) showed that

"The competencies with the highest means involved working effectively with employees and customers, setting a positive example, displaying honesty / commitment and developing creative solutions to problems. […] It is assumed that managers must be capable of working under stressful situations and as part of a team." (p.359)

In their 25-year retrospective, Johanson, Ghisell, Shea, and Roberts (2010) discuss the shifts in the relative value of different key skills, be it hospitality-industry specific or generic, as they are perceived by both academia and the industry. Their findings point out that 1) communication skills are still valued as the most important skillset, followed by 2) customer-focused skills – which are closely related to the first as communication would be at the core of "the ability to resolve customer problems, manage guest problems with understanding and sensitivity, and solve customer problems" (p.7) and which could also be described as interpersonal or people skills – and 3) computer-related skills which, although deemed key for the future of the industry, seem to be underrated by both the industry (Johanson et al., 2010) and the educational sector (Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009; Sigala & Baum; 2003).

Other soft-skills are considered especially relevant for Hospitality career readiness and are identified as multicultural skills (Kim, 2008; Nilsson, 2018), language skills (Costa et al., 2019; Chung, 2000; Kim, 2008; Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009), lifelong learning (Ogbeide, 2006; Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009), self-management (Raybould & Wilkins, 2005; 2006), and social skills (Chung, 2000; Ogbeide, 2006; Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009), all of which are learnable, transferable and sought after, key skills, not only to interact with a complex, ever-changing environment, but also required of well-rounded, balanced action-orientated and reflection-orientated professionals.

Moreover, traits such as emotional intelligence (Fraser, 2019; Ogbeide, 2006), willingness to learn (Baum, 2002; Kim, 2008), organizational commitment (Kim, 2008; Spowart, 2011), personality (Harkison, Poulston & Kim, 2011; Kim, 2008; Kwok, Adams & Price, 2011), initiative (Harkison, Poulston & Kim, 2011; Kim, 2008; Robles, 2012; Spowart, 2011), creativity (Kay & Russette, 2000; Ogbeide, 2006; Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009), and ethics (Enz, Renaghan & Geller, 1993; Fraser, 2019) seem to be part of the toolkit of the successful hospitality professional or, as coined by Fraser (2019), of the "right hospitality attitude".

Building on Millar's overview (2013), table 1 attempts to map out, though not exhaustively, the five top-rated skills or competencies found in quantitative studies published from 2000, regarding competencies needed for a career in hospitality management, as seen by stakeholders (managers, hospitality students and graduates, and educationists). Skills items are reported in the wording used by the authors of the studies. Items ranking equally were given the same ranking number. Further analysis of the table must take into account that the studies by Raybould and Wilkins (2006) and Silva, Correia and Oliveira (2019), which focus solely on generic/soft skills, were also included.

A cursory analysis of Table 1 illustrates the stakeholders' penchant for soft skills. Regardless of variations in time, place, nature of respondents, etc., most of the skills or skill sets ranked "the most important" in this sample fall under Sandwith's (1993) overarching concept of Leadership competency (15 items) or under the Interpersonal competency (11 items).

References to ethics, values and integrity were grouped within the Leadership domain as they involve behaviours such as "doing the right thing", or getting employees to trust management by leading by example, trusting the employees, or giving them the necessary tools to do their jobs" (Millar, Mao & Moreo, 2013), which ensure that employees trust the leader and are willing to execute on his/her objectives.

Interpersonal skills include not only the ability to work effectively in teams, to manage conflict and negotiate, but also communication skills proper (oral and written communication), which ties in with literacy in information-rich environments (Sigala & Baum, 2003).

Skills under the Conceptual-creative domain, i.e., "cognitive skills associated with comprehending important elements of the job" (Sandwith, 1993, p. 46), identified in other studies as thinking critically, thinking creatively, thinking strategically (Kim, 2008), problem-solving (Sigala & Baum, 2003), but also creativity, innovation and vision (Rig, Dickinson & Wöber, 2009) seldom achieve the status of "most important". In our overview, however, they total 22 items, ranking from 1st to 5th "most important" skill. Table 2 illustrates how very important conceptual-creative skills are for hospitality stakeholders, which makes sense in such an information-intensive sector undergoing a digital overhaul.

Only four skill items belong to the Administrative domain, i.e., the skills involving knowing about, instructing others and enforcing the rules and regulations of the organisation (Sandwith, 1993). Supervising the work of others (Ogbeide, 2006), Concern for order, quality and accuracy (Spowart, 2011), Quality control (Wang & Tsai, 2014), and Ability to adhere to standard operating procedures (SOPs) are all reported only in later studies.

Skills under the Sandwith's Technical competency domain, i.e., industry/job-specific skills involved in the provision of a product or service and the understanding of the methods, procedure and techniques involved in performing and assessing performance, seem underrepresented with only 4 items ranked as "most important". Underrepresentation of these last two domains suggests an on-going shift towards what Johanson et al. (2010) describe as "a focus on service management skills, reflecting the increasing

Table 1. Five top-rated hospitality management skills

Authors	Informants	Skill/skill set item
Chung (2000)	Alumni	1. Problem identification and communication 2. Management of employees and job 3. Innovation 4. Adaptation to environmental changes and procurement of knowledge 5. Operational techniques and knowledge
Christou & Eaton (2000)	Hotel managers	1. Manages guest problems with understanding and sensitivity 2. Demonstrates professional appearance and poise 3. Develops positive customer relations 4. Strives to achieve positive working relationships with employees 5. Possesses needed leadership qualities to achieve organizational objectives
Kay & Russette (2000)	Managers	1. Recognising customer problems 2. Maintaining customer satisfaction 3. Listening skills 4. Managing customer problems with understanding and sensitivity 5. Developing positive customer relations
Kriegl (2000)	Graduate students	1. Cultural sensitivity 2. Interpersonal skills 3. Managerial flexibility 4. Adaptive leadership 5. Motivation and interest
Nelson & Dopson (2001)	Hotel executives, hospitality human resource specialists, and alumni	1. Identify and solve managerial problems 2. Demonstrate leadership abilities 3. Control costs effectively 4. Develop positive customer relationships 5. Adapt the organization to meet customer needs
Agut, Grau & Peiro (2003)	Hotel and restaurant managers	1. Technical managerial competency needs: computing, languages, economic–financial management. 2. Generic managerial competency needs: job performance efficacy, self-control, social relationships
Chung-Herrera, Enz & Lankau (2003)	Industry leaders	1. Ethics and integrity 2. Awareness of customer needs 3. Time management 4. Speaking with impact 5. Commitment to quality
Wood (2003)	Hospitality recruiters	1. Leadership 2. Employee Relations 3. Other: Problem Resolutions 4. Staffing 5. Employee Training 6. Guest Services 7. Managerial Communications
Kay & Moncarz (2004)	Lodging professional groups and alumni	(Knowledge, skills and abilities) 1. Human resources management 2. Financial management 3. Marketing 4. Information technology
Gursoy & Swanger (2004)	Hospitality business industry professionals	1. Ethics 2. Leadership 3. preparation for industry employment 4. internships/industry experience 5. hospitality management and organization
Tsai (2004)	Lodging industry professionals, Hospitality Management academic educators	1. E.Q. such as emotional control and passion 2. Understand unique characteristics of lodging industry 3. Communicate efficiently (orally and in writing) 4. Demonstrate professional appearance and behaviors 5. Communicate efficiently across different departments
Gursoy & Swanger (2005)	Hospitality business industry professionals	1. Oral communication skills 2. Leadership skills 3. Understanding of profit and loss statements 4. Good work habits 5. Customer service skills
Ogbeide (2006)	Senior students	1. Ability to work independently 2. Giving direction and guidance to others 3. Gaining new knowledge from everyday experiences 4. Maintaining a positive attitude 5. Supervising the work of others
Raybould & Wilkins (2006)	General managers, human resource managers and operations managers	1. Deal effectively with customers' problems 2. Maintain professional and ethical standards in the work environment 3. Operate effectively and calmly in crisis situations 4. Demonstrate empathy in dealing with customers 5. Demonstrate listening skills
Tesone &Ricci (2006)	Practising managers	1. Ability to work as part of a team 2. Effective listening, verbal and written communication skills 3. Ability to project a professional image 4. Knowledge of grooming and professional image standards 5. Ability to empathize with the guest experience

continued on following page

Table 1. Continued

Authors	Informants	Skill/skill set item
Kim (2008)	Hospitality managerial employees	1. Willing to perform 2. Good general knowledge 3. Works effectively in team work 4. Individual attributes 5. Achieves high levels of task 6. Works effectively in team work
Cheung, Law & He (2010)	Hotel managers and Graduate students	Hotel managers: 1. Leadership 2. Industry knowledge 3. Communication skills Graduate students: 1. Communication skills 2. Industry knowledge 3. Interpersonal skills
Li & Wang (2010)	Hotel management; first level supervisor personnel	1. English fluency 2. Communication and coordination abilities 3. Japanese fluency 4. Time and EQ management 5. Capacity for independent learning
Ricci (2010)	Lodging managers	1. Ability to be caring and empathetic with guests 2. Takes personal pride in satisfying the needs of others 3. Knowledge of basic terminology used in the lodging industry 4. Has the tendency to seek out positive solutions as to avoiding negative outcomes 5. Knowledge of the realities involved in this type of work
Harkison, Poulston & Kim (2011)	Managers of accommodation operations and students	Industry: 1. Personality 2. Initiative 3. Communication Students. 1. Knowledge and experience 2. Specific skills 3. Personality
Spowart (2011)	Senior students and graduate students	Before graduation: 1. Customer services 2. Ability & willingness to learn 3. Teamwork & cooperation 4. Self-control 5. Organizational commitment After graduation: 1. Ability & willingness to learn 2. Customer services 3. Concern for order, quality and accuracy 4. Initiative 5. Self-confidence
Conradie (2012)	Third-year students	1. Working with others 2. Ethical behaviour 3. Passion for the service industry 4. Adaptability and learning 5. Critical reflective thinking
Wang & Tsai (2014)	Senior hospitality students and industry managers	1. Food safety 2. Communication and networking 3. Quality control 4. Team building 5. Relation building
Razak, Shariff & Zainol, (2016)	Human resource managers, general managers and other managerial posts	1. Commitment to high performance 2. Develop effective working relationship 3. Ability to adhere to standard operating procedures (SOPs) 4. Develop positive customer relations 5. Demonstrate listening skills
Bello & Kamanga (2019)	Hospitality employees	1. Customer service 2. Communication 3. Hospitality marketing 4. Accounting/budgeting/financial management 5. Cost pricing of good 6. Health and safety
Fraser (2019)	Hotel managers	1. Leadership and influence 2. Decision making/decisiveness 3. Customer and people orientation, service commitment and positivity 4. Oral communication 5. Ethics, values and integrity
Quinn & Buzzetto-Hollywood (2019)	Faculty, staff, hospitality industry stakeholders, and students of Hospitality & Tourism Management	1. Participates as a Member of a Team 2. Serves Clients /Customers 3. Works with Cultural Diversity 4. Exercises Leadership 5. Allocates Money
Silva, Correia & Oliveira (2019)	Tourism and Hospitality students and Alumni	1. Consider customer needs when making decisions 2. Operate effectively and calmly under pressure or in crisis situations 3. Act courteously and respectfully 4. Employ a team approach to solve problems when appropriate 5. Develop adaptation responses to unexpected changes

emphasis organizations have today on superior levels of customer service as a key competitive advantage" (p.45) - a trend identified as early as 1987 by Tas, LaBrecque and Clayton (1996).

Also, the fact that foreign language skills sit uncomfortably within the Sandwith's Technical domain suggests a need for a further domain such as Culture/Language Competencies - as posited by Nilsson (2018).

Students' expectations regarding the relative importance of skills tend to be realistic (Raybould & Wilkins, 2005; 2006), and there seems to be unanimity around the importance of soft-skills, among which interpersonal/communication skills are perhaps the most notably unanimous. There are, however, areas of disagreement or mismatches, on the whole and in the hospitality sector specifically.

Most of the literature delves into mismatched expectations of both industry and educationalists (Al-safadi & Abunafesa, 2012; Chung, 2000; Green & Erdem, 2016; Jaykumar, 2018; NER, 2012) and seeks to identify discrepancies regarding curriculum design and what the industry thinks should be included (Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009). A comparatively smaller body of literature can be found regarding the skills that future employees (current students and young graduates) believe their employers will require.

Some studies suggest there is a difference in how skills are ranked (DuPre & Williams, 2011; Griffin, Cangelosi, McMurtrey & Lyons, 2017; Saunders & Zuzel, 2010) and that, despite a level of agreement, students tend to rank hard skills higher than employers, who value soft skills such as problem-solving, teamwork or communication (Kavanagh & Drennan, 2008; Kim, 2008; Raybould & Wilkins, 2006).

For example, Kim (2008) and Harkison, Poulstona and Kim (2011) found significant discrepancies between students' views of knowledge and skills which do not match the relevance given by employers to personality. Raybould and Wilkins (2005; 2006) found discrepancies in students' ratings of information management, conceptual and analytical and oral communication skills, which they ranked higher than employers.

Mismatches may also occur regarding how soft-skills are rated. For example, Kim (2008) found that students rate communication skills higher than employers, who prefer personality for career advancement, and Griffin et al. (2017) found that students ranked collaboration 13th and creativity 15th among 15 skills, whereas creativity and collaboration were part of the five top-rated skills on the employers' wish list.

Other gaps regard students' self-perceived efficacy and the employers' requirements. For example, DuPre and Williams (2011) found a mismatch between what employers rated as most important and the students' self-perceived preparedness, which they reported being consistently low on all of the employers' top-five requirements, i.e., 1st communication, 2nd work ethics, 3rd problem-solving, 3rd teamwork, 3rd initiative, 4th analytical, and 5th flexibility/adaptability.

Gaps also extend to students' beliefs and expectations. Regarding the value of formal education vs. experience, Kim (2008) found that students value education more highly than employers, specifically in that they believe that formal education (BA or BSc) trumps three years' industry experience; that a degree warrants better starting salaries and will fast-track their career in hospitality.

The identification of any gaps of any nature between students or graduates' expectations, beliefs and assumptions and those of hospitality employers can be used to improve, adapt or completely transform hospitality education and hospitality curricula.

Our study attempts to contribute towards a better grasp of key skills required by the hospitality industry, and of where or when graduates procure those very skills.

Gathered from the hospitality graduates' perspective, these skills are grouped according to the classical framework with which this chapter starts: hard and soft skills. Being the one with which our respondents are more familiar, it is also the simplest, most flexible and widely used competency framework.

Table 2. Rankings of skills under the conceptual-creative domain

Ranking	Conceptual-creative domain
1st	Problem identification and communication Identify and solve managerial problems Good general knowledge Knowledge and experience Consider customer needs when making decisions
2nd	Knowledge of strategic positioning Understand unique characteristics of lodging industry Industry knowledge Decision making/decisiveness
3rd	Innovation Other: Problem Resolutions Gaining new knowledge from everyday experiences Knowledge of basic terminology used in the lodging industry
4th	Adaptation to environmental changes and procurement of knowledge Adaptive leadership Critical thinking Adaptability and learning
5th	Adapt the organization to meet customer needs Knowledge of the realities involved in this type of work Critical reflective thinking Develop adaptation responses to unexpected changes

METHODOLOGY

This study uses a quantitative methodology having a transversal, descriptive and correlational nature to answer the research questions "what are the most valued skills in hospitality?".

The objectives of the study were to characterize the skills needed in hospitality, especially hard and soft skills deemed important by hospitality graduates. A quantitative, transversal and descriptive study was performed in order to achieve these objectives.

According to the literature review, two main hypotheses were formulated:

H1 - There is a significant relation between the more important hard skills and the hard skills obtained with the graduation;
H2 - There is a significant relation between the more important soft skills and the soft skills obtained with the graduation.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was constructed for this study, with 69 questions organised in four sections. The first section had 12 socio-demographics questions; the second section, with 19 dichotomous questions aimed to evaluate the important skills for hospitality. The third section, 19 dichotomous questions about the skills obtained upon graduating; the fourth section had 19 dichotomous questions about the skills obtained after graduation. The socio-demographic section has questions such as: age, gender, qualifications, employment status, professional experience…organised in nominal, ordinal and scale variables.

Sample

A convenience sample was composed of 100 recent graduates, of both genders (68 females and 32 male), with a mean age of 25.58 years (SD=5.97), 93% (n=93) were single, and 88% (n=88) had a bachelor degree and 12% (n=12) had a master's degree. 87% (n=87) of our sample were employed and 80% (n=69) of these jobs were in the hospitality sector. 70% (n=70) consider the possibility of working in a foreign country. Our sample had, in mean, 1,2 (SD=.84) jobs since their graduation and they took 14 months (SD=8) to get a job.

Procedure

After the questionnaire was elaborated and validated, it was applied. For the dissemination of the study an e-mail was sent, presenting the study, its objectives and a link to the online questionnaire to all the graduates of Hospitality and Tourism School in North of Portugal.

Data were collected from January to September 2018.

After the application of the questionnaires, a database was built using IBM SPSS, version 25 and all the answers were inserted. After entering the data, we proceeded to its analysis.

The first analysis phase was the descriptive analysis, i.e., the maximum and minimum were calculated for all variables, and central tendency measures and dispersion measures namely mean and deviation standard for interval variables, median for ordinal variables, and mode and frequencies for nominal variables.

Regarding the hypothesis analysis, Chi-square tests were performed to test both hypotheses in the second phase.

The confidence level used was 95%. All ethical procedures were followed during the research.

RESULTS

According to the main results, the most important skills in hospitality, namely hard skills are marketing (n=64, 64%), management and economics applied to hospitality (n=68, 68%), "table and bar service" (n=72, 72%), and reception (n=78, 78%). Additionally, the most valued soft skills are autonomy (n=82, 82%), communication (n=72, 72%), responsiveness (n=65, 65%), working under pressure (n=74, 74%), and problem-solving (n=76, 76%) as observed in Table 3.

Regarding the skills obtained upon graduation upon completion of the degree, as observed in Table 3, the most important hard skills are "table and bar service" (n=80, 80%), reception (n=70, 70%), management and economics applied to hospitality (n=56, 56%), and housekeeping (n=50, 50%). On the other hand, the most important soft skills obtained upon completion of the degree are autonomy (n=65, 65%), communication (n=60, 60%), responsiveness (n=69, 69%), working under pressure (n=80, 80%), problem-solving (n=80, 80%), team work (n=60, 60%), leadership (n=60, 60%), customer orientation (n=70, 70%).

As for the skills obtained after graduation, the most important hard skills are restaurant (n=80, 70%), reception (n=65, 65%), "table and bar service" (n=60, 60%), and foreign languages (n=55, 55%). The most important soft skills obtained after graduation are autonomy (n=54, 54%), communication (n=70, 70%), working under pressure (n=70, 70%), problem-solving (n=76, 76%), team work (n=75, 75%), leadership (n=54, 54%), customer orientation (n=60, 60%), as observed in Table 3.

In order to test our hypothesis, several Chi-square tests were performed. Therefore, in our sample there are no significant relation between the most important hard skills and the hard skills obtained upon graduation, namely marketing (X^2=9.216, ns), management and economics (X^2=14.028, ns), "table and bar service" (X^2=5.327, ns), reception (X^2=11.216, ns), housekeeping (X^2=7.983, ns), restaurant (X^2=21.029, ns), foreign languages (X^2=5.326, ns), software (X^2=12.223, ns). Similarly, there is no significant relation between the most important soft skills and the soft skills obtained upon graduation, namely autonomy (X^2=23.009, ns), communication (X^2=17.891, ns), responsiveness (X^2=13.456, ns), problem-solving (X^2=14.756, ns), team work (X^2=15.892, ns), critical thinking (X^2=10.681, ns), customer orientation (X^2=10.986, ns), leadership (X^2=8.98, ns), flexibility (X^2=15.122, ns), time management (X^2=16.676, ns).

Table 3. Descriptive results of the skills: the most important skills in hospitality, the skills obtained upon graduation, and skills obtained after graduation

	The most important skills in hospitality		**Skills obtained upon graduation**		**Skills obtained after graduation**	
Hard skills	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Marketing	35	35	45	45	35	35
Management and economics applied to hospitality	36	36	56	56	36	36
Table and bar service	60	60	80	80	60	60
Reception	65	65	70	70	65	65
Housekeeping	45	45	50	50	45	45
Restaurant	70	70	65	65	70	70
Foreign languages	55	55	67	67	55	55
Software	55	55	25	25	45	45
Soft skills	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Autonomy	82	82	65	65	54	54
Communication	72	72	60	60	70	70
Responsiveness	65	65	69	69	49	49
Working under pressure	74	74	80	80	70	70
Problem-solving	76	76	80	80	76	76
Team work	49	49	60	60	75	75
Critical thinking	20	20	15	15	20	20
Leadership	44	44	60	60	54	54
Costumer orientation	46	46	70	70	60	60
Flexibility	30	30	25	25	30	30
Time management	18	18	15	15	5	5

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Soft skills are presented in most studies obtained in literature as the one receiving more attention by academics, students and professionals, and there seems to be unanimity around the importance them. The conceptual-creative domain skills start being presented as very important skills for hospitality stakeholders, namely the ones related with creativity, innovation, problem solving and communication, knowledge and experience, and customer orientation when making decisions. This kind of competencies are in line with the characteristic of hospitality sector since it is a very information-intensive sector, where digital skills become even more important.

As mentioned, literature show some gaps between students and employers' perceptions of most important skills, and the lack value that employers give to formal education.

Therefore, there are some future research opportunities in comparing the perceptions of employees, employers and customers of what are the most important skills in hospitality sector. The customer vision of skills needed in hospitality sector, as nowadays customers are more demanding and focus personal experiences, would bring some lights the most important competencies in this sector.

Moreover, research in hospitality curricula can be made, analysing how they respond to soft skills needs of the sector, including students and educators' perspectives.

CONCLUSION

The study results suggest that recent graduates perceive both hard and soft skills as important for hotel functions. The most important hard skills perceived as needed by the graduates of this study are related with more operational tasks, like Restaurant, Reception, Table and Bar service, Foreign languages and Software. The hard skills perceive as less important are Marketing and Management and economics. We can justify this perception of participants with the fact of being recent graduated employees, and with few professional experiences, where the work experience is likely to be in more operational functions then management related. It worth to notice that the most important hard skills perceived upon graduation and after graduation are almost the same, except for Software that is the less skill obtain with the graduation, and on the other hand, the skills of Marketing and Management and Economics are more obtain then the perception of its importance by graduates. This gives some insights about the importance perceived by graduates of digital skills to perform their functions in hospitality sector and, perhaps, the lack of this skills in hospitality curriculums. In the literature only the work of Kay & Moncarz (2004) had mentioned the importance skill of "Information technology" by professionals and Alumni. In the globalized and in constant changing that companies are facing, digital skills are very important, so it seems that there is a lack of research studies of this more technical skill, specially considering that Costumer Orientation in one soft skill identified as important and nowadays it costumer relationship is, most of the times, mediated by Information and Communication Technology.

In line with literature, the soft skills are perceived as more important (then technical) by graduates. This can be explained by the few experience of the employees of this study, that have more present the hard skills obtain with the graduation and giving some insights to higher education institutions about the need of integrating soft skills their hospitality curriculums. Moreover, literature identifies Leadership and Interpersonal competencies as the most important, but in this study the most important soft skills perceived are the ones related with personal competencies, namely Autonomy, Problem-solving, Working under pressure, Communication and Responsiveness. It worth to notice that Team work is not perceived as a very important skill but it is the most obtained competency after graduation, this is in line with literature identifying Interpersonal competencies as one of the most mentioned need.

These results underline the importance of ensuring that undergraduate programmes not only integrate several technical dimensions, but also promote the development of soft skills throughout the entire course of studies. Understanding the perspective of other players such as employers, professors or customers is paramount if we are to have a sound grasp of the phenomenon.

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Chapter 6
Gender and Tourism:
Female Leadership in the Hotel Sector

Denise Salvador
Senac Ceará, Brazil

Zélia Breda
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5882-063X
University of Aveiro, Portugal

Filipa Brandão
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9323-4572
University of Aveiro, Portugal

ABSTRACT

An increasing number of women occupy positions in the labour market that were previously restricted to men. This is, however, still limited by the dual roles of working women. This chapter aims to address gender issues in the tourism industry. Specifically, it focuses on female participation in the labour market, highlighting the characteristics of women in leadership positions. A case study approach was used, focusing on female leaders in the hotel sector in Fortaleza, Brazil. An exploratory qualitative study was developed through semi-structured interviews, which aimed to gather data on the career path of female leaders. The collected data allowed understanding how these women reached top-level positions, and their leadership styles. Results indicate that early entry into the labour market, dedication, education, entrepreneurial skills, and dynamic personality are instrumental and work directly affects family relationships, being the cause of some problems in their personal lives.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch006

INTRODUCTION

Gender relations have been debated from a variety of perspectives, and studies in this regard have become increasingly relevant. Women and men should be treated fairly according to their needs. This may include equal treatment or unequal treatment, but equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities (UNWTO & UN Women, 2011).

Despite the achievement of prominent places in various sectors of society, women still face problems. Structural barriers, including discriminatory laws and institutions, limit women's options to pursue their careers (UNWTO, 2019). Culturally, their role is established by the obligations of motherhood, marriage, the maintenance of home and family, and the preservation of moral values (Costa, Bakas, Breda, & Durão, Carvalho, & Caçador, 2017). There are, therefore, several factors that push women away from the labour market or, when they do not, hinder their progression (Costa, Bakas, Durão, & Breda, 2015; Costa, Durão, Bakas, Breda, Carvalho, & Caçador, 2015).

Work, like other human phenomena, relies heavily on gender. Certain divisions persist, such as the thought that there are "women's jobs" (Strey, 2007). There is a pre-established view on female roles in the labour market and it is observed that they generally focus on activities derived from traditional roles such as domestic services and sewing, childcare and sick care, among others (Instituto ETHOS, 2004). Such functions are marked by the subservience, affection and empathy of the professionals, characteristics seen as markedly feminine. "This is because gender roles are so deeply embedded within people's subconscious that they are taken as the 'norm' and hence not questioned" (Costa et al., 2017, p. 69).

Although there are many barriers to women's progress in the labour market, women have been gaining ground as they occupy more and more jobs in different areas and across different sectors of the economy (Costa, Durão et al., 2015). Considering the evolution of female participation in the global market, there is also an increase in the number of women who hold positions that were previously restricted to men, and that they can occupy leadership positions (Costa, Bakas, Breda, & Durão, 2017). However, this development has been limited, to a large extent, due to the dual role of women, who spend more hours than men in housekeeping and parenting, despite the fact that both have jobs outside the home (Costa, Carvalho & Breda, 2010).

Another major barrier to women's progress in management remains the gender stereotype and the pre-existing belief in a male-based form of management (Veras, 2009). Women's representation is still tied to traditional images, which constrain not only the way employers see women, but also the way women see themselves. Assuming managerial roles may be considered by some women to be non-feminine and not suited to their "nature" (Costa et al., 2010).

This issue of gender relations and the labour market is particularly relevant for the tourism industry, which is one of the major drivers of the economy and the labour market, as it generates income and employment, and interacts with local and global constructions and with conditions of gender relations. Studying gender relations and their influence in the tourism industry is of fundamental importance, however, the literature on this subject started to develop since the mid-1990s and early 2000s (Hall, Swain, & Kinnaird, 2003; Kinnaird & Hall, 1994, 1996, 2000; Swain, 1995; Swain & Momsen, 2002).

Studies demonstrate that in most regions of the world, women comprise the majority of tourism professionals, who tend to occupy low-wage jobs or are in an underemployment situation, and still do a significant amount of unpaid work in family-owned businesses (UNWTO, 2019; UNWTO & UN Women, 2011). Tourism jobs tend to be dead-end jobs, offering few chances of career progression (Hemmati, 2000; Costa, Caçador, Breda, & Carvalho, 2015). Therefore, the nature and conditions of the employment should be considered, since it often reinforces inequalities (Jordan, 1997). Men tend to dominate the top-ranked professions and women may suffer specific discrimination, with leadership positions being denied to them (Kinnaird & Hall, 2000; Hemmati, 2000). Thus, it is a sector with a marked horizontal and vertical gender segregation (Hemmati, 2000; Costa, Carvalho, & Breda, 2011).

The labour market in Brazil's tourism sector employed 2.34 million people in 2017, corresponding to 2.6% of the total accumulated formal jobs in the country (WTTC, 2018). The hotel industry is a labour-intensive segment with a large representation in the tourism sector (MTur, 2011). Bearing this in mind, this research is conducted due to the need to better understand the specificities of gender issues in this market. This chapter aims to identify the path taken by women in leadership positions in the hotel sector in Brazil, highlighting the barriers, as well as key factors that allowed them to occupy such positions.

FEMALE LEADERSHIP IN ORGANISATIONS

Female leadership is a current topic, as women's presence in leadership positions is increasingly acknowledged. According to Northouse (2008), previously the issue was whether women could take a leadership position or not, now being discussed whether there is a different style and effectiveness of leadership between men and women.

If we apply the belief-building system about professional development, it can be concluded that people develop psychological and social expectations about the characteristics that are appropriate to different work activities and jobs. Many associate the idea that a good leader has the characteristics of masculinity (Barberá Heredia & Ramos Lopez, 2004). According to Turner (2008), a true leader is the one who has the wisdom to know what are the male and female attributes that work best in a given situation.

The military, bureaucratic and authoritarian model of the nineteenth century was created by men and for men. However, since the World War II, the number of women in the labour market has more than tripled, diversifying the scenario (Souki, 2010). With the massive entry of women into the labour market, from the 1950s until the mid-1970s, there has been a gradual emergence of women in business activities and management positions (Moller & Gomes, 2010). The interest in gender and leadership began in the United States in the early 1970s, when women slowly began to seek and enter into businesses' management and universities (Blessing, 2011).

As Souki (2010) points out, in North America, women start businesses twice as fast as men. The changing composition of the labour market, with the massive presence of women, also changes the style of leadership. These are changes that begin to reflect a gradual evolution of the female situation. In fact, the presence of women in leadership positions was, at the beginning of the 21st century, exceptional and a minority, resulting in almost no public visibility (Barberá Heredia & Ramos Lopez, 2004). It is still rare to find women in senior positions associated with political power or the economic world (Nogueira, 2006). The less visibility of women in the public domain is still a recurring theme and a problem felt in most sectors of the society.

The study of Zenger and Folkman (2012) reveals that most leaders (64%) are still men, and the higher the hierarchy position the more men exist. In this group, 78% of top managers were men, 67% at the next lower level (i.e., top executives reporting directly to top managers), and 60% at the management level below that. In the same study, the authors point out that, at all levels, more women were considered, by their peers, bosses, direct subordinates, and other associates, as better global leaders than their male counterparts.

Bearing this in mind, Northouse (2008, p. 302) raises the question: "Why are women underrepresented in the elite of leadership positions?". Barberá Heredia and Ramos Lopez (2004) discuss the existence of the "glass ceiling" in organisations, which somehow limits and hinders the full development of women's careers, especially when comparing them with male's career progression. For Carli and Eagly (2001), the "glass ceiling" in organisations is a form of prejudice against female leaders and those who are potential leaders, interfering with their ability to gain authority and influence.

Many are the factors who shape the image of female leaders and that comprise the career of women in general. For example, the female mentality itself, which is conditioned by the prevailing social system, is constrained by certain value judgments or by self-indulgence. According to Amorim (2009, p. 17):

Some consider that the problem of female progression does not lie in this barrier, but rather in the fact that women are simply not willing to give up a certain lifestyle, valuing their personal rather than professional life, privileging family and emotional balance.

Prejudice, barriers, and problems are major constraints, but fortunately, to some extent, they cannot exceed women's ability to lead. According to the American Psychological Association (2006),

[…] while men and women are equally effective in some settings, more often effectiveness depends on the fit between the setting and management gender. […] A 1995 review by Alice Eagly, PhD, Steven Karau, PhD and Mona Makhijani, PhD, of more than 80 different studies found that when aggregated over the organizational and laboratory experimental studies in the sample, male and female leaders were equally effective.

But what are the characteristics of women as leaders? Teixeira (2001) highlights that the most striking expressions of female leadership are generosity, harmony, ability to communicate with the group, ability to lead more participatively, cooperatively and less leader-centred, negotiation and problem-solving skills based on empathy and rationality. In the study of Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Van Engen (2003), results suggest that female leaders predominantly adopt a transformational style and male leaders adopt a markedly transactional style. Women pay more attention to subordinates, offering more rewards for appropriate behaviour (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Parker and Matteson (2006) comment that women work in group, share information, place cooperation above competition, conversely to men. In general, men react with a different behaviour to such situations. Barberá Heredia and Ramos Lopez (2004, p. 149) mention that:

From a gender perspective, male power is exercised over dependent and subordinate people. Contrary to male power, female power […] is established as a service, a power for and by the group, much less personalized, but in accordance with democratic and participatory principles.

Despite the characteristics that make women stand out in the labour market, Amorim (2009) comments that women's weaknesses can be, for example:

- They react badly to their female colleagues' success. The fact that few reach top positions makes the promotion more desirable and envied. While men cooperate with each other, women compete more with each other.

- The fact that they are more communicative leads women to share more of their private life. Some experts argue that talking about personal life weakens the image of women.
- The fact that women's mind is busy with many parallel issues, i.e. family and household, makes that they often do not focus on developing their ideas. Men are more likely to concentrate on their work, precisely because they do not, usually, have this constant internal struggle between being a good father and a good professional.

Women are complex, and have several specific responsibilities, particular characteristics and are increasingly trying to stand out in society. Thus, society should find ways to value the positive features and soften the negative ones. There are many ways to insert women into the labour market and then move up to the top. A study by the Endeavor Institute, conducted with 52 entrepreneurs from companies with annual revenues of US $ 10 million, concluded that women (i) easily attract and retain talent without neglecting the delivery of economic results; (ii) are more innovative in the production process and in the implementation of new marketing techniques, human resources and team integration; and (iii) rely on their own intuition as a result of suggestions received or market perceptions.

Different genders have different styles at work (Veras, 2009). In the business context, it is up to managers to choose their leaders based on convictions linked to meritocracy, impartiality and on the knowledge of which characteristics of people fit the positions properly. However, there is not a purely male or female style, as men and women are equally effective (American Psychological Association, 2006; Veras, 2009). But the orientation towards diversity in companies is the focus of several studies, which conclude that the more women hold management positions, the more benefits companies have.

Existing studies acknowledge a great financial and social return that organizations have by promoting the development of women's careers. For example, the study "Women matter" (McKinsey & Company, 2017) reveals that:

- In companies where the Board of Directors have more women, the financial performance is higher than in companies where it is composed only of men.
- In terms of return on equity, companies with greater gender diversity outperformed in 47% companies with no women in executive committees.
- When evaluating operating results, companies with more women on their executive committees scored 55% better than the other group.

METHODOLOGY

This research adopts a methodological procedure that initiates by a literature review on the topics of women participation in society, specifically in the labour market and female leadership in organisations. It is emphasized that it was essential to develop this theoretical framework to create a structured knowledge base, which would allow the creation and application of tools for the empirical part of this work, which has an exploratory character. According to Quivy and Campenhoudt (1998), exploratory research allows broadening the perspective of analysis, revealing facets of the problem in which the researcher would certainly not have thought initially, and finally opting for an appropriate problematic.

As data collection tool, a survey was created, applied through the semi-structured interview technique. Information from documents, articles, and publications of the Gentour Project[1], as well as results from studies developed by Catalyst[2] and McKinsey & Company[3], were used as a basis for constructing the interview script. The script elaboration process emerged from the topics analysed in the literature review.

Female leaders were asked to respond to questions related to their opinion about the dynamics of the relationship between work and family life, their professional paths, the factors determining reaching leadership positions, and the main barriers to their progression. Their personal characteristics and leadership style were also addressed, as well as how they see the differences between male and female leadership. They were also asked about gender discrimination at work, their relationship with superiors and subordinates and, finally, their opinion about the characteristics of work in the hotel sector.

The interviews were conducted at the interviewees' workplace and had an average length of 30 minutes. The content of the interviews was transcribed, and subsequently analysed according to the following stages: (i) reading and organization of data; (ii) selection of topics (synopsis); (iii) data analysis.

The interview technique, being a qualitative research method, generates data that should be treated in a very specific and detailed way, since it deals with verbal and not quantitative contexts. Thus, content analysis was defined as the data analysis technique, which consists of a "set of techniques of analysis of communications aiming to obtain by systematic procedures and objectives of description of message content" (Bardin, 2002, p. 38). The place occupied by content analysis in social research is increasing, not least because it deals methodically with information and testimonies that have a degree of depth and complexity (Quivy & Campenhoudt, 1992).

Considering the size of the tourism industry and the multiplicity of sub-sectors comprising it, this research was delimited to the hotel sector, and the city of Fortaleza, Ceará State in Brazil, was defined as the geographical research area. The procedure defined for the selection of the interviewees followed essential criteria. Initially, a consultation was held with the Brazilian Hotel Association of Ceará (ABIH-CE), to identify, within the entire hotel industry of the city of Fortaleza, which hotels have female leaders. ABIH-CE provided a list of 63 associated hotels in the state of Ceará, of which 34 had a woman in leadership roles, ranging from managing director to owner. From this total, only the hotels located in the city of Fortaleza were selected and 27 hotels were considered for the study. Initially, the contact

Table 1. General information about the hotels

Interview	Type of management	Total number of employees	Employees gender	Leadership poistions by gender	Top leader
1	Independent	315	Mostly women	Half occupied by women	Woman
2	National chain	62	Mostly women	Mostly women	Man
3	Independent	13	Mostly women	Mostly women	Man
4	International chain	181	Mostly men	Mostly women	Woman
5	Independent	70	Mostly women	Mostly women	Woman
6	National chain	144	Mostly men	Mostly men	Woman
7	International chain	81	Mostly men	Mostly men	Woman
8	Independent	53	Mostly women	Mostly women	Woman
9	Local chain	123	Mostly women	Mostly women	Woman
10	National chain	42	Mostly women	Mostly women	Man
11	National chain	73	Mostly women	Mostly women	Woman

Source: Own elaboration

was made via e-mail, however, due to the lack of answer from some hotels, telephone contact was also made. The interview was applied to 11 women who demonstrated availability to participate in the study. Table 1 presents general information about the hotels regarding the type of management, the number of employees, and the gender of employees and top leaders.

Table 2 includes a characterisation of the interviewees, regarding their position, time in the position, age, academic degree and background, social class, marital status, and number of children.

Table 2. General characterisation of respondents

Respondent	Position	Time in job	Age	Academic degree	Academic background	Social class	Marital status	Number of children
1	General manager	19 years	70	Higher education	Mathematics	Upper	Married	5
2	General manager	20 years	62	Higher education	Economics / Hospitality management	Middle	Married	2
3	General manager	1 year	44	Higher education	Accountancy	Middle	Single	0
4	General manager	7 years	33	Higher education	Management	Middle	Married	0
5	General manager	6 years	50	Higher education	Hospitality management	Middle	Divorced	4
6	General manager	10 years	45	Higher education	Tourism / Humanities	Middle/low	Divorced	0
7	General manager	3 years	27	Higher education	Hospitality management	Upper	Married	2
8	General manager	9 months	29	Higher education	Tourism	Middle	Single	0
9	General manager	2 years	27	Higher education	Tourism	Middle/low	Single	0
10	General manager	6 years	45	Higher education	Management	Middle	Single	0
11	General manager	9 years	39	Higher education	Management	Middle	Married	1

Source: Own elaboration

The interviewees occupy the position of general manager of the hotels. The time spent in leadership roles[4] indicates that three respondents are in the job for over 10 years, and eight are up to 9 years in the job market or in management positions. As for age, the sample is segmented in two groups: from 27 to 39 years old and from 44 to 70 years old. All interviewees have a higher education degree. Regarding the social class (defined according to income), most of the interviewees belong to the middle class. Regarding the marital status, five are married, four are single and three are divorced. The majority of the interviewees have no children.

Women's Participation in Leadership Positions in Hospitality Industry: The Case of Fortaleza, Brazil

This section presents the analysis of the data collected during the interviews with women who hold leadership positions in the hotel sector of the city of Fortaleza, Brazil. The analysis is based on sociodemographic and professional variables, such as: age, marital status, number of children, academic background, type of hotel management, experience and length of time in leadership positions.

PERCEPTIONS ACCORDING TO SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Age

The analysis was conducted dividing the respondents in two groups: one aged 27-39 and the other, 44-70 years old. Both groups mention the difficulty in reconciling work and family. They mention that work consumes much of their time and admit that they dedicate more time to work than to family. In what concerns the professional paths, the younger interviewees started their careers in hospitality, while the older ones had initial experiences in different sectors, but the career progress was achieved in the hotel industry. For younger women, experiences in grassroots positions in hotels were important factors in building leadership and, in common with older women, they refer the dedication and commitment to work, as well as the search for better positions as key factors for achieving leadership roles.

In terms of barriers, older women address communication constrains, whether for being shy, or for the lack of knowledge of foreign languages. Younger women do not feel constraints. However, they highlight the complexity of the job and the low wages, while the older reveal to be satisfied with their income and feel safe in their positions.

As for personal profiles, these groups are similar because they consider themselves dynamic, communicative, innovative and determined. Older leaders comment that leadership is a natural aptitude, and for some of the younger ones, it is seen as a skill acquired through experience in their positions.

All women define their leadership style as participatory, but some are more authoritarian. Younger women report that relationships with subordinates still trigger their emotional structures, and to that end they try to be firmer in delicate situations. The older ones consider themselves demanding and, for knowing the hotel processes, can impose greater respect and still be a good example for everyone.

When asked about the differences in leadership practices, the respondents believe women are more affectionate, careful, organized, while men are practical, strict and authoritarian.

The younger women comment that gender discrimination does not occur objectively, as they have never suffered anything incisive; older women generally have not experienced this type of discrimination, but there is an isolated case of discrimination by hotel customers or partners. There are no exclusive policies to support women, but there is special attention to their needs.

For younger people, relationships with superiors are carried out in cooperation, and sometimes it is necessary to adapt to the styles of their bosses. The older ones claim to have an excellent relationship with their bosses and still consider them as a reference.

Opinions about the characteristics of work in the hotel industry converge on the same points: long working hours, and complexity of interpersonal relationships (the hotel industry is particularly special as it deals with the motivations and satisfactions of both customers and employees). In what concerns the investment in their careers, younger women focus on training and the older ones also address it, including also the possibility of changing working areas.

Marital Status

For married and divorced women, it is difficult to reconcile family with work. In the case of the former, they report that they had support from maids to facilitate work-life balance; for divorced women, work was the reason for the end of marriage. Single women do not mention direct interference in this relationship.

Regarding the factors that contributed to their leadership positions, married and divorced women comment on the dynamism and ambition they always had, as well as the opportunities offered by the companies in which they worked. Single women highlight the formal education and work experiences as determining factors for this evolution.

Regarding the barriers faced at some point in their careers, one of the married women commented about the loss of opportunities for not speaking English, and of the single group the shyness in expressing herself was pointed out as a negative factor that affected the progression.

Overall, the interviewees are satisfied with their position. Married leaders comment that their salary influence the degree of satisfaction. Divorced women are also happy because they have reached a phase of market recognition that allows them to determine their wages and work actions.

Leaders have similar profiles. They consider themselves are entrepreneurial, sociable, innovative, committed and accessible. For married women, the ability to be a leader is regarded as a natural skill, while single women reveal that it was a skill shaped by the demands of the job.

The type of leadership exercised by married women is more authoritarian, with divorced and single women having a participatory leadership style. As for how they exercise their leadership, married and divorced women have the same characteristics: they are rigorous, work transparently and offer support to employees. Single women are more involved with their work and their employees, but such involvement can make it difficult for them to impose themselves more firmly on their actions.

They all think that there are clear differences between male and female leadership, considering women more versatile and sensitive, and offering more security and support to subordinates. On the other hand, men are more pragmatic and sometimes apathetic. Gender discrimination has already been suffered for the divorced group.

They all report having a close relationship with their superiors and they are regarded as examples to be followed. Married leaders emphasize that their relationship with subordinates is based on rigour, and some compare this relationship with the one they have with their children. Divorced leaders bridge the demands of management and facilitate and support their subordinates. Single women emphasize the unity and respect on which they base this relationship.

Married women invest in the future through new academic backgrounds and talk about the possibility of company change. For divorced women there is the possibility of changing their area of expertise, but always committed to the development of current work. Single women also study to improve their careers and are open to change in general.

Children

Leaders who have children reveal that there is a significant amount of interference of work in their personal lives, and thus they feel guilty for not spending more time with their families. They believe that this damages relationships. The situation is mitigated when they are assisted by housekeepers or other help at home. For interviewees who do not have children, work is a priority.

The interviewees who are mothers began their careers at a young age and it was in the hotel industry that the professional progression occurred. Those who do not have children have also progressed in the hospitality sector, but have had experiences in leadership positions in other sectors.

For both groups of respondents, the factors that contributed to reaching the leadership position were the desire and determination for professional growth and the use of opportunities. Those who do not have children mention that training is an important factor as well. On the other hand, as barriers to career advancement, those who have children report the fact of not knowing a foreign language, while those who do not have children consider shy behaviour is a blocking factor. It is worth noting that having children is not mentioned as a barrier to professional growth.

When it comes to assess the current situation at work, both groups speak of satisfaction, and those who are mothers feel more relaxed due to accumulated experience. Those without children mention that the issue of financial remuneration is an important element for their satisfaction.

Leaders who are mothers are enterprising, bold and versatile, and women who have no children highlight practicality, organization and control as personal characteristics. The ability to lead, for respondents who have children, is a spontaneous trend in their personality, while those without children consider that such ability may also have been a reaction appropriate to the demands of work.

As for their leadership style, both groups classify it as participatory. In the group with children, authoritarianism is also considered as a form of work. The interviewees who have children reveal that they perform their duties firmly in their attitudes, enjoy teaching and training, and seek to be role models. For those who do not have children, they are committed to union with employees and are constantly seeking knowledge of work procedures so that they can better delegate and justify their high levels of demand. Interviewees generally comment that women's leadership is more sensitive and organized than that of men. Leaders without children point out that women are increasingly changing their personalities, making them firmer, to stay in the business market.

Regarding gender discrimination, women with children present more complaints. There are no specific internal policies directed at women in the hotels where the interviewees are leaders.

The relationship with superiors is considered significant because there is closeness. Interviewees who have children develop relationships with their subordinates more firmly, thus avoiding relationship problems, but they like to help them and work together. Those without children are also helpful and caring for their subordinates, and they see themselves as strong links between the company's wishes and the work of its subordinates.

Regarding the characteristics of work in the hotel sector, the complexity and almost total dedication of their lives to work are mentioned. Interviewees who do not have children still point out that the higher the position, the greater the time required.

Regarding the family versus work relationship, in general, the activity that the leaders exercise interferes with personal life and in the contact with closer family members. This is justified by the fact that there is more dedication to work than to family. The work directly interferes in the family relationship, as it demands a significant amount of time from the interviewees, who postponed the decision to have children. In other cases, dedication to work has affected the marital relationship, leading to divorce. This has already been identified in a previous study developed by Galinsky et al. (2003). In this research the authors found statements that indicated that women make more sacrifices to reach top positions and to maintain these positions. Probably it includes sacrificing the family relationship, among other aspects.

For those who are mothers, the solution is to resort to housekeepers, so that they feel more comfortable and less guilty. For single women, the notion that work can interfere with family life is clear.

The issue of dual working hours, personal and cultural conflicts that women face in their lives are real for this group of respondents, where dedication to work generates a series of unique reactions and behaviours. According to the Instituto ETHOS (2004), in Brazil, given the inadequacy of public policies and family support and childcare services, a mother is able to return work only if she can hire a housekeeper to perform house work and take care of her family in her absence.

Academic Background

Women who have an academic background in tourism point out that the relationship between family and work is not a problem. Their career path was made exclusively in the hospitality industry, where they performed several functions until reaching a leadership position. These women believe that having a vision of the future, seizing the opportunities offered by the company and their clear desire to progress professionally were the main factors contributing to reaching leadership positions. They do not identify any barriers to their progression. Their leadership style is based on the proximity to subordinates and on the construction of a confident image. However, they sometimes found difficulty in being respected.

To female leaders who have a background in other areas, the interference of work in family life is felt, and some mention that work comes before family, especially those who have a background in tourism and in other area as well. The fact of having two degrees seems to suggest that they invest significantly in their professional life. The entry into the hotel sector was directly to management positions, and they believe that wilfulness and the willing to learn were important elements of their progression. Additionally, the early entry in the labour market and the achievement of good results are fundamental factors mentioned by respondents who have two degrees. There are, however, some barriers, which are mainly communication problems. These leaders are more thorough and perfectionist and feel that subordinates are somewhat frightened by their stereotypical image. For those with two backgrounds, the treatment is done affectionately and are helpful in their functions. All of them emphasize that proximity is fundamental.

WOMEN'S MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP STYLES IN HOSPITALITY BUSINESSES

Type of Management of the Hotel: Chain vs. Independent Management

The comparative analysis of the family versus work relationship, for the groups of respondents who work in chain hotels and for those who work in independent hotels, reveals that there is a great interference of work in family life, because the dedication to work eventually prevails and take more of their time.

For both groups, the professional trajectory occurred in a mixed way, where some had experiences in other areas, others had experiences in various positions until reaching leadership positions, and for all the effective progression occurred in the hotel industry. The factors contributing to career progression are the search for better positions and the excellence of the work performed. Those who work in chain hotels also mention the fact of these firms offering these opportunities.

Chain hotels' leaders identify as main barriers for progression the lack of knowledge of foreign languages. They evaluate that the current work situation is stable, that the salary is an important factor for satisfaction, and they claim to need recognition. The profile of leaders in chain hotels is characterised by versatility, independence and accessibility. Developing the ability to lead was natural, as they already had a more dominant personality. The type of leadership is essentially participatory, but they demand excellence in the services provided and required, and are happy to teach their co-workers. The relationship with subordinates is cooperative, with proximity and transparency in actions. These women consider themselves as important links between top-level management and the needs of subordinates.

The leaders of independent hotels mention the communication difficulties and inhibition in early career as main barriers for progression. They believe that their mastery of their work is a condition of work satisfaction and feel well recognized for their performance. Their leadership profiles are characterised by control and domination, entrepreneurship and intellectuality. They believe that leadership as a skill can be intrinsic or developed due to work needs and lived experiences, and take their actions more rigidly but excel in the care and respect of people. Only independent hotels' leaders feel gender discrimination at work, but even so, very rarely.

Regardless of the type of hotel, all women feel there is a difference in leadership styles between men and women. Managers in chain hotels believe women have more refinement in dealing with people and are more relaxed, while men are more authoritarian and closed. For the interviewees of independent hotels, female leadership has an advantage in the hotel industry, because women can better reconcile the various activities, while men are more logical and accurate.

In what concerns future plans, all women mention the growth possibilities in the industry, both within the companies they work for and outside. They are open to change. As a personal investment in their careers, they all claim that study and keeping updated are paramount.

Experience in Leadership Positions

Women who have only one experience in leadership positions mention that the problems deriving from family-work balance have a lower impact than those who have larger experience. This last group, with two or more positions as leaders, claim that they have made significant sacrifices due to work, and thus the impact is more deeply felt.

The trajectory in the labour market is similar for both groups in terms of time spent in the hospitality industry (longer than in other areas where they have worked for), and in the professional progression that occurred in the hotel sector. For those with a single experience as leader, they have worked in other areas and occupied other positions in hotels. For those with more than two experiences as leaders, the entrance in the hotel sector has already been in leadership positions.

As factors contributing to reaching the leadership position, both groups highlight the incessant search for better positions in the market, the use of opportunities and the intellectual and professional skills. Among the main factors that promoted their career ascension, it is noteworthy that these leaders started early in the job market, but also the dedication, the efforts to progress and the ambition for better positions were decisive. It should be noted that the management structure of the hotels in which they work or worked could also provide them with good opportunities.

Barriers to career advancement are only mentioned in the group of leaders who have more than two experiences and are related to the way they express themselves and lack of mastery in a foreign language. Concerning the barriers that emerged during the progression, the factors highlighted are communication problems (shyness, inhibition) at the beginning of the career and the lack of knowledge in a foreign language, which is relevant in the hotel sector.

In terms of personal assessment of their leadership style, both groups believe they are demanding, encouraging and motivating for their teams and recognize that they must be highly up to date with hotel procedures.

Opinions about female versus male leadership styles are similar, as respondents say women are more detailed, emotional, protective, and considerate. The opinion about men is that they are more rational, spontaneous and authoritarian. Interviewees from the group who have more than two experiences claim to prefer female leaders. All female leaders believe that their leadership skills are innate and present in any situation of their lives, both social and professional.

Overall, in terms of profile, the analysis indicates that the respondents are dynamic, innovative, intellectualized, determined, approachable, enterprising, sensitive, and dominant. These characteristics are confirmed by the study of the Endeavour Global Institute (2011), which points out that women find it easier to attract and retain talent without neglecting the economic results, they are more innovative, more integrated, have larger intuition, and a more accurate market perception. The interviewees also highlight that women are more affectionate, committed, sensitive, empathic, dynamic, considerate and responsible. As for men, leaders feel that they still have more authoritarian profiles, are sometimes aggressive, more pragmatic, less emotionally involved, and independent in their actions. In the case of the hospitality industry and its features, women believe that female leadership is better and more adequate, as they can make a hotel feel like a home for guests, being more hospitable. In addition, they maintain a good performance while doing several things at the same time. These women appear to have a transformational leadership style, where women are more caring for people, emotional, have long-term vision, among others (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & Van Engen, 2003; Northouse, 2008).

Gender discrimination is not predominant in their professional daily life, that is, the fact of being a woman does not produce discomfort before the subordinates. It is emphasized that, in the tourism sector, "employment is mostly female", so employees should already be adapted to interact with female leaders (Costa et al., 2011). Some of the women mentioned that discrimination problems result from interaction with suppliers or other external partners. It is possible this kind of discrimination because power and gender relations in tourism are reflections of society and, as societies are unequal, signs of discrimination may appear (Kinnaird & Hall, 1996). However, the hotels in which these leaders work mostly have more women than men as employees, including in the top management. This reality may be a mitigating factor in the perspectives of discrimination and prejudice, which can be confirmed by Warren (2009), who mentions that when there is diversity in leadership teams (gender, culture, ethnicity), the management system is more balanced, although alternatively when a demographic group predominates at the top, the system is much more vulnerable to an exclusionary perspective that reflects the values of the smaller group.

The relationship with the superiors, for both groups, occurs in a friendly way and they report that the work is always done in partnership, closeness and cooperation. It is interesting to note that there is adaptation of respondents to the behaviour of superiors. Overall, their superiors (current and past) are strong supporters of their careers, were and are role models, although they are more comfortable with female leaders.

Relationships with subordinates, for those less experienced in leadership positions, are based on constant verification and they feel they are more rigorous and firmer. Those with more leadership experience speak of the unity and individualized treatment they offer to their subordinates. Overall, relationship is based on cooperation and participation.

The characteristics of hotel work represented the convergence of opinions regarding this intense dedication, as the demands of hotels consume their lives. Due to this problem, they consider the possibility of changing the area where they work.

CONCLUSION

Current literature on gender relations points that, despite prevailing inequalities, global thinking has evolved, and discriminatory and exclusionary attitudes are increasingly fought. However, there is still a long way to go to achieve equal opportunities. Women face greater difficulties in terms of political participation, career advancement, wage appreciation and freedom of expression.

Due to lack of social visibility and erroneous stereotypes of the image of women, organizations and projects that support the female cause have been created. The United Nations (UN) stands out as one of the largest organizations that develops and promotes actions, through UN Women, for the improvement of women's lives. However, regardless of the efforts made, the general lack of basic support structures for women in society reflects negatively in the business environment. Women are increasingly present in the global labour market, but there are still many barriers to their free career advancement and equal competition with men.

This study addressed issues related to leadership, highlighting female participation in top-level positions. Barriers such as the 'glass ceiling', specificities, qualities and leadership styles were analysed. The transformational characteristic that leaders employ in their actions are highlighted, which is seen as one of the great potential differentiators of the male leadership style, which can still represent greater oppression and authoritarianism.

The results obtained through interviews with female hotel leaders in the city of Fortaleza, Brazil, are important for understanding how they reached leadership positions, how they deal with the various actors in their lives and how they exercise their leadership.

It was found that work interferes directly in the family relationship, being the cause of various problems in their personal lives, and such interference, for single women, is less impactful.

It is observed that the interviewees achieved professional progression in the hotel sector, being the sector favourable to their careers. Although leaders with a background in tourism are those who started working in the lowest positions and found it difficult to be respected, this may be justified by the devaluation of professionals with specific training in the area.

The security provided by academic background and intellectual skills is one of the points mostly mentioned by the respondents, and this is valued as a key factor for their career progression. Fortunately, barriers to this progression were few and, regarding gender discrimination, it is not felt for most interviewees. Isolated cases were observed within the total sample.

A striking feature of this group is that they consider the ability to lead a natural vocation. As much as the demands of their duties led them to improve coordination of people and projects, respondents generally see leadership as one of their personal qualities. It is noteworthy that leaders consider themselves to be modern, accurate, intellectual, sensitive, dynamic, affectionate and enterprising people. The leadership style identified in this group is transformational, which is in line with the literature on female leadership. This is reflected in the relationship with their subordinates, where they use as much participation as possible, creating a more democratic and friendly environment.

It is interesting to note the relationship that the interviewees have with their superiors. There is proximity and, beyond that, they are considered examples to be followed. This is probably due to the fact that these women had strong support for the development of their careers.

Working in the hotel industry, for these leaders, is considered complex because they deal with people and their needs and expectations, being necessary dedication and availability. They are generally satisfied with their position. What determines this is the level of recognition, good relationship with employees and customers, and salary compensation compatible with the heterogeneity of their duties.

Some of the factors that made these female leaders progress and differentiate themselves in the labour market were highlighted, such as starting to work very young, dedication, way of working, personality, efforts to progress and ambition. In addition to these factors, it is evident that the hotels' management structure provided them with support for them achieving leadership positions. In chain management hotels, there are better structures for women.

In summary, the trajectory of these female leaders went through a series of actions that determined their progress and achievements. Overall,

1. The beginning of their careers happened at a young age;
2. They always sought for and had an ambition for better positions;
3. Education and knowledge are essential for them to do their jobs better and to have more credibility;
4. They feel they should be sensitive to discover new methods and projects in their work;
5. They need to have confidence and willingness to take on new roles, change company, city, etc.;
6. It is necessary to balance work with family and personal lives, which are greatly interfered;
7. There is the need of verbalization of needs;
8. They acknowledge that particular female characteristics do not need to change according to the positions occupied;
9. Having bosses who support their career development is a big driver;
10. The hotel sector promoted this development of their careers;
11. Knowing how to engage employees and let them participate in decisions is significant to keep teams motivated and confident;
12. They recognize and establish their market values.

This study makes a contribution to the literature on the development of women's careers in the hotel sector. By knowing how these women have reached leadership positions and how they conduct their jobs, it provides tools for other women to make their careers towards top-level management.

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ENDNOTES

1. Research project "Towards the improvement of women´s skills in the tourism sector: Profiting from the vertical mobility for ethic and economic purposes", funded under the protocol between the Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology (FCT) and the Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality (IGC), and co-funded by the European Union (EU).
2. Non-profit organization founded in 1962 that promotes opportunities for women to expand in the labour market. It has offices in the United States, Canada, Europe, and India.
3. Multinational company, founded in 1926, in the management consulting area.
4. Time spent on current employment or in management positions in other companies.

Chapter 7
The Impact of Intellectual Capital on Financial Performance of Hotel Companies

Raquel Matos
Polytechnic Institute of Beja, Portugal

Sandra Bailoa
Polytechnic Institute of Beja, Portugal

Fernando Teixeira
Polytechnic Institute of Beja, Portugal

ABSTRACT

Although difficult to measure, intellectual capital (IC) is an essential resource for improving financial performance of companies. The hotel industry is characterized by being fundamentally a service provider, and is therefore very dependent of the IC components. Due to the small number of studies that relate IC with hotel sector, this research aims to understand the relationship between IC and financial performance of hotel companies. The sample is made up of 40 Portuguese companies in period between 2011 and 2017. To measure IC value was adopted the VAICTM model, a quantitative method that uses financial data. As representatives of the financial performance, the authors used the indicators of profitability: ROE, ROA, and ROI. The results prove that IC has a positive relationship with the financial performance of companies. Human capital proved to be the variable that has a greater impact on the variables of profitability, confirming the strong influence of human potential in hotel companies.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch007

INTRODUCTION

In last decades the ability to generate wealth is no longer exclusively associated with traditional factors of production such as labour or natural resources, and thus, there is an increasing importance attributed to intangible factors of production, such as information, Intellectual Capital (IC) and knowledge. The development of Knowledge Society allowed the emergence of scientific fields as is intellectual capital.

Several authors had analysed the impact of Intellectual Capital on corporate financial performance but few have studied this relationship in the hotel sector. This sector depends not only on physical structures, such as buildings and infrastructures that allow customers to have a quality stay, but it is also very dependent on factors inherent to Intellectual Capital. It is a service sector that is very dependent on the intellectual capabilities of its human resources, who, being in direct contact with customers, are the ones who ensure the provision of services to customers in accordance with their expectations and requirements (Bañuls et al., 2006). Hotels are organizations that possess intellectual capital resulting from the knowledge and skills of employees, processes and systems, and customer relationships (Zeglat & Zigan, 2014).

The objective of this work is to analyse the impact of intellectual capital on the financial performance of companies in the Portuguese hotel sector. It is intended to verify whether there is a positive relationship between the value of the intellectual capital and the value of the financial profitability indicators, used in this study as representative variables of financial performance.

Firstly, a review of the literature on the subject of Intellectual Capital and on the hotel sector in Portugal was carried out, and then, the financial data relating to companies in the sector was collected. The data were treated statistically, and the relationships between them were analysed. With the financial data, the value of Intellectual Capital was also determined, obtained using the Value Added Intellectual Capital Coefficient model (VAIC™). The financial performance of companies in the hotel sector was represented by some of the financial profitability indicators most used by company managers, namely Return on Equity (ROE), Return on Assets (ROA) and Return on Investment (ROI). In order to analyse the relationship between the variables under study, it was decided to the use of Linear Regression Models (MRL) obtained through the statistical software SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

The current paper is structured as follows: first it is presented the theoretical framework on the concept of IC; this is followed by a discussion of current research on the relationship between IC and the performance of hotel companies; then it is described the methodology used namely the model and method used in this research; this is followed by the results of the empirical research and finally, it is presented the conclusion which includes suggestions for future research.

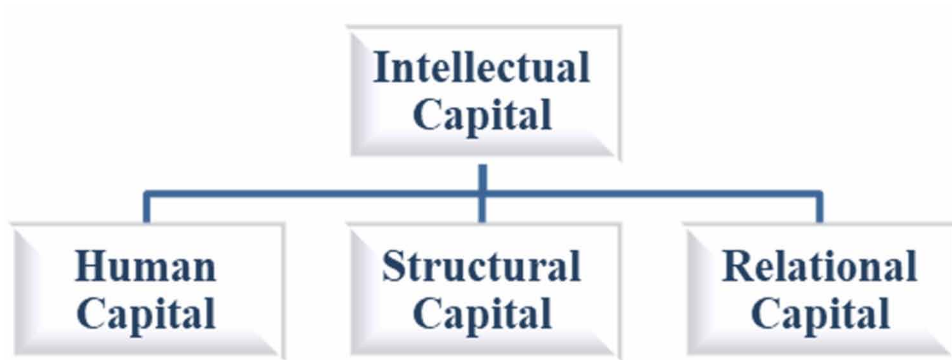
INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL

IC is a research area that is associated with the development of Knowledge Society and therefore the valuing of knowledge as an economic resource. The Knowledge Society is defined as the society where knowledge is translated into the main strategic resource of wealth and power, for companies and countries (Davila & Silva, 2008). It differs from the Industrial Era by the greater importance attributed to intangible assets in deterioration of tangible assets (Antunes & Martins, 2012). In an increasingly competitive economic environment, knowledge has become a differentiating resource and creator of competitive advantages (Stewart, 1998).

Klein (1998) states that the IC of companies is their knowledge, experience, specialization, and several intangible assets, instead of their physical and financial tangible capital, which increasingly determines their positions competitive. Over the years, several authors have contributed to the definition of IC, from which aspects such as knowledge, capacity and experiences stand out. They associate IC with the value of knowledge, which in turn translates into intangible assets. For Edvinsson & Malone (1998) the best way to understand the role of IC is through a metaphor. They suggest that if we think of a company as being a tree, the visible parts (trunk, branches and leaves) represent the company as shown in its financial statements. The fruits produced by the tree represent the profit of the companies, and everything that is under the ground, such as the roots of the tree and the quality of the soil, represent the hidden value, that is, the IC. The tree needs to be nourished by strong roots that allow it to flower and produce good fruit, in the same way, it is necessary that companies invest in IC, in order to strengthen the intangible assets that allow the company to obtain good financial results. For Stewart (1998), IC is the sum of the knowledge of the individuals of a company, being its main factor of competitive advantage. It differs from other assets with which managers and accountants are familiar, such as material assets, properties and financial capital. IC comprises all knowledge-based resources that can create value for the organization, even if they are not included in the financial statements (Pablos, 2004).

Edvinsson & Sullivan (1996) consider IC as knowledge, which through ideas, innovations, projects or computer programs; can be converted into value for the company. As shown in figure 1, they divide IC into three components: Human Capital (HC), Structural Capital (SC) and Relational Capital (RC). Thus, in order to be able to identify their IC, companies must focus on their human resources, on the company's structure and on the relationships it establishes, whether internal or external (Stewart, 1998).

Figure 1. Components of IC
Source: Adapted from Codeço (2008)



HC is the one which is incorporated into individuals. Correspond to the set of benefits that can be created for companies, through the use of personal characteristics, exclusive of each one. Edvinsson & Malone (1998) define HC as all the capacity, knowledge, skill and individual experiences of workers. They also add elements such as creativity, capacity for teamwork and interpersonal skills, leadership, proactivity, etc. This capital belongs to employees and is used for the benefit of the company. However, it is not owned by the company, since, if a certain employee leaves the organization, the elements that make up HC leave with him. As Stewart (1998) says, HC is what employees take home at the end of the workday.

SC consists of a set of knowledge, not human, that belong to the company. It is independent of workers, so, unlike HC, it remains in the company, even after the workers leave. It consists of intangible assets related to the company's structure and internal and external operating processes, such as technologies, brands, software, patents, innovations, data, publications, strategy, culture, systems, routines and procedures (Antunes & Martins, 2012).

SC is the pillar of the company itself, which involves its organizational capacity, including administrative planning and control systems, processes, policies and even the company's culture. It is the organizational capacity to transmit and store knowledge. According to Saint-Onge: "HC is what builds SC, but the better your SC, the greater the chances that your HC will be better" (Edvinsson & Malone, 1998, p. 32).

RC, also called "Client Capital", refers to the company's relationship with external agents, such as customers, suppliers, shareholders, regulatory bodies, among others. It also refers to the relationships established between the organization's employees. RC is constituted by the knowledge applied in the interactions with the companies' stakeholders (Cabrita, 2009). For Stewart (1998), RC is the organization's most valuable intangible asset, as it refers to ongoing relationships with the people and organizations to which companies sell their goods and services, without which there was no way to earn income.

IC is the result of the combination of HC, SC and RC, rather than the performance of each one individually. HC creates, develops and enhances SC, which in turn allows HC to carry out its tasks more efficiently and more quickly. In addition, RC is only possible thanks to the action of HC.

The deðnition of IC is often associated to the difference between the company's market value and its book value (Pablos, 2003; Pulic, 2008).

This perception is based on the fact that the reports provided by financial accounting do not fully reflect the reality of companies. Despite the awareness that IC is a valuable resource to organizations, there is still no possibility to include IC in balance sheets and financial statements. In order to overcome this failure different models have been developed which assume that financial indicators are necessary but insufficient in analyzing the performance of an organization and must be complemented by IC indicators.

In the literature it is possible to find several models, however, there is still no uniform and universally accepted measurement model, intensifying the resistance, by accounting and management, to the recognition, measurement and disclosure of IC in its financial statements.

In order for companies to effectively manage their IC and maximize their potential for value creation, it is essential, not only its identification and evaluation, but also its measurement. Kaplan & Norton (1997) even claim that what cannot be measured, cannot be managed. Measuring and recognizing the value of IC has the advantages of increasing the informative potential of accounting, the appropriate allocation of resources for investments in HC and SC and an easier choice for investors (Martin, 2004). The assessment of IC allows companies to define their strategies, helping to identify their main skills and the best resources to use to take advantage of opportunities. The evaluation of the performance indicators of IC, contribute for companies to evaluate their strategies, at the same time that execute them (Marr et al., 2003).

Numerous studies have been conducted in search for methodologies to improve intellectual capital management. It is possible to find a multiplicity of intellectual capital management methodologies especially coming from the business area where were produced the first models. Some popular models of intellectual capital management are the following examples: Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1992), Skandia Navigator (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997), The Intangible Assets Monitor (Sveiby, 1997); VAIC^{TM} (Pulic, 1998), among others.

INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL AND THE HOTEL INDUSTRY

The hotel industry is a fundamentally service provider sector, characterized by the high contact between the company and the customer. The components of IC, especially HC and RC, are decisive factors for the image that customers will have of the company and for its success in the market in which it operates.

The tourism industry depends a lot on the quality and motivation of its human resources, especially at the hotel level, where, due to seasonality factors and high employee turnover, human resources management faces the biggest challenges. It is essential that hotel companies include in their strategies, the focus on training and developing their human resources to promote the provision of quality services (Pimentel, 2016).

Laing et al. (2010) refers that the measurement of the performance of organisations in the hospitality industry has traditionally focused on financial ratios such as ROI and in the hotel sector the focus has been on more specific issues such as occupancy rates. According to Laing et al. (2010) the development of the knowledge economy and the fact that the hotel industry is largely dependent on human resources, information, marketing, information technology, research and development and among other resources means that traditional tools are not sufficient for better management and perception of the performance of organizations, with a greater pressure to use measures associated with determining the value of IC and its impact on the performance of organizations.

The importance that IC has for tourism sector and particularly on hotel industry justify the development of studies that link IC with the performance of hotel companies, such as Bontis et al. (2015), Laing et al. (2010), Lopes (2017), Khalique & Mansor (2016), Kim et al. (2012), Sardo et al. (2018), Zeglat & Zigan (2014).

Bontis et al. (2015) studied the Serbian hotel industry and find that employee productivity and, profitability were affected by HC and SC. On the other hand, Bontis et al. (2015) find that the financial performance of hotels in Serbia remains predominantly influenced by efficient use of physical capital.

Laing et al. (2010) examined the extent to which IC adds value to the Australian hotel industry. Laing et al. (2010) used VAIC^{TM} model and the results showed that the intellectual capital efficiency had steadily grown over the period observed and verified an evidence of a correlation between this indicator and the Human Capital Efficiency (HCE), which had also grown over the same period, suggesting that the reliance on HC is a key element of the business performance in the hotel sector.

Lopes (2017) found that hotel companies in Portugal still give a lot of importance to tangible assets, but demonstrate that they are starting to give value to intangible assets as well, making IC an essential tool for the financial growth of these organizations, which, by supporting factors such as knowledge, they begin to create competitive advantages among themselves, in order to become market leaders within the sector in which they operate. Lopes (2017) also applied VAIC^{TM} model and the results obtained show that IC contributes to financial performance of hotel companies, there were verified positive and significant effects with respect to the HCE indicator thus suggesting the need for companies to continue investing in HC. Lopes (2017) highlight that the Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE) indicator was the variable that demonstrated the highest impact on financial performance, which indicates the dependence of organizations on physical and financial capital.

Khalique & Mansor (2016) claim that IC has a significant and positive impact on the performance of the hotel industry in Malaysia. They also add that the results found demonstrated that the hotel industry needs to give ample emphasis to the development of HC, technological capital and spiritual capital, in order to improve business performance. The findings revealed that IC is an essential factor in creating value-added products and services in an organization.

Kim et al. (2012) found that SC and RC directly and positively affect the financial performance of hotels in Korea, while HC indirectly affects the financial performance of the hotel.

Sardo et al. (2018) analyzed the effect of IC on small and medium-sized hotel financial performance of Portuguese hotels. Sardo et al. (2018) found that the IC components had a positive impact on the financial performance of the hotels. HC and RC are very important for the quality of service in the hotel sector. On the other hand, HC and SC make it possible to create and maintain long-term relationships with the main stakeholders in the business.

Zeglat & Zigan (2014) found through its study that all dimensions of IC have a positive and significant impact on the business performance of Jordanian hotels and in particular, the SC.

Hotel Industry in Portugal

The hotel industry has been acquiring stability and financial autonomy, and is constantly evolving and specializing, with its contribution to the increasing of Portuguese economy. The growth that has been observed and the increase in the offer of accommodation, requires special attention on the part of managers, who in the face of increased competition need to obtain competitive advantages in order to maintain or improve their position in the market.

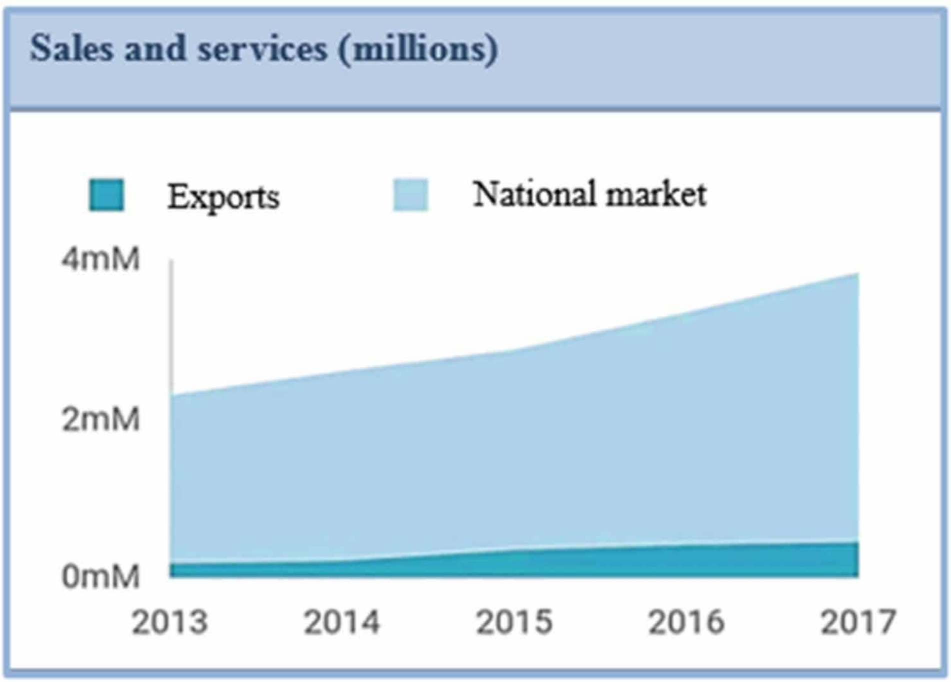
In Portugal, the tourism sector has shown significant growth, representing, in 2017, a contribution of 7.8% in the Portuguese GDP, and a large part of this growth is due to the hotel industry. Year after year, there is an increase in the supply of accommodation across the country. In July 2017, there was a 5.3% increase in accommodation capacity, compared to July 2016, exceeding the 4.9% growth seen in the previous year. The number of overnight stays in hotel establishments follows the increase in supply (Bank of Portugal, 2018).

Figure 2. Number of overnight stays in Portugal
Source: Sector Table (Bank of Portugal, 2018)

As shown in figure 2, overnight stays in hotels increased significantly in 2017 in all regions. In 2017, the Algarve, Lisbon and the Autonomous Region of Madeira continued to be the main destinations, representing 33.8%, 24.8% and 12.9%, respectively, of total overnight stays in Portugal (Bank of Portugal, 2018).

The increase in demand for stays in Portuguese hotel establishments also generates an increase in the sector's turnover. In the following figure, we can observe the evolution of revenues obtained from the sale and provision of services, between 2013 and 2017.

Figure 3.Evolution of sales and services provided in the hotel industry
Source: Sector Table (Bank of Portugal, 2018)

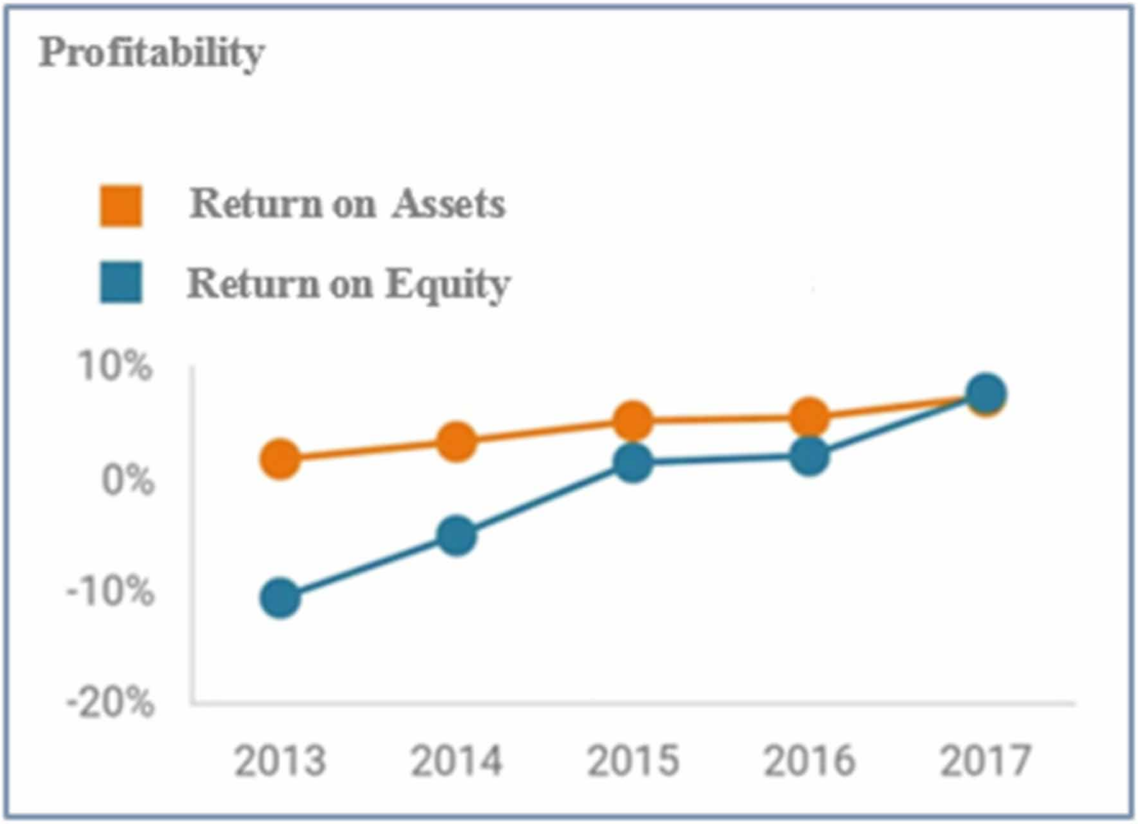


The financial data presented by Banco de Portugal and the National Statistics Institute, in relation to Portuguese hotel establishments, show that sales and provision of services have been increasing from year to year, with the domestic market being the main customer. Between 2013 and 2017 sales and services in the hotel industry almost doubled, leaving no doubt as to the potential revenue generator in the sector (Bank of Portugal, 2018 & National Statistics Institute, 2018).

In terms of financial profitability, figure 4 represents the evolution of the ROE and the evolution of the ROA, related to the hotel sector.

The ROE corresponds to the rate of return on capital invested by the partners (that is, Equity) and allows to evaluate the efficiency of the financing policies adopted by the companies. ROA allows you to measure the rate of return on investments in corporate assets.

Figure 4. Evolution of ROA and ROE in the hotel industry
Source: Sector Table (Bank of Portugal, 2018)



Thus, as well as sales and services provided, the value of profitability has shown a continuous increase over the years, portraying the improvement in the efficiency of investments made by companies and the concern with improving management practices.

METHODOLOGY

Through a literature review, it was found that IC is considered an intangible asset capable of generating value for companies, in any sector of activity. IC assumes an increasingly important role as a company's asset, and is nowadays a more important factor of production than physical means (Matos & Lopes, 2008). Lopes (2017) and Martins et al. (2013) consider that the relevance given to IC has been growing in all business areas, however it is verified that a clear and systematic relationship between the profitability of companies and the different components of VAIC™ has not yet been found. In this sense, due to the dispersion of results found in the literature on the topic, there was a need to verify the value of the IC and the way it influences the financial results of medium and large companies in the Portuguese hotel sector. The objective of this study can be summarized by the following question:

Does IC have a positive impact on the financial performance of companies in the hotel sector?

To answer the question, the first step will be to obtain the value of IC in the companies under analysis. In order to be able to measure the IC value, it was decided to apply the VAIC™ model. This measurement model indicates the value of the efficiency of the company's value creation, or the efficiency of IC, and the higher the value of the VAIC™ coefficient, the better the management and use of IC to create value in the company (Vaz et al., 2014b).

As we will see in more detail, when we develop the VAIC™ method, it consists of three components: HCE, Structural Capital Efficiency (SCE) and CEE. The application of VAIC™ allows not only obtaining the value of the efficiency of the IC, but also the value of the efficiency of each of its components (Martins et al., 2013). Thus, it will also be important to verify the relationship between the VAIC™ components and the company's financial performance, allowing verifying which one has the greatest and least influence on the results.

Financial performance indicators are essential tools for managing companies. They provide information about the company's financial situation, allowing ascertaining the efficiency of management practices. As a measure of financial performance, we opted to use the most common financial profitability indicators used in the business environment: ROE, ROA and ROI. These indicators are mainly related to the investments made and their profitability. In order to analyze the relationship between IC measured using the VAIC™ model and its components, with the financial indicators ROE, ROA and ROI, four research hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between IC, measured through VAIC™ and financial performance, represented by the ROE, ROA and ROI indicators.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant positive relationship between the VAIC™ components (HCE, SCE and CEE) and the ROE financial performance indicator.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant positive relationship between the VAIC™ components (HCE, SCE and CEE) and the ROA financial performance indicator.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant positive relationship between the VAIC™ components (HCE, SCE and CEE) and the ROI financial performance indicator.

Sample

Using the online platform called "Sabi", financial data were extracted from 60 companies with the main CAE 551 - Hotel Establishments, for the period from 2010 to 2017. In order to guarantee the homogeneity of the sample, we chose to include in the sample only medium and large companies. According to the Portuguese Decree-Law number 372/2007, of 6 November, it stipulates that medium and large companies are companies that employ more than 50 workers and have an annual turnover or annual balance sheet that exceeds 10 million euros. During the analysis of the data collected, it was found that some companies did not present information on the necessary variables, for the year of 2010 and because of that it was decided to remove from the sample all companies that did not present values in the year of 2010.Thus, it was decided to restrict our study to the period between the year 2011 and the year 2017. The final sample is then made up of a total of 40 companies in the hotel industry, medium and large, from all regions of mainland Portugal and Islands, in the period from 2011 to 2017.

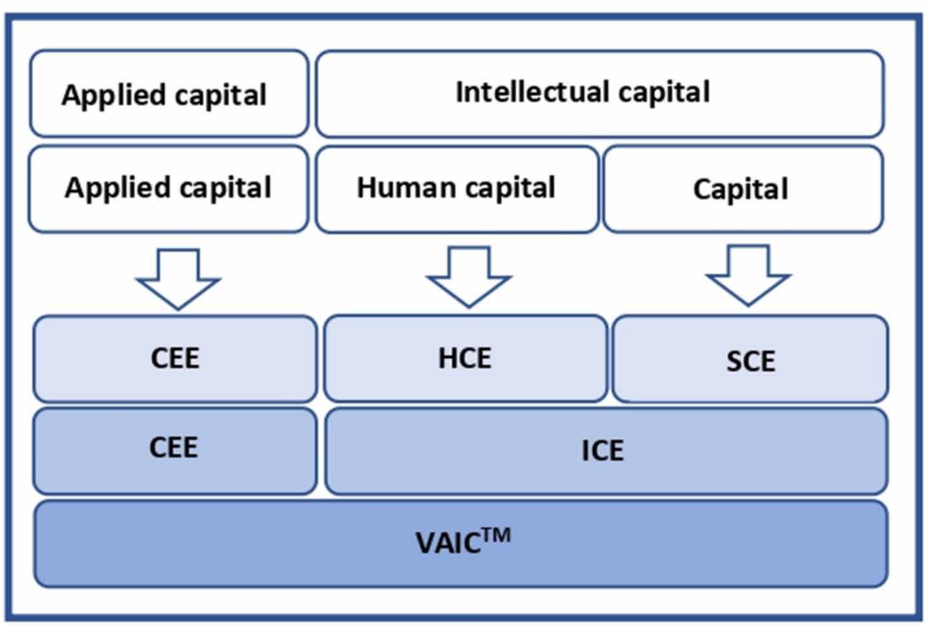
VAIC™ Model

In order to be able to measure the IC value, it was decided to apply the VAIC™ measurement model. The VAIC™ model was developed by Ante Pulic, an Austrian researcher, in 1998, as a way of measuring company performance. This model is considered a universal indicator that shows the intellectual capabilities of a company in creating value and represents a measure of the efficiency of companies' resources, in an economy where business success depends strongly on the intellectual potential of its human resources (Carvalho et al., 2017).

The VAIC ™ model has been used in several studies aiming to analyze the importance of IC in the performance of companies in different countries, for example Pulic (1998) in Austria, Laing et al. (2010) in Australia, Maji & Goswami (2016) in India, Smriti & Das (2018) in India, Shaban & Kavida (2019) in India, Kamath (2017) in India, Lopes (2017) in Portugal, Martins et al. (2013) in Portugal, Sherif & Elsayed (2016) in Egypt, Zhang et al. (2006) in China, Williams (2004) in the United States, Chan (2009a, 2009b) in Hong Kong, Mavridis (2004) in Japan, Zeghal & Maaloul (2010) in UK, Yilmaz & Acar (2018) in Turkey, Matinfard & Khavari (2015) in Iran, Bontis et al. (2015) in Servia. According to these studies their results suggest that the VAIC ™ model approach is adequate to measure IC and its components.

According to Pulic (1998), in the current economy, physical capital and intellectual potential are two essential resources in creating value. Physical capital comprises all financial resources, while intellectual potential is represented by the ability of employees to create value. The model calculates the efficiency of physical capital and intellectual potential, by calculating the added value (VA), the CEE, the HCE and the SCE (Carvalho et al., 2017).

Figure 5. Structure of the VAIC™ Model
Source: Adapted from Martins et al. (2013)

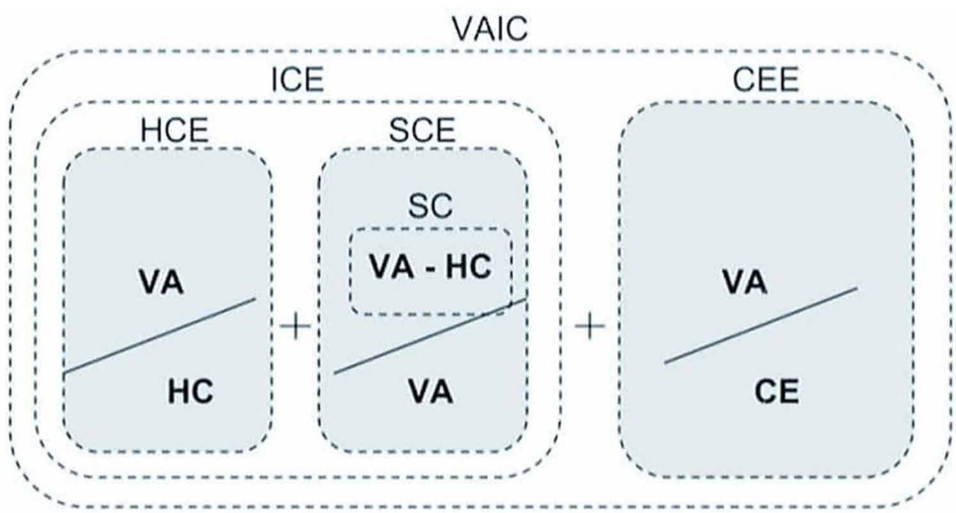


The calculation of the VAIC™ model follows some steps, but it is characterized by being relatively simple and objective. The various stages of calculating the VAIC™ model consist of identifying VA, calculating the HCE, calculating the SCE, and calculating the CEE. In his studies, Pulic (1998, 2000, 2004 e 2008) defines VAIC™ using the following formula:

VAIC™ = HCE + SCE + CEE

According to Pulic (1998), VAIC™ is calculated using the formula shown in the following figure. The VAIC™ calculation process consists of five steps.

Figure 6. VAIC™ Equation
Source: Adapted from Pulic (1998)



First, the VA must be calculated. The VA shows the company's ability to create value, that is, it shows the wealth created by the organization and which is fully distributed among stakeholders (Pulic, 2008).

VA = EBIT + Depreciation / Amortization + Personnel Expenses

Second, HCE is calculated. It is the measure of the efficiency of HC in the creation of VA. It translates into the amount of VA generated per monetary unit invested in labour (Martins et al., 2013)

HCE = VA / HC

Where,

HCE = Human Capital Efficiency;
VA = Value Added;

HC = Personnel expenses.

Third, SCE is obtained by the ratio between Invested SC and VA:

SCE = SC / VA

It represents the measure of efficiency of the participation of SC in the creation of value (Rodrigues, 2014). The SC is interconnected with the human capital employed, making SC to be calculated from the difference between VA and HC, taking into account the inverse relationship between both types of capital:

SC = VA – HC

Codeço (2008) said the greater the contribution of HC in VA, the lower the contribution of SC.

The fourth step consists of calculating the Intellectual Capital Efficiency (ICE) and the calculation of the CEE.

ICE = HCE + SCE

The calculation of CEE measures the efficiency of financial capital in the creation of VA (Rodrigues, 2014).

CEE = VA / (Total assets - Intangible assets)

Finally, the VAIC™ calculation ends with the sum between the ICE and the CEE:

VAIC™ = ICE + CEE

The main ideas of the VAIC™ concept conclude that human or knowledge potential is responsible for the success and performance of any company. Furthermore, it assumes that personnel expenses are a fundamental variable in the context with the calculation of VAIC™, considered as an investment and not as an expense. The higher the VAIC™ value, the greater the company's potential to use its IC (Pulic, 1998).

VAIC™ method is composed of three components: HCE, SCE and CEE, then its application allows not only obtaining the value of IC efficiency, but also the value of efficiency of each of its components (Martins et al., 2013). Thus, it will also be important to verify the relationship between the VAIC™ components and the company's financial performance, allowing verifying which one has the greatest and least influence on the results.

To evaluate the relationship between VAIC™ and companies' financial performance, certain indicators[1] are used, such as ROE or ROI or ROA.

ROE is the indicator most used by managers and investors, as it shows the ability of companies to generate results, through their own capital, or in other words, the profit that shareholders obtain from their investments (Neves, 2012).

ROE = Net income / Equity

ROI represents the rate of return on investments, identifying the financial return obtained by one or more investments, allowing the comparison between investments made. Relates the amount received to the amount invested, indicating as a percentage, the success rate of the investment (Neves, 2012).

ROI = Operating profit before taxes / Investments

ROA makes it possible to assess the profitability of assets held by companies, showing the level of efficiency in the management of these assets (Martins et al., 2013). The higher the ROA value, the more efficient is the use of companies' assets.

ROA = Operating profit / Total assets

Linear Regression

To study the relationship between the variables it was carried out linear regression analysis. It studies the relationship between a dependent variable Y and one or more independent variables (X1, X2, ..., Xp). The relationship is represented through a mathematical equation that describes the relationship between the variables. When the relationship that is intended to be obtained is only between the dependent variable and an independent variable, it is a simple linear regression. When it is intended to relate a dependent variable with two or more independent variables, it is a multiple linear regression (Rodrigues, 2012). Thus, to verify hypothesis 1, we will use simple linear regression, and for analysis of hypotheses 2, 3 and 4, multiple linear regression will be used.

The first step is to analyse the correlation between the variables. The correlation measures the degree of relationship between the variables. The values of the correlations between variables are obtained through Pearson's Correlation Coefficient, which measures the degree of linear correlation between quantitative variables, and whether the correlation is negative or positive.

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient assumes values between -1 and 1, where the value 1 means a perfect positive correlation between the two variables, the value -1 means a perfect negative correlation between the two variables, and the value 0 means that the two variables do not depend linearly on each other. The closer to 1 the Coefficient value is, the greater the degree of relationship between the variables (Rodrigues, 2012).

Another value to be aware of is "R square" (R2), which indicates the explanatory capacity of the model. The coefficient of determination or explanation R2 measures the percentage change in Y explained by the change in X. For multiple linear regression models, "adjusted R square" represents the multiple determination coefficient, which is a measure of the degree of adjustment of the multiple regression equation to the sample data. The reference values vary between 0 and 1, where R2 = 1 means a perfect fit. Values close to 1 represent a very good fit and values close to zero represent a weak fit.

Analysis and discussion of results

Descriptive Analysis

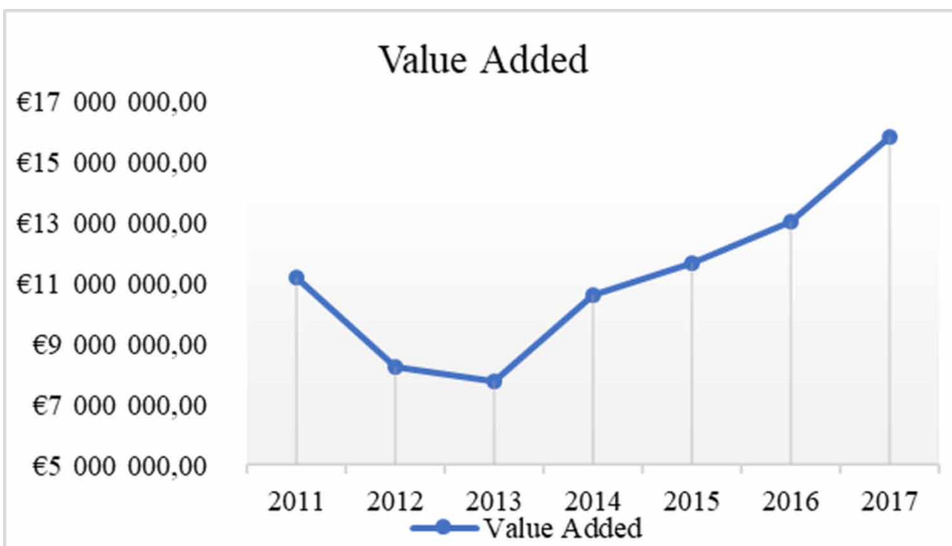
From the descriptive analysis of the data of the independent variables (VAIC^{TM}, HCE, SCE and CEE) the average values of each variable were obtained, and in order to allow a better interpretation and detailed analysis of the evolution of each variable, the data were represented in graphs.

In the calculation of VAIC^{TM}, one of the first steps is to calculate the Value Added (VA). As previously mentioned, the VA shows the company's ability to create value, or in other words, it represents the income created by the company.

Figure 7 shows the evolution of VA, presented in terms of average, in the sample of companies in the hotel industry between 2011 and 2017. VA registers a significant increase, year after year, starting in 2014.

Between 2011 and 2013 it was found that the VA decreased. This decrease can be justified by the fact that it occurred in the years when the economy was in reception due to the global financial crisis, which started in 2008 and reached Portugal with the greatest impact between 2010 and 2014.

Figure 7. Evolution of VA
Source: Authors

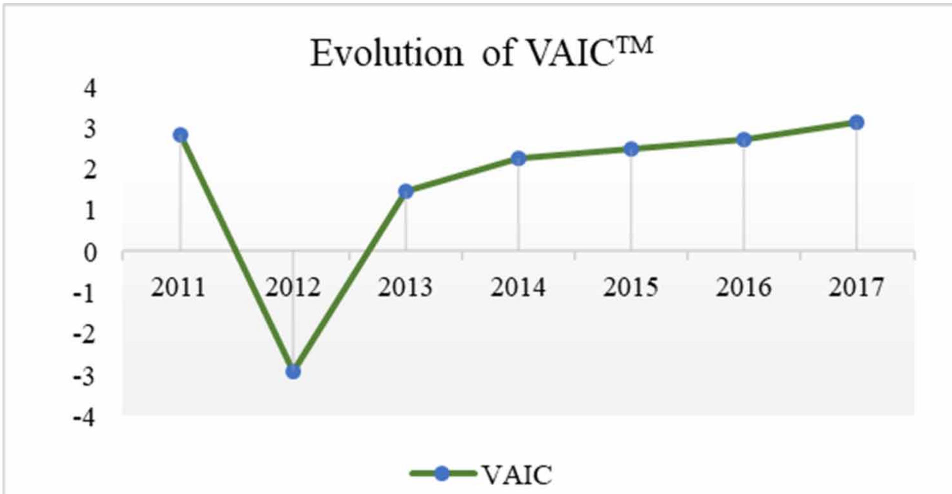


Like the Value Added, the VAIC^{TM} evolution chart shown in figure 8, shows a decrease in the first years under analysis. The VAIC^{TM} has a negative value in 2012, the result of a great decrease between 2011 and 2012.

In 2013, it registered a notable improvement, returning to positive values. As of 2014 there are no major fluctuations in value, but it increases year after year.

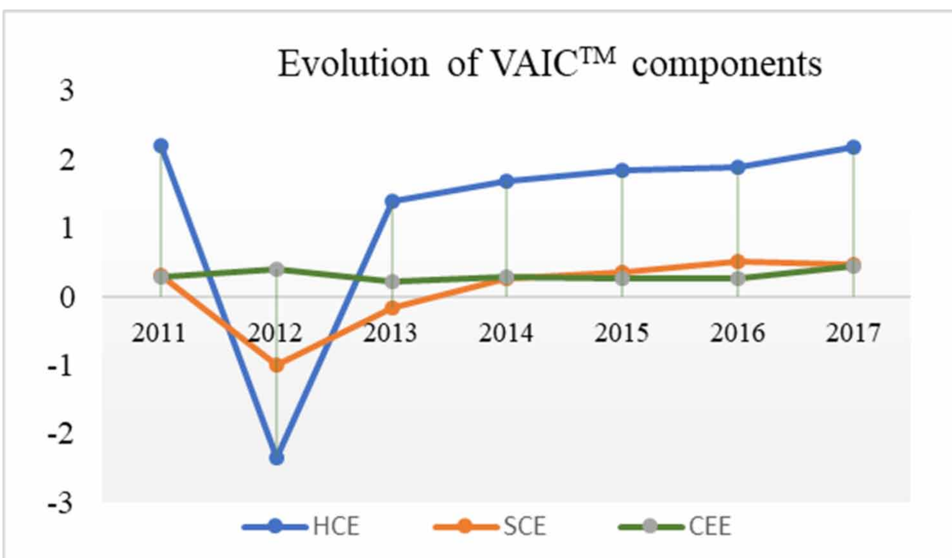
In figure 9, the evolution chart of the VAIC^{TM} components shows the enormous importance that HCE has on the VAIC^{TM} result of companies in the hotel industry. The curve shown in the graph presents the

Figure 8. Evolution of VAICTM
Source: Authors



same shape as the VAIC™ curve, that is, the values oscillate in the same way and practically in the same values, proving the enormous influence of this component.

Figure 9. Evolution of VAIC™ components
Source: Authors



Financial indicators follow the same pattern and show that the financial performance of companies in the hotel industry has been improving after the period of financial recession and its constant growth shows that companies have been gaining autonomy and improving their management practices.

Figure 10. Evolution of financial performance indicators
Source: Authors

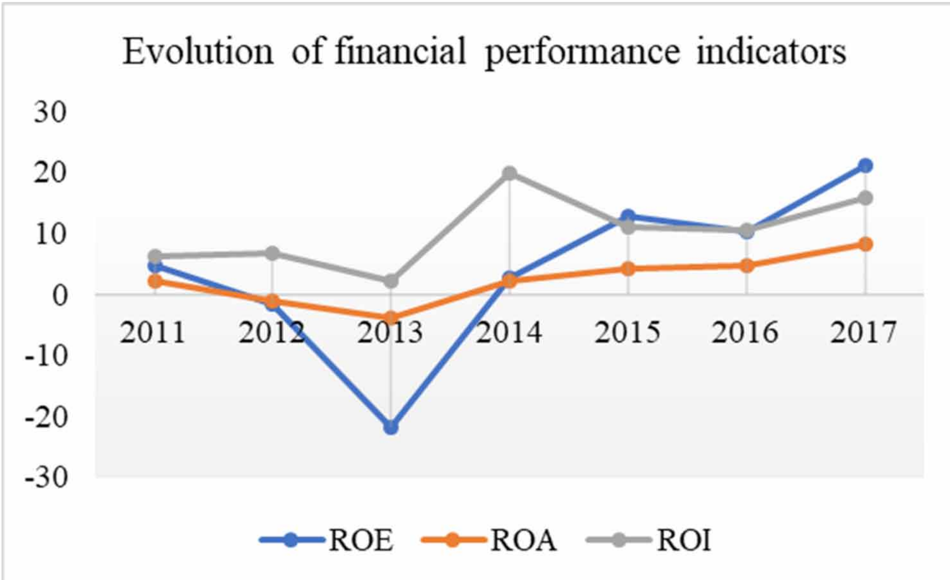


Table 1. Summary of the linear regression model

Dependent Variables	Linear Regression Model	
	Independent Variables	VAIC™
ROE	Pearson's Correlation	0,008
	Sig.	0,444
	R square	0,000
ROA	Pearson's Correlation	0,245
	Sig.	0,000
	R square	0,060
ROI	Pearson's Correlation	-0,044
	Sig.	0,232
	R square	0,002

Source: Authors

Linear Regression

To verify hypothesis 1, the independent variable VAIC™ was related to the dependent variables (ROE, ROA and ROI), that is, the financial indicators. The results obtained in the linear regression model are summarized in the following table.

The linear regression model showed that hypothesis 1 ("There is a positive relationship between IC, measured through VAIC™ and financial performance, represented by the ROE, ROA and ROI indicators"), only applies to the relationship between VAIC™ and ROA. The value of Pearson's Correlation Coefficient presents a very low value (0.245), but significant (sig <0.05). It appears that VAIC™ represents 6% of the total ROA variations.

The positive relationship between VAIC™ and ROE and ROI has not been proven, since the results have very low coefficients, 0.008 and (-0.044), respectively, and without significance, as sig> 0.05. Thus, this hypothesis is true only for the relationship between VAIC™ and ROA.

To verify hypotheses 2, 3 and 4, the independent variables VAIC™, HCE, SCE and CEE were related to the dependent variables, ROE, ROA and ROI. The multiple linear regression model is summarized in table 2:

Table 2. Summary of the multiple linear regression model

Dependent Variables	**Multiple Linear Regression Model**			
	Independent Variables	**HCE**	**SCE**	**CEE**
ROE	Pearson's Correlation	0,288	-0,089	0,248
	Sig.	0,000	0,069	0,000
	Adjusted R Square	0,118		
	Standardized Coefficient Beta	0,247	-0,090	0,197
ROA	Pearson's Correlation	0,485	0,114	0,185
	Sig.	0,000	0,029	0,001
	Adjusted R Square	0,247		
	Standardized Coefficient Beta	0,466	0,113	0,088
ROI	Pearson's Correlation	0,102	-0,093	0,215
	Sig.	0,044	0,059	0,000
	Adjusted R Square	0,048		
	Standardized Coefficient Beta	0,060	-0,094	0,203

Source: Authors

For hypothesis 2 ("There is a significant positive relationship between the VAIC™ components (HCE, SCE and CEE) and the ROE financial performance indicator"), it appears that the variables HCE and Capital Employ Efficiency (CEE) show to have positive relationship with ROE. The multiple linear regression model shows that the VAIC™ components influence the ROE value, with HCE (0.247) being the variable that most contributes to the explanation of the model. The SCE variable presents a non-significant negative result, and thus, it does not contribute to the explanation of the model, thus verifying that hypothesis 2 is true only for the variables HCE and CEE.

In hypothesis 3 ("There is a significant positive relationship between the VAIC™ components (HCE, SCE and CEE) and the ROA financial performance indicator"), it appears that the results obtained for the relationship between ROA and the VAIC™ components, were positive and significant, leaving no doubt about the positive relationship between the variables, with special emphasis on the variable HCE. The three components represent 24.7% of the ROA variations in the selected companies. The HCE has a very significant correlation value (0.485) and shows to be the strongest variable in the model's explanatory capacity. This result proves what was said about the importance of HC in the Hotel sector. Proving the existence of a positive relationship between HCE, SCE and CEE with the ROA, it is concluded that hypothesis 3 is true.

Finally, for hypothesis 4 ("There is a significant positive relationship between the components of VAIC™ (HCE, SCE and CEE) and the financial performance indicator ROI"), it is observed that the SCE component has a practically zero and negative correlation (-0.093), and without significance (sig> 0.05).

HCE has a low correlation and is practically insignificant (sig = 0.044). Only the EEC component, with a Pearson Correlation Coefficient of 0.215, and sig = 0.000, seems to contribute to the fact that this MRLM explains 4.8% of the ROI variations in terms of the sample mean. Thus, the hypothesis is considered true only for the relationship between ROI and CEE.

Discussion of Results

The results obtained show that IC, measured through VAIC™, has a positive impact on the financial performance of companies in the Portuguese hotel sector. These findings corroborates the results of Lopes (2017) research that also applied VAIC™ model on Portuguese hotel companies and which results also show that IC contributes to financial performance of the companies. This relation is also confirmed on Laing et al. (2010) study that was applied on Australian hotels. Although using a different methodology Sardo et al. (2018) also confirm that IC components provide a positive impact on hotel financial performance of Portuguese hotels. And a positive impact is possible to see on the research of Bontis et al. (2015) (Serbia), Khalique & Mansor (2016) (Malasya), Kim et al. (2012) (Korea), Zeglat & Zigan (2014) (Jordan).

It was found that the components of IC that produced positive and significant effects on financial performance of hotels were the HCE and the efficiency of applied capital (CEE). It is not considered the SCE because it had a statistically insignificant effect. These results demonstrate that HC, but also physical and financial capital, have a significant influence on the financial performance of hotels. These results are in line with the findings of Lopes (2017) research, where these evidences were also verified in these 2 variables.

The component that had the highest impact on the variation of financial indicators was HC, showing the importance that human resources have in the hotel sector, as well as its proper management. This result is consistent with previous findings of Laing et al. (2010) that verified an evidence of a correlation between the indicator of intellectual capital efficiency and the HCE suggesting that the reliance on HC is a key element of the business performance in the hotel sector. Despite this variable had a relevant impact in the study of Lopes (2017), the one with the highest impact in that research was the efficiency of applied capital (CEE).

On the other hand, in the study by Khalique & Mansor (2016) the effect of HC showed, along with technological capital and spiritual capital, an insignificant contribution in enhancing the performance of hotel industry in Malaysia. Khalique & Mansor (2016) refers that this is quite surprising in hotel industry and may be due to the factor that the hotel's management is not giving ample importance to arrange training and educational courses to their employees to enhance their HC.

Kim et al. (2012) found that HC only indirectly affects the financial performance of hotels in Korea instead they verified an effect significant and positive of HC on organizational capital.

In Zeglat & Zigan (2014) research, SC was the dimension that had the strongest and largest contribution to business performance of Jordanian hotels.

Bontis et al. (2015) studied the Serbian hotel industry and found that financial performance is mainly determined by physical capital, and only a small portion of financial performance can be attributed to HC and SC. The results of their analysis show that the financial performance of Serbian hotels is affected mainly by physical and financial capital and the only exceptions are profitability and employee productivity, which are significantly affected by the HC component and the SC component. Bontis et al. (2015) refers that the reason for this situation lies in its poor efficiency in IC exploitation on Serbia's economy.

In Sardo et al. (2018) research, the dimensions of HC and RC seemed to be the key elements for the success of Portuguese hotels, being the basis of service quality in the hotels sector. The effect of RC suggests that SME hotel financial performance is enhanced by the establishment and maintenance relationships with key stakeholders and namely customers (their satisfaction and loyalty). The effect of HC is justified by the fact that tourism industry depends strongly on the skills and knowledge of the employees. Sardo et al. (2018) also conclude that HC and SC are capitalized by the establishment and maintenance of long-term relationships with key stakeholders, i.e., by strengthening the RC.

CONCLUSION

In the new economy based on information and knowledge, IC increasingly assumes a fundamental role in the success of organizations and the respective creation of value. Factors such as knowledge, competence, experience, capacity for innovation or good relationships, when identified and included in the business strategy, are differentiating and enhancing elements of value creation (Vaz et al., 2014a).

IC is recognized in the business and academic circles as an intangible asset that still represents many doubts, in terms of its identification and measurement. Despite the research carried out over the years, there is still no universally accepted measurement model that allows obtaining the IC value with the necessary reliability. In this way, this work intended to assess whether the value of IC, despite not being recognized in accounting, positively influences the financial performance of companies.

The main issue of this investigation was to analyse the relationship between the value of IC and the financial performance of companies in the hotel industry. The verification of the study's hypotheses proved to be complicated, since the results vary a lot depending on the variables used. For example, in the analysis of hypothesis 1, we concluded that VAIC™ had no positive relationship with ROE, however, when in hypothesis 2 we verified the relationship between the components of VAIC™ with ROE, we verified that the variables HCE and the CEE, have weak but significant correlations, explaining a small percentage of the variation in the dependent variable ROE. This means that, when we verify the relationship of VAIC™ as one, with financial performance, the results are different from those obtained when instead of using VAIC™, we use its components.

The results obtained in the verification of the four hypotheses are in accordance with the various studies on the subject analysed in the literature review. The results obtained are quite variable, changing according to the variables used, but in general, IC, measured through VAIC™, has shown to have a positive impact on the financial performance of companies in the Portuguese hotel industry.

HC, through the value of the variable HCE, was the component that proved to have the most impact on the variation of financial indicators. It demonstrates the importance of the quality of human resources in the sector and the need on the part of companies, to consider spending on human resources, not as a cost, but as an investment. Companies must therefore contribute to the training of human resources, valuing their knowledge and promoting innovation and motivation.

The CEE, although with lower values than the HCE, has also shown to have a positive relationship with financial performance. These results allow us to conclude that, although slowly, companies in the hotel industry begin to recognize the value of their IC as an essential resource in creating competitive advantages in the market in which they operate.

Some study limitations can be mentioned and addressed in future research. It can be highlighted that the methodology used (VAIC™) does not take into account the traditional IC taxonomy, that is, HC, SC and RC. The model does not take into account RC, focusing only on HC and SC, and this is a relevant variable in tourism area and is not considered in this study. Furthermore, SC is not calculated using indicators that make up this type of capital, but rather through the difference between VA and HC not covering all aspects that involve this dimension. The size of the sample is another limitation of the study that could have been minimized by including small and micro companies in the sample or by widening the time horizon under analysis. Finally, the number of studies that link IC with financial performance in the hotel sector applying the VAIC™ is quite small and represent a limitation to our study, especially regarding the analysis method, the choice of variables to be used in the research and the comparison of the results of this study with others already existing for the sector. However it is possible to find relevant studies that focused on very different sectors of activity, from the banking sector to the construction sector. In addition, very few studies used the ROI indicator in their analysis, making comparison difficult with the results obtained in this investigation.

The increasing influence of IC in the business sector, more specifically in the hotel industry, leads to the need for an efficient evaluation and management of intellectual resources. Thus, it is suggested that future investigations explore in more detail, the measurement and evaluation of IC in companies in the hotel industry. It would also be interesting to see the HC and the RC dimensions analysed in greater detail as differentiating resources for companies in the hotel industry. Another suggestion could be the use of the modified VAIC™ model (M-VAIC) by adding RC in the methodology because the relation with stakeholders is an important variable in tourism area. Finally, in future research could be to investigate the relationship between IC and financial performance on other type of tourism industries.

This work contributes to the existing IC research and literature, since focusing on an activity sector, where there is a small amount of studies on the influence of IC, because it analyses the relationship between IC and financial performance of hotels companies, an issue poorly explored in this sector and country, because it confirms an existing methodology for measure IC and because it provides conclusions that can be interesting to all those interested in the theme, academics, managers, students, among others.

As the title of this book suggests, Human Capital and People Management in the Tourism Industry, the key competitive factor in the tourism industry is people and, above all, the strengthening of their intellectual capital. Thus, when presenting results of a research on intellectual capital and financial performance in the tourism sector, this article seeks to answer the problem raised by the book, emphasizing the importance of Human Capital and People as a strategic source to achieve excellence and competitive performance in this sector.

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ENDNOTE

1 Financial performance indicators are indispensable tools for company management. They provide information about the company's financial situation, allowing checking the efficiency of management practices.

Chapter 8
A Generations' Perspective on Employer Branding in Tourism

Daniel Binder
FH JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences, Austria

James William Miller
FH JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences, Austria

ABSTRACT

The tourism industry is facing tremendous challenges from labor shortages and a resulting loss of competitiveness. Changing digital environments as well as young people's communication habits and ideas regarding work-life balance are raising human resources related questions, to which currently no answers exist. In light of this issue, this chapter focusses on employer branding as a way to motivate present employees and attract new ones. It includes a discussion of different theories of workplace motivation, followed by a look at payment and further education issues. The so-called Generations Y and Z are investigated in the context of the labor shortage, and the generation concept itself is critically reflected. Furthermore, labor force aspects and working conditions in tourism are examined, with specific evidence from Austria. Finally, the discussion outlines an employer branding strategy as a way to address this problem.

INTRODUCTION

"Do they also want to work?" An article in the newspaper ZEIT ONLINE posed this question in connection with Generation Y while trying to draw a picture of a new world of work and the young people who are employed there, especially regarding their work situations and motivation (Bund, Heuser & Kunze, 2013, n.p.). This question is particularly important in the context of the tourism industry, because it is facing a serious labor shortage and an associated loss of competitiveness. Especially in service industries such as tourism, it is crucial to have enough employees who are sufficiently motivated, as there is a strong correlation between engaged staff and positive guest experiences (Gardini, 2014; Chi & Gursoy, 2009). Consequently, human resources management in tourism is becoming more and more

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch008

important, especially in the light of demographic change. It is obvious that the shortage of chefs, waiters and receptionists and the like will only grow more severe in the future. So what can be done to promote the image of tourism as a workplace in order to attract more workers? The present article focusses on employer branding instruments as a partial answer to this question, especially regarding what appears to motivate younger generations of workers.

This chapter attempts a theoretical discussion of these issues. After providing background on the ongoing staffing difficulties in tourism with special attention to the situation in Austria, past research on worker motivation will be examined in light of recent arguments about generational differences in this regard. Finally, these motivational issues will be linked to employee branding efforts, because employers who can brand themselves in ways that resonate with the motivations of young employees will be better placed to compete in the war for talent. Some specific examples will then be provided on how this approach can be successfully implemented.

BACKGROUND

The Labor Shortage in Tourism

For several years now, tourism companies in many parts of the world have been complaining about the difficulty in attracting and retaining qualified employees (Heimstra, 1990; Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009; Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013; Murray, Elliot, Simmonds, Madeley & Taller, 2017; Elshaer & Marzouk, 2019. This problem can be illustrated by the situation in Austria, one of the most tourism-intensive countries in the world, where about 6.8% of the total labor force is employed (or self-employed) in tourism (Statistik Austria, 2019a). The vast majority of them (74%) are in the accommodation or restaurant business (Statistik Austria. 2019b). But despite the large number of people employed in the industry, that number is not large enough. Especially acute at present is the labor shortage among chefs. The problem is a general one, but it is particularly dramatic in the western parts of the country, where there are twice as many job openings for chefs as the number of chefs seeking work (WKO, 2019b).

One possible reason for the shortage might be insufficient opportunities to be trained for jobs in the industry, but in Austria, at least, this is clearly not the case. Austria has an internationally known dual apprenticeship system, which trains people for jobs in tourism, as well as other trades. The system includes 80% of practical training for 3 to 4 years in a certified company combined with the remaining 20% of the job-specific education taking place in a school setting. But this system is currently facing several problems. Due to demographic change, there are fewer young people available to start an apprenticeship. And in addition, the number of people wanting to enter a career in tourism is decreasing. In the last decade there has been an Austria-wide decrease of about 10% in apprenticeships as a whole, while in the tourism industry specifically, in which about 8% of all apprenticeship positions in Austria take place, the decline was about 36% (Binder, 2017). The situation is especially problematic regarding chefs and wait staff. In these professions there was a drop of around 30% from 2010 to 2018. In the Federal States of Burgenland (- 55%) and Styria (-45%) the situation is even worse (WKO, 2019a). In 2017, there were 1,546 trainee positions open in tourism, but only 402 people who wanted them (BMNT, 2018b, p. 18). This means that more than 1,000 open positions for potential future professionals in tourism could not be filled. This absence of well-trained employees presently, and in all likelihood in the future as well, represents a serious threat to the Austrian tourism industry (Vierich, 2019). Working in tourism is apparently less attractive than in the past, especially for young people. Working conditions appear to be part of the problem.

Working Conditions and Tourism's Image Problem

In 2018 the Austrian Ministry of Sustainability and Tourism published the guideline, *A career in tourism – be there,* which praises what one can expect from a job in tourism, including interesting worldwide job opportunities, high job location stability (as hotels can't be moved abroad), the possibility for work in beautiful rural areas, or to fulfil a dream of becoming a hotelier or a world famous chef, etc. (BMNT, 2018a). So far so good, but how about the real situation?

Because cooks and waiters often change jobs, also seasonally, and frequently work for small businesses, they have very weak, in any, labor unions. The only well-organized branches of labor in tourism are the carrying industries (Baum, 2007), and the pay levels of pilots and air traffic reflect their high level of unionization. Improvements in working conditions in areas of tourism where unionization is less extensive have not kept pace with those in other more unionized industries such as manufacturing. Marco Gardini (2014) analyzed working conditions in tourism and found them to be rather unattractive for job seekers (see Table 1).

Table 1. Working conditions in tourism (Gardini, 2014, p. 62)

Structure	Low attractiveness	Structured fluctuation	High staff costs share	Chronic staff shortage
• Low average age • Low degree of higher education • Many lateral entrants • Low-skilled, seasonal and part-time workers • Female workers' industry	• High temporal and physical burden on staff • A below-average pay • Rudimentary social benefits • Acyclic work rhythms • Disturbed work-life balance • Low training and career perspectives	• Common "years of travel" • Seasonal approach • High performers change jobs regularly • Female employees (family issues)	• Up to 70% of all expenses • Correlation with quality level of services • Individualization vs. Standardization	• Demographic trends in industrialized countries • Critical workplace conditions lead to unattractive image

Payment levels and workplace-satisfaction are connected, which is certainly one of tourism's big problems in attracting workers. In 2017, the median gross monthly wage in Austria in all industries was EUR 2,569. In tourism it was only EUR 1,779 (Wirtschaftskammer Steiermark, 2018). Furthermore, employees in tourism are predominately female. Indeed, about 65% of all Austrian tourism employees are women (Tourismus: 63 Prozent Frauenanteil bei den Beschäftigten, 2015). According to Riley and Szivas (2013, p. 453), in industries which employ more women than men, the wages tend to be lower than in predominately male industries. But this is just one side of the coin. For example, in the Austrian Federal State of Styria, the median male monthly wage in tourism is EUR 1,707, which is less than half that of male employees in the financial services sector (Mayer, 2016, p. 90-92). So, the lower wages cannot simply be explained by gender.

To be fair, wages make up only part of the compensation package in tourism. Income of waiters, for example, is augmented by tips, so their real income is higher than shown in the statistics. Gehrels and de Looij (2011, p. 51) point out that additional employee benefits such as meals or accommodation receive too little attention when comparing the situation of tourism employees with others. Indeed, as a response to the staffing crisis in tourism, the Styrian government opened a call in 2019 to partly fund improvements in accommodation for Styrian tourism workers (ÖHT, 2019). Be that as it may, no one claims that tourism is a high-earnings industry.

Tourism is furthermore reputed to be characterized by too long and irregular working times, very high physical and mental pressure in peak seasons and a rude working environment. It has been argued that these circumstances make it particularly difficult for tourism organizations to attract workers from Generation Y (Cairncross & Buultjens, 2007; Brown, Thomas & Bosselman, 2015; Ţăpescu & Iorgulescu, 2016), because they are less willing to accept such conditions than earlier generations.

How the Corona Crisis will impact the tourism industry mid- and long-term is difficult to say at the time of this writing. On the one hand the crisis threatens the existence of many hospitality operations, which in turn threatens jobs. The World Travel and Tourism Council (2020) estimates the job losses in tourism because of Covid-19 to reach over 100 million worldwide. Given those job losses, it is likely that tourism employers, if they survive and are hiring, will in future have fewer problems finding staff, at least in the short term. On the other hand, what was once seen as an industry with a perspective for long-term growth has been shown to be much less stable. Whether this then will lead even fewer young people to consider employment in tourism remains to be seen.

THE PROBLEM

Assuming that this crisis in tourism employment is resolved over the mid-term, the question of how to secure and retain enough staff will remain pertinent for employers in the industry. To address this question, it will be crucial for employers to know what motivates potential and present employees. Only then can they know how to make themselves attractive as employers. They have to know something about employee motivation in general. And they have to know how to let potential and present employees know that their motives are understood and accounted for in the context of human resources management. Thus, the problem is one that combines understanding and communication.

Employee Motivation in General

In 1959 Frederik Herzberg proposed an explanation of job motivation and workplace satisfaction that still has relevance today. The so called "motivation-hygiene-theory", divided factors influencing work into hygiene and motivational ones, based on the idea that people are (dis)satisfied by different determinants. As Herzberg used the term, hygiene means things that cause dissatisfaction when they are absence, but which have no direct influence on satisfaction when they are present (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Sachau, 2007). These aspects directly cause dissatisfaction when expectations in these areas are not fulfilled in a proper way. In other words, when fulfilled they can prevent unhappiness – but they do not automatically lead to happiness (Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009). Fulfilled motivating factors could lead to a higher rate of satisfaction, but when they are not present, they do not immediately create dissatisfaction (Olfert, 2012).

Herzberg's "2 factors model" has been sharply criticized by several researchers (Dunnette, Campbell & Hakel, 1967; Kam & Meyer, 2015; Haarhaus, n.d.). One point of criticism is that he placed hygiene and motivation factors on different scales (bipolar) instead of being analyzed as a continuum between full satisfaction and complete dissatisfaction (unipolar) (House & Wigdor, 1967. Despite such limitations, Herzberg's model still provides a certain structure to make satisfying and dissatisfying aspects of work more understandable. According to Herzberg's theory, salary plays an important, but not the only role in terms of job attitudes. Achievement, the work itself, but also the degree of responsibility influences the level of satisfaction and may thus be seen as significant motivational factors for workers. It is thus a combination of remuneration, a sense that the job one is doing is the right one for one personally, fulfillment and opportunities for advancement professionally, as well as recognition and empowerment that contribute to employee retention.

Remuneration

Salaries and other benefits are not only part of negotiations during the recruiting process, they are always important, also when people are already working in a company. Principally one can differentiate between monetary and non-monetary incentives. Such intangible aspects could also be described as Herzberg's motivators, such as corporate culture, recognition or career opportunities. Monetary incentives, on the other hand, include such things as the salary itself, health benefits (private health insurance), a company car, smartphones or a company-financed flat (Immerschnitt & Stumpf, 2014). Aguinis, Joo & Gottfredson (2013, p. 244) suggested that whatever form the remuneration takes, it should be based on clear processes and be performance related.

Thus, the question of a suitable wage seems always to be a crucial contributor to employee satisfaction. The concept of "pay per performance", which consists of variable and non-variable parts can often enhance employee satisfaction. This type of payment takes account of achieved goals (e.g. savings, sales figures) and tries to reward the performance of an employee or a team accordingly (Nyberg, Pieper & Trevor, 2013). But as always, such a method is open to criticism. Negative aspects are seen in a reduction of the intrinsic motivation, unnecessary employee competition and difficult implementation procedures (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Deming, 1986, as cited in Nyberg et.al, 2013; Lawler, 2000). Finally, in deciding whether they are fairly paid or not, employees compare their salaries with each other and in relation to their own performance or work experience (Schreurs, Guenter, van Emmerik, Notelaers, & Schumacher, 2015).

According to Schreurs et al. (2015, p. 1541-1542), it is obvious that high "pay level satisfaction" (PLS) leads to a higher level of work-satisfaction in general. But they also determined that low PLS could be balanced by higher levels of self-determination and more autonomy at work. Furthermore, they suggest that companies should have fair and transparent pay systems, although transparency is positive only if the remuneration system is really fair, something which can be quite difficult to achieve (Deckop, 1992, McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Till & Karren, 2011).

However, there are reasons for caution when dealing with the survey results about employee satisfaction in relation to payment. One the one hand, one should not overgeneralize, because every person has a different mindset in terms of money and its importance (Riley & Szivas, 2003, p. 454). Furthermore, people tend not to want to admit that they are mainly motivated by money, so surveys sometimes underestimate the importance of this factor (Lawler, 2000, p. 167).

Ensuring Employee-Job Fit

Grasmück & Vogler (2018, p. 2817) suggest having regular structured evaluation checks as a way to ensure that the job itself is contributing to an employee's job satisfaction. These appraisal-interviews should have a clear structure, they have to be transparently recorded and should lead to a gain of knowledge for both the leader and the employee (Mitarbeitergespräch vorbereiten: Tipps für Mitarbeiter und Chefs, 2019). One result of such an evaluation discussion could be a better match between tasks and skills. Hanaysha & Tanir (2016) argued that there has to be a good balance of employees' responsibilities on the one hand and competences and knowledge on the other. The more a company knows about their staff, their needs, working requirements and career plans, etc., the better the leaders will be able to include people in processes and give them a feeling of empowerment (Cascio & Graham, 2014; Guldner, 2018).

Continuing Education

Besides a pay raise, another way to ensure that employees have a sense that they are achieving something within their jobs is to provide educational opportunities as part of the benefits package. Companies have come to see a well-educated staff as a major factor in staying competitive. But employees also find it crucial to keep up-to-date with trends within their profession (Dandara, 2014). So further education or Life-Long Learning (LLL) has increasingly become an aspect of workplace-satisfaction (Laal & Salamati, 2012). According to Coetzee and Stolz (2015, the employees' satisfaction level correlates strongly with career opportunities. For Grübling (2017), the chances for personal development are crucial to the recruitment and retention of staff. Likewise, Gardini (2014, p. 65) has stated that if companies want to hang on to their employees, they have to invest in them and their skill levels. But this is a win-win situation: a well-educated staff represents a major resource for companies with regard to innovation and hence competitiveness (Lee, Mazzei & Kim, 2018, p. 286).

Recognition and Empowerment

Treating employees like they are crucial to their employer's success factor can be a powerful motivator, especially when combined with empowerment. Asking for their opinions and including them in a company's decision-making processes helps lead to a strong relationship with both the firm per se and to leaders and supervisors (Kobjoll, 2014, pp. 244-246). If people understand why decisions are made, they can handle bad news more easily. So prompt and direct communication is essential to keep trust and commitment (Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik, & Nerstad, 2017, p. 244).

EMPLOYEE RETENTION

Factors influencing employee motivation are also inextricably linked with employee retention. If qualified employees are not properly motivated, they are much more likely to leave their place of employment (Gehrels & de Looij, 2011; Grasmück & Vogler, 2018, Lee, Hom, Eberly, & Li, 2018). For Kanning (2017, p. 192) the key to employee retention is a triangle consisting of 1) workplace-satisfaction, 2) commitment and 3) social identity. All three need to be kept at a high level, especially as they influence each other. Kanning goes on to state that company leaders have to live with the fact that these three aspects are affected by surrounding issues that are less amenable to influence, such as the work itself, the labor market and the employee's personality and life situation. In general, it is obvious that if positive working environments are created, people are willing to discount other aspects (e.g. salaries) which may not always fully satisfy them (Grübling, 2017).

Employee Motivation in a Generational Context

Over the past decade or so, employers have increasingly asked themselves whether the aforementioned factors influencing employee motivation apply in equal measure to all generations, or whether with each new generation the balance in their importance shifts. Recent research on generational research is very interesting in this context.

The Generations Concept

In his pioneering work on generations, Karl Mannheim (1928) postulated that people born into a particular cohort share common values and experiences and that these then influence such things as their attitudes toward consumption, work, marriage and so on. Although have been some difficulties in reaching a consensus among researchers about when one generation ends and another begins (Hurrelmann & Albrecht, 2014; Mihovilovic & Knebel), the research on generations has contributed to discussions about effective employee recruitment and employee job satisfaction. Generation Y (those born between approximately 1985 and 2000) and Generation Z (born approximately from 2000-2015) have especially come under scrutiny in this context (Kolland & Wanka, 2017).

The Research on Generation Y in Connection with Employment

According to Hurrelmann and Albrecht (2014), it is not entirely clear how "Generation Y" (which generally stands for "why"), came to its name. This uncertainty notwithstanding, the question "why" does seems to be quite important for this generation in different contexts, ranging from "why get married, to "why work just for money" or "why do we need all the things promoted in the media?". One thing that clearly sets Generation Y off from previous ones is their experience with digitalization, with all its implications for daily life and work. People from Generation Y experienced the rise of computers, mobile phones and the internet from the onset of their lives. The entire working lives of these so-called digital natives have been profoundly formed by these new technologies, and this has influenced their priorities (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008).

According to Austria's largest online career platform, *karriere.at* (2014), the following points are crucial, if companies want to be attractive to younger employees nowadays:

- Daily life and business life have to match well.
- The working climate has to be "smart".
- Jobs have to be secure.
- A job must provide career perspectives.
- A job has to provide opportunities for personal and professional development.
- Employees must be given interesting and challenging tasks.
- Leaders must demonstrate high social competence.

- Decision-making must be transparent and target oriented.
- Corporate culture and social responsibility are more important than profit and prestige.

A similar US study published by the Gallup organization in 2016 summarized the characteristics of Generation Y in connection with work as follows:

- "Millennials don't just work for a paycheck — they want a purpose.
- Millennials are not pursuing job satisfaction — they are pursuing development.
- Millennials don't want bosses — they want coaches.
- Millennials don't want annual reviews — they want ongoing conversations.
- Millennials don't want to fix their weaknesses — they want to develop their strengths.
- It's not just my job — it's my life." (pp. 3-4)

These lists demonstrate that the notion that people of Generation Y do not really want to work —as was suggested in the quote cited at the outset of this chapter—is nothing more than a myth. They *do* want to work, but they have a different approach to the balance of work and daily life than their parents did.

Valentine and Powers stated in 2013 that people of Generation Y desire authenticity in their lives and like working in groups and being creative, hoping thereby to grow personally. They do not define themselves by the amount of money they earn or how often they can fly abroad for business meetings. If employers provide opportunities for teamwork and personal growth, their employees from this generation are actually willing to give 100%, as they are highly loyal. But because of their commitment to authenticity, if this loyalty is undermined by non-transparent decisions or unethical corporate behavior, they will be quick to leave the company. Their focus lies on a good balance of work and life, which has little to do with counting working-hours. They even derive a feeling of social integration, self-esteem and mental stability if they can fully identify with their professional lives (Bund, Heuser & Kunze, 2013; Großegger, 2005; Sault, n.d.).

How Generation Z differs from Generation Y Regarding Employment

Generation Z in a nutshell: "If they could choose, they would like to have a great job, which they do with dedication, for example from 9am to 2pm. After that, for them ideally their private life or a completely different job would begin" (Karlsböck, 2019, n.p.). According to the generalizations made about them, Z's need structure and security in their workplaces. Current workplace trends such as desktop sharing, home office and the ongoing blending of work and private time are unacceptable for people of Generation Z (Hurrelmann & Albrecht, 2014, Karlsböck, 2019). But why do they differ from Generation Y?

According to Erle (2016), members of Generation Z are disillusioned by the scandals they read about in the internet. They no longer have the illusion that anything really changes or that employers are really deeply interested in their worker's welfare. They no longer expect to save the world by what they do professionally. It's just work. All that matters is that it fits their personality and offers them career perspectives. Scholz (2014) has argued that the members of Generation Z are little interested in pursuing leadership positions in companies. He suggests that previous generations must adapt their approaches to this younger generation's needs, but the Z's will have to adapt too, as future leadership challenges are eventually thrust upon them.

One of the most distinguishing characteristics of Generation Z is their unalterable connection to technology and smart media. But they use the possibilities of the internet in different ways than their elders (Berkup, 2014). Young people leave Facebook, because their parents and grandparents are already there using the platform for self-expression and to share content. For the younger ones, TikTok is the new place to be (Kupka, 2019).

Finally, although there are certainly things that set off Generation Z from earlier generations–as is the case with every generation, their attitudes toward job-satisfaction will only really become clear when they fully arrive in the world of business, when they have to take on responsibilities or leading positions.

A Critical View of the Concept of Generations in Connection with Work

Rudolph, Rauvola and Zacher (2018) identified some essential misunderstandings inherent in the concept of generations, including the lack of empirical validity of research methods in this area and the lack of empirically proven differences in working characteristics between the investigated generations. Furthermore, what the research on generations sometimes underestimates is how one's life situation, particularly in connection with one's place in the life cycle, influences one's values and priorities in connection with work, including what place remuneration has in job satisfaction (Rudolph, 2016). As mentioned earlier, salary is not the only factor in work-satisfaction, though it is obvious that money is crucial to satisfying the needs of daily life, such as clothes, housing or food (Long & Shields, 2010). A 2013 study showed, not surprisingly, that families with a net income of EUR 3,000 are happier than those with less family income (Striewski, 2013). So, one criticism of the generational approach to research on job satisfaction is that if one has never suffered from financial need, it is easy to say that salary and work are not important. If one asks young people who have grown up without want and are still without a family or other weighty responsibilities what is important in their working lives, they are unlikely to respond the same way as a parent with a huge house loan and two children to feed, for example. In fact, in such a context, what is crucial is one's stage in life rather than what generation one belongs to.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Given this theoretical background, what can be done to alleviate the labor shortage in tourism? Should employers in tourism be paying particular attention to the theory of generational differences in how they approach staff recruitment? We would argue that it is important to be an attractive employer, generally, without particular attention to generational differences. Employers need to pay attention to what their potential and present employees actually need. But being concerned about employee needs is not enough—that concern also has to be communicated. This is where employer branding comes in.

Employer Branding

In times when labor is short, companies need to present themselves as attractive organizations, not only to sell their products, but also to attract and retain employees. In the last decades the concept of employer branding (first mentioned in 1996) has established a link between personnel marketing and staff retention (Kanning, 2017, p. 3; Ambler & Barrow, 1996, p. 187). Companies create brands to make their products distinguishable from those of their competitors – and companies also aim for distinctiveness as employers (Backhaus, 2016, p. 194). According to Ambler and Barrow (1996), employer branding involves conveying to the public what actions have been undertaken by a company to benefit its staff. Employee branding is targeted especially to potential employees to encourage them to hire on with the firm (Bellou, Chaniotakis, Kehagias, & Rigopoulou, 2015 p. 1202). Indeed, Hochegger and Terlutter (2011) have stated that a company has two major key factors: "its brands and its employees" (p. 403). So a strong employee-employer-relationship in which each side identifies with the other has the ability to raise motivation and productiveness and reduce the costs of fluctuation (Wilden, Gudergan & Lings, 2010, p. 58; Rudhumbu, Golden, Svotwa, & Lukusa, 2014, p. 61). This interaction is illustrated in Figure 2.

Myrden and Kelloway (2015) assessed three major aspects of employer branding: 1) company familiarity, 2) employer brand image and 3) employer attraction. They divided workplace-attractiveness into "functional factors" (e.g. salary, monetary benefits, health care coverage, workplace safety) and "symbolic factors" (e.g. prestigious firm, winning team, leadership qualities, strong companies' mission). They found that as work experience increases, symbolic attributes become more and more important. It has to be mentioned that their research was conducted with recent university graduates. Results might have been different if the subjects had been non-academics. But as a take-away, one can see the importance of non-functional factors regarding the attractiveness of employers.

Christian Grund (2009, p. 70) examined turnover from this perspective in 2009. After analyzing 5,000 German employees that had recently changed jobs, he ranked the advantages won by switching jobs by their importance: 1) salary, 2) type of work, 3) chances for being promoted, 4) security of workplace, 5) social services, 6) working time, 7) working conditions and 8) time needed to reach the workplace. So beside the "soft" factors such as branding or image, such "hard" factors as salary or type of work are finally very important. This is very much in keeping with the theories of Frederik Herzberg as previously elaborated upon.

As already explained employer branding is a linking element between personnel marketing and staff retention, so a more detailed look at how this applies to the field of human resources management is warranted.

Personnel Marketing

Employer branding activities are strategic and long-term processes, whereas personnel marketing activities have more operative and short-term characteristics (Kanning, 2017, p. 136). A major task in the recruiting process today is to know where people are looking for jobs, and here generational difference *are* important. For decades printed job advertisements in newspapers were the place where companies and job-seeking people connected with each other, but this has changed. A study in December 2017 of the labor market in Germany stated that only 5% of all job ads were placed in print media. The remaining 95% were published online on specialized job-platforms such as "StepStone" or "Monster". The authors pointed out that for job announcements targeting young applicants (18 to 39 years) the German job-platform "XING" is very important (Bundesarbeitgeberverband der Personaldienstleister, 2018). The so called "war for talent" is fought nowadays in the internet (Biester, 2018, p. 44; Brickwedde, 2014). Now, and even more so in the future, it will be essential to know how to take advantage of digitalization in recruitment (Busold, 2019). Podcasts seem to be one of the latest trends to attract people of generations Y and Z (Grohmann, 2019). At the end of the last century career platforms such as "whatchado" (www.whatchado.com) or job-rating platforms such as "kununu" (www.kununu.com) began to stir up traditional job markets. Furthermore, career fairs such as the "BeSt" (www.bestinfo.at) have become an established part of educational and career decisions. Awards such as the "European Business Award" (www.businessawardseurope.com), "Best Employer of the Year" (awarded by the business magazine "trend") or the health-related award "fit im job", awarded for companies who care particularly for the health of their employees, can lead to positive media coverage and as a result to a positive company image (Drury, 2016, p. 30), which can also be an aspect of employer branding. Recruiting people costs time and resources and so attention to internal personnel marketing as a way to encourage employees not to switch employers pays obvious benefits.

Employer Branding in Tourism Industries: Examples and Best Practice

The relationship between employees and customers is crucial for good or bad customer experiences, especially in tourism (Freyer, 2011; Milliman, Gatling, & Kim, 2018, p. 57). If employees are highly motivated they contribute to higher guest satisfaction, which leads to an increase of revenues (Chi & Gursoy, 2008, p. 252). So not only from an economic point of view but also from an employee-centered one, it pays to focus on so called *emotion work*, which deals with the feelings of both deliverers and receivers of services (Bolton, 2004).

In this connection employer branding has several advantages, especially for the tourism industry. A loss of well-trained employees in combination with seasonally-based high fluctuation costs money and is not only a risk for competitiveness, it is also damaging to the image of tourism as a workplace (Maheshwari et al., 2017, Baum, 2007, Immerschnitt & Stumpf, 2014). In a hotel, spa or restaurant, employees are an essential part of the service provided, they are both the face and the ambassadors of the brand, a company or a special treatment. So it is crucial to invest in them (Milliman et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2018; Knox & Freeman, 2006).

As already stated, getting enough qualified employees was, at least until Covid-19, the main challenge in Austrian tourism (WKO, 2018, p. 120). However, those companies which follow an integrated employer branding strategy, one that is implemented in all company-related processes, do not have as severe a problem recruiting enough good staff as other employers do (Drury, 2016; Seelige-Steinhoff & Mielecke, 2014). Several strategies and activities can make a hotel or restaurant as attractive as possible for potential employees.

Several employer branding platforms exist to help companies to find well-qualified staff. Tourism companies should use these platforms aggressively (Klingenberg, 2017). This online presence can promote word-of-mouth recommendations, whose functions are already well-known and established in tourism on websites such as booking.com or trivago (Mellinas, et al. 2016). Recruiting days, where interested potential employees can get a view behind the scenes, get to know their potential supervisors and have the chance to talk to the staff can also be an image-promoting tool (Wulf, 2017).

The human resources challenges in tourism are not limited to finding new staff. Keeping employees motivated to stay is also an essential issue (Rampl, 2014). The major drivers of workplace-satisfaction as described in earlier in this article pose special challenges in the tourism industry and are critical from the beginning (e.g. personnel marketing) to the end of an individual's employment with a firm, whether through retirement or resignation (Neulinge von ersten Tag an begeistern, 2013). Even after retirement or resignation, a former employee can still recommend the employer to others if the experience with the firm was a positive one (Gehrels & de Looij, 2011).

Investing in staff in the form of further education is one-way tourism employers can make themselves attractive, as well as strengthen their firm's power of innovation and competitiveness (Daniel et al., 2017;

Cascio & Graham, 2016; Deale, 2016). Huge hotel chains are well-known for their efforts to train their staff and so provide them with needed skills and branded emotions. Hotel brands such as *Hilton*, *Intercontinental* and *Accor* are just a few examples of companies which run their own academies to train their employees. They also emphasize the needs of special groups, such as employees new to the branch or more elderly employees (Gehrels & de Looij, 2011; Strauß, 2018) *The Motel One Hotel Group* cooperates with a university and even built a campus to offer individual education programs for their people (Winkelmann & Thuy, 2015). Smaller companies can also afford efforts to motivate their employees. They just have to listen to their needs and focus on developing their skills. A group of 14 independent high-end hotels in the western part of Austria, the *Best Alpine Wellness Hotels*, launched the unique employer branding campaign "*be a superhero"* which emphasized their high level of training provided to employees. This investment in personnel apparently paid off, as the group reached a workplace-satisfaction rate of more than 90%, according to an anonymous survey of their staff (Gorsche, 2016).

Companies are not the only ones that can make employment in tourism more attractive. During recent years, tourism destinations have also attempted to promote themselves as attractive places to both live and work, even if it is only during the high season (Memmer, 2019). For example, the region Saalbach-Hinterglemm in Salzburg offers several in-kind or monetary benefits for people working in local tourism companies (Tourismusverband Saalbach, 2019).

Another possibility to be recognized as an attractive employer in tourism and hospitality are seals of approval such as *Guide Michelin* or *Gault Millau,* because being employed in a highly ranked hotel or restaurant is also prestigious for employees. But there are also new forms of distinction that recognize efforts in the education of employees, such as *Best Place to Learn* (www.bestplacetolearn.de) or Beste Lehrbetriebe – Fit for Future (www.qualitaet-lehre.at). Moreover there are several seals of approval, prizes and awards for employees in the tourism industry, such as *Jeunes Restaurateurs* (www.jre.eu), the Young Hotelier Award (www.younghotelier.at), the *Amuse-Bouche-Award* (www.amuse-bouche.at) or an award for the wellness industry, the Health and Spa Award (www.health-spa-award.com), and progressive employers should support their employees in seeking such distinctions. They are literally win-win situations for both employer and employee.

The promising concept of *Sustainable Human Resources Management* seems to offer some solution-oriented approaches to facing current and future labor supply challenges in tourism (Kirschten, 2008). Based on three pillars of sustainability (economic, ecologic and social), the model emphasizes implementing these values in all the tasks and processes involving a company's employees (Elias-Linde, 2013). For example, Josef Zotter, founder of Zotter Chocolate in Riegersburg, Austria, attracts more than 300,000 visitors per year to his chocolate experience world, despite being closed on Sundays. Zotter insists that his employees should have at least one day a week that they can dedicate to themselves and their families. This employee-centricity extends to free organic midday meals, free childcare during vacation periods, and extensive further education program and supplementary pension benefits (Zotter, J., 2012; Arbeiten in der Welt der Schokolade, 2020). In addition to employee-centricity, Sustainable Human Resources Management also calls for 1) setting goals correctly, 2) communication and information transfer 3) leadership development, 4) teambuilding, 5) process optimization, 6) performance-oriented remuneration, 7) systematic personnel development and 8) operational health management (Weißenrieder & Kosel, 2005; Zaugg, 2009; Palmer & Flagnan, 2016).

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter has tried to establish an interrelation between the topics *employer branding* and *tourism as a workplace* in connection with the *concept of generations*. One of the most notable findings is that one should not overestimate the concept of generations as an aid in answering the question of how to attract and keep young employees in tourism. More helpful is an approach that targets the needs of employees during a certain phase of life. We have seen that belonging to a particular generation might have some influence, in terms of requirements, needs, fears or motivators, but one should always be aware that the specific emotions of an individual are heavily influenced by internal and external drivers of daily life (Kaslow et al., 1998; Rudolph, et al., 2018).

Nevertheless, the low wages in the tourism industry are undeniably a problem. It is not a question of getting rich, but rather that remuneration needs to be sufficient for a branch to be recognized as an attractive place to work (Chiang & Jang, 2008; Bauer, 2014; Aust, 2017). But is *earning enough money* a main motivating factor for generations Y and Z? A worldwide survey in 2014 with more than 1,000 respondents (age from 16 to 32) concluded that while extraordinary payment would be a motivating factor for 42% of Generation Y, only 28% of Generation Z would be motivated by extra money (Schawbel, 2014). However, as stated earlier in this chapter, motivating and dissatisfying issues change over the life course, and moreover research results are always connected with how questions are phrased and how the results are analyzed.

All the factors, discussed in this article can help make an employer much more attractive to job seekers. Concrete measures that can be taken to address this issue are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Things to Implement in management and then communicate in employer branding

Remuneration	Employee Development	Job Fit	Leadership Style	Benchmarking and Personnel Marketing
• Industry standard or above • Additional in-kind compensation package (such as lodging / food, transport) • Performance-oriented pay	• Continuing education offers • Certification system to document improvement even within the same role	• Job reviews more than once annually to ensure job fit regarding employee goals and talents • Accommodate for employee's changed life circumstances	• Coaching rather than bossing • Empowerment of employees so they identify with company goals • Reviewing those goals periodically with input from staff • Team-building measures	• Seek certification as a good employer • Recruiting in the currently most-used digital media

It is obvious that the current severe skills shortage in tourism is partially the result of a disregard of human relations within the industry (Brown et al, 2015). It is this lack of attention to the fundamentals of good leadership that has led to tourism students refusing to work in the industry after completing their very specific and very often expensive education (Richardson, 2010, Bahcelerli & Sucuoglu, 2015). So the whole industry needs both a better image and a better reality on the job. If all tourism experts, destination managers, politicians, but also media, bloggers, etc. transport the positive aspects of working in tourism and work to make tourism jobs more employee-friendly, a turnaround is possible. The industry offers many opportunities for fulfilling jobs in tourism, and the best employers in the field will use employer branding to communicate these advantages to potential employees. The Corona Crisis will surely increase the importance of such efforts.

The authors see enormous potential for research on how best to communicate the expected benefits from a job in tourism and about what future employees actually are seeking from such employment. Many attempts have been made through brochures and information campaigns to provide young people with insights into what it is like to work in tourism. Unfortunately, at least to our knowledge there have been no scientifically valid evaluations of the effectiveness of such measures. Studies of young people and their professional needs in connection with tourism would benefit not only tourism associations, but also employers in the field, because they could then make better use of their recruiting budgets and secure more staff.

This article is a first attempt to address this issue, but as a literature review it shows clear limitations when it comes to empirical evidence. Future research designs can examine the measures mentioned on the one hand for their practical suitability and on the other hand for their lasting effect. Such research is needed, because tourism can only develop its full potential if there is trust and mutual appreciation in the triumvirate of guests, hosts and employees.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Employee Motivation: Demanding and attracting factors of work should be in balance to strengthen the satisfaction level of employees. Several aspects like, remuneration, workplace health promotion activities, continuing education or recognition contribute to motivational levels.

Employer Branding: A strategic and long-term approach to foster the level of identification of current and potential employees with a certain company.

Generation Y and Z: Describes people born between about 1985 and 2000 (Generation Y) and those born about from 2000 to 2015 (Generation Z).

Herzberg's "2 Factors Model": A model which explains factors of satisfying or dissatisfying employees. On the one hand it distinguishes between so called "hygiene" factors which cause no satisfaction when they exist but cause dissatisfaction when they are missing. And on the other hand the "motivational" factors do not cause dissatisfaction when they are not there but can cause a higher level of satisfaction when they are there.

Labor Shortage in Tourism: Nowadays, tourism is facing severe problems in finding both enough and qualified staff.

Personnel Marketing: Short-time activities to hire new employees. A set of offline but more and more online media is used to present a company as an attractive employer.

Chapter 9
Company Internships:
Filling the Gap Between University Training and Business Reality

Noelia Araújo Vila
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3395-8536
University of Vigo, Spain

Diego R. Toubes
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7017-6659
University of Vigo, Spain

Arthur Filipe de Araújo
University of Aveiro, Portugal

Jose Antonio Fraiz Brea
University of Vigo, Spain

ABSTRACT

Practical experience has increasingly become an important component of university training. Institutions have made efforts to provide students with the opportunity to experience business reality. To many students, a curricular internship is the first contact with the work market. The present work analyses this discipline in the context of the Master in Tourism Planning and Management of the University of Vigo. The research universe encompasses 182 internships, which took place from 2008 to 2014. Data was collected through structured questionnaires, which aimed to obtain information on the students' specific areas of interest within the tourism industry, their level of satisfaction with the internship program and whether they were hired by the host company afterwards. The findings show that both parts—students and companies—are highly satisfied with the experience in great majority of cases, and that curricular internships have been an indispensable tool for preparing these students to the demanding tourism industry labor market.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch009

INTRODUCTION

Mastery and competence are key elements for efficient operations in business of any area. Therefore, the development of professional competences, both during students' academic journeys and through employees' work activities, is a current topic of interest in industry and academia. Moreover, the constant changes in market dynamics and business practices have led to certain desirable qualities for modern professionals, such as liability, interest, and initiative (Dembovska et al., 2016), which therefore, have become determinant factors of young professionals' future.

Within the tourism industry, the requirements for workers' qualification are arguably even higher. Tourism is a labor-intensive activity, which requires a significant amount of qualified workforce, not least because the quality of tourists' experiences often depends on tourism workers' performance. Precisely, the competitive advantage in the tourism industry is based on the definition of intellectual capital and its relation to professional skills in tourism (García et al., 2019). In this context, employers often seek tourism professionals who possess certain qualities, including knowledge, skills, abilities, behavioral stereotypes, efforts, and communication skills. Moreover, studies have shown that a destination's performance is affected by the way tourism companies manage their human resources (Madera et al., 2017), that is, how they deal with recruiting, training, developing, motivating and rewarding their personal (Baum, 2007). Deladem et al. (2019) show in their study that the training and development variables have a strong and positive relationship and are important in the development of training programs to achieve employee efficiency and the creation of human capital in the tourism sector. Naturally, tourism specific education plays a decisive role in qualifying these workers. As observed by Nagarjuna (2016), educational institutions transform people's lives by allowing them to contribute to society's wellbeing, as well as with the sustainability of organizations. This is particularly true for tourism specific educations, which is important not only for developing future professionals' competences and abilities, but also for contributing to the creation of wealth and increasing quality of life, which are desirable outcomes of a well-managed – on the destination level – tourism activity.

Just like market trends, and consequently, the demands of the work market, academic and professional education has also evolved over the decades. One of the most significant recent changes in European higher educational system regards students' evaluation. Historically students were evaluated exclusively via traditional performance assessment methods, that is, through the comparison between the objectives defined to each discipline and the results they showed in exams and assignments (Smith & Tyler, 1942). Such model presented severe limitations in terms of assessing the actual performance of future professionals, and therefore, needed to be improved. In this context, a more comprehensive and plural method, based on experimental procedures and adapted to different situations (Andrews & Cronbach, 1973), was adopted. This new approach to higher education gave origin to the Bologna Process, which aims to adapt university formation to social demands, as well as to increase the quality and competitiveness of future professionals.

Universities contribute the most to innovation and competitiveness when they are focused on preparing future professionals for the labor world (Alfonso & Borrego, 2009). Therefore, allowing students to experience business reality is essential for their qualification. This can be achieved, in part, by having experienced professionals share their knowledge with students through lectures, but mainly, by temporarily incorporating students into companies through curricular internships. Previous research has acknowledged the importance of practical learning through the professional socialization of students. Such practice allows students to experiment their future work reality in a real-world scenario, as well as to make contacts that will most likely help them enter the work market (González et al., 2006). Moreover, internships allow students to develop highly desirable professional competencies (López & Romero, 2004). For these reasons, most first graduate and master's degree programs include an internship, aiming to improve their students' competitiveness. In this context, studies focused on the importance of internships (e.g., Kokkinos et al., 2016) evaluate students' impressions before and after the internship, as well as professors' and specialists' views.

Aiming to further explore the contribution of practical disciplines to university students' professional development, the present work analyses a series of aspects of a higher education training program: the master's degree in Tourism Management and Planning of the University of Vigo (Spain). To this end, reports on all the 182 internships carried out within the program between 2008 and 2014 were analyzed. This allowed the researchers to identify the preferred companies by students within the program, as well as to summarize how students evaluate the internship and their level of satisfaction with the selected company.

BACKGROUND

Professional and higher education students' performance has historically been evaluated exclusively through traditional assessment methods, that is, the comparison between the objectives defined for each discipline and the results achieved by students in exams and assignments (Smith & Tyler, 1942). However, a series of events has led to a shift in this model. First, professors gradually realized that universities' contribution to innovation, and consequently, to companies' and places' competitiveness, takes place through the professional preparation they provide to students (Afonso & Borrego, 2009). Therefore, the main purpose of a higher education program is to prepare students for their professional lives, providing them with full conditions to carry out a job (García & Iglesias, 2010) and become reflective practitioners (Bruno & Dell'Aversana, 2018). Considering these aspects, it is only natural to conclude that the content of professional university degrees' curricula must respond to changes in the labor market's demands.

Today, teacher education programs are expected to train professionals prepared to face the challenges of the 21st century. Students should have the possibility to acquire theoretical knowledge, but also opportunities to establish crucial connections between theory and practice (Mont & Masats, 2019). Most educational scientists have emphasized the importance of allowing university students to gain employment exposure as a strategy to ensure employability soon after graduation (Kurunaratne & Perera, 2019).

Amongst these changes, most jobs now require a minimum of experience, as well as a set of competencies and desirable traits from job applicants, such as such as teamwork skills and resiliency to criticism (Águeda & Cruz, 2005). In this context, the knowledge acquired in the classroom *per se* is not enough to prepare future professionals. Accordingly, evaluating students' performance solely through exams and assignments no longer makes sense. To adapt to this reality, university degree programs must fulfil two requirements: students must be the protagonists of their training and learn how to work as a team. To this end, several technical, social, methodological and participative competencies need to be included in higher education programs, e.g., communication skills, which are highly required in the current labor market (Corral et al., 2010). In this context, the inclusion of such characteristics in university degrees' curricula became urgent.

As a response to those changes, higher, professional, and even secondary education institutions have focused on developing students' specific competencies (Villa & Poblete, 2004). A competency, in this context, is understood as an individual's subjacent characteristic that enables him/her to successfully perform at a certain job (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1999). According to Villa and Poblete (2004), that includes 1: the person's level of expertise, that is, what they know; 2: their talent to carry out a task, that is, their abilities and dexterity; and 3: their manner and attitudes towards themselves and others. As part of the changes adopted to provide these competencies, universities gradually shifted to a more continuous, comprehensive and plural method of evaluation, based on experimental procedures and adapted to each situation (Andrews & Cronbach, 1973). This trend led to the Bologna Process, which aims to adapt university training to social demands, as well as to increase the quality and competitiveness of future professionals.

Also considering the goal of developing the competencies required by the labor market, institutions realized they needed to provide students with a more significant contact with business reality (Kemmis et al., 2013). This can be achieved, in part, by having professionals come to teaching institutions and share their knowledge and experience with students. However, Orrell (2004) argues that to fully develop the competencies required by the market, and thus get the most out of their higher education, students need to be immersed in a real-world scenario and be supervised by qualified and experiment professionals. Considering this argument, it is natural to conclude that internships are the most effective way to provide such scenario, as it is the most significant and immersive experience of business reality students can get during a graduate or master's degree.

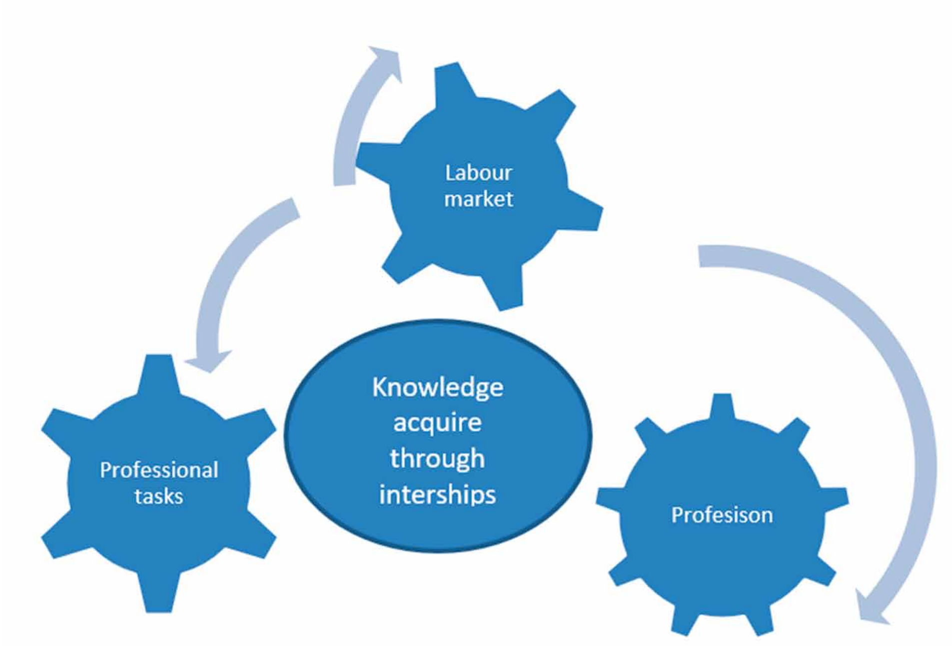
Historically, such component of professional education has had a significant importance, but only for certain careers, e.g., nursing and teaching (Zabalza, 2013). More recently, in order to improve the quality of teaching programs (Martínez, 2009) and provide students with the professional competencies required by the labor market, universities and professional education institutions started adopting curricular internships as part of the curriculum in many different areas. Currently, curricular internships are considered a moment of initiation, filled with learning and experience (Zabalza, 2011), for students of the most diverse professional areas. In this context, they play a fundamental role in students' personal and professional development, and consequently, in their performance in future jobs.

Considering these contributions, it becomes clear that internships are not limited to a method trough which students acquire certain skills. They also contribute with many other aspects of their development as a professional, as they allow them to get used to an organizational culture, acquire a higher sense of responsibility and apply their knowledge and competencies in real-world settings. This is achieved through a twofold guidance and follow-up system, which includes the academic and the company tutors (García & Iglesias, 2011). In this context, students are guided and oriented, within the host company, through a series of real-world activities, so they can experience the industry's reality first-hand. Moreover, internships allow students to experience the dimensions, the routines, the conditions, the roles and other vicissitudes of a work environment (Espelt & Mañà, 2011), as graphically represented in Figure 1. In sum, curricular internships became one of the main tools to provide students with a solid training, and the market with qualified professionals.

Theoretically, curricular and professional internships have been contextualized within the concept of "practicum". According to the European Letter of Practicum Quality (2013), the concept encompasses three general situations:

- A temporary work period during students' higher education program, which corresponds to a certain number of credits, and during which the status of student in maintained;
- A period of work independent of a higher education program that does not implicate in a tittle.

Figure 1. The three levels of internship outcomes
Source: adapted from Espelt & Mañà (2011)



- Any type of work experience like the ones previously described that offers an opportunity of learning through work.

In sum, the concept of practicum might be either connected to university studies or independent from it. The key aspect that defines it is the opportunity of learning through work as the main goal of the work itself, (Maurer, Weiss y Barbeite, 2003). Up from the 1980s, the practicum has been investigated by many studies, which seek to conceptualize it in a useful manner, considering its role as a relevant subject in university programs (e.g., Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; McIntyre, Byrd & Foxx, 1996; Zabalza, 2006). Some of these studies have shown that there are three sets of factors that influence professional and higher education studies' learning process: personal factors (beliefs, capacities, etc.), program factors (mainly the curriculum), and field factors (sector activities). Studies have also shown that the practicum is the only subject that employs these three sources together. As pointed out by Feiman-Nemser et al. (1986), it is the right moment to gather and employ all the acquired knowledge and competencies.

Previous research has also corroborated the importance of curricular internships to provide students with a period of professional socialization, and therefore, lead to a greater understanding of real-world business practices, as well as to a kickstart in their professional lives (González et al., 2006). Moreover, studies have shown that internships play a significant role in developing practical knowledge and abilities (López & Romero, 2004), as they allow students to employ the theoretical knowledge they acquired during their courses in a real-world environment. In this context, some researches (e.g., Mokkinos et al., 2016) have focused on evaluating students', professors' and experts' impressions regarding internships programs. More specifically, researchers analyze students' experiences during the internship against their expectations regarding it.

Building on the addressed contributions, the present study focuses on the first situation encompassed by the concept of practicum, that is, a temporary work period during students' higher education program that corresponds to a certain number of credits. The tourism industry requires that greater attention be paid not only to the quality of products and services, but also to the quality of the human resources that constitute one of its main assets, since tourism is essentially a people-centred service industry (Wakelin-Theron et al., 2019). Because of this, more specifically, this study aims to analyze how internships contribute to the professional development of masters' students. The research procedures carried out to achieve this goal are described in the following chapter.

OBJECTIVE AND METHODOLOGY

The main goal of the present investigation is to address the contribution of curricular internships to the professional development of master's students. To this end, the University Master in Tourism Management and Planning of the University of Vigo was adopted as a reference case. program began in 2006, as an official postgraduate program, consisting of 120 ECTS1 credits, which is the equivalent to two academic courses. Back then, the program already included a discipline called "prácticas" (internship), with 9 ECTS credits, which required 300 hours of internship in an organization.

In order to adapt the masters' program to the Bologna Process's standards, the its syllabus had to be reformulated and its duration had to be shortened. This is how the current University Master's Degree in Management and Planning of Inland and Health Tourism was created, in 2011. The program comprised 60 ECTS credits. When redesigning the syllabus, none of the professors involved doubted the necessity of including an internship. Therefore, despite the program including a much smaller amount of total credits when compared to the original, the same amount (9) is still dedicated to the internship. In this context, internships have the same duration, objectives and monitoring methods as in the previous version of the program. For these reasons, internships form the old and the new programs are analyzed together within the present study.

Once the internship is finished, the company must evaluate the student through an official document. Accordingly, the student must evaluate the company by filling in a questionnaire. The company's evaluation defines the grade the student will receive in the discipline. On the other hand, the questionnaire filled by the student improves the program's coordinators' knowledge on how the companies deal with the internship and which conditions they provide the students.

To achieve the proposed research objective, 182 evaluation questionnaires were retrieved from the university's records, covering all the internships carried out from 2008 to 2014. These surveys assessed the students' practices in a total of 40 different companies (20 hotels, 7 thermal establishments, 6 town councils, 5 travel agencies and 2 other types), thus obtaining significant data in various areas of the tourism sector.When filling out the questionnaire, students are solicited to show their level of satisfaction regarding a series of aspects of the internships program through a 5-point Likert scale. The evaluation items include the activities students carried out during the internship, the information they received, their academic tutor's performance, their professional tutor (form the company), and their perceived level on integration within the company. The questionnaire also includes two dichotomic (yes or no) questions about whether the students' expectations with the internship program, as well as with their work shift and work plan, were met.

The examination of scholarship evaluation forms allowed for the identification of the internship possibilities offered by the program, students' criteria for selecting an organization, and students' evaluation of their own experience as an intern. Such analysis provided some insights on the role of internships in tourism student's academic and professional formation and employment opportunities.

MAIN RESULTS

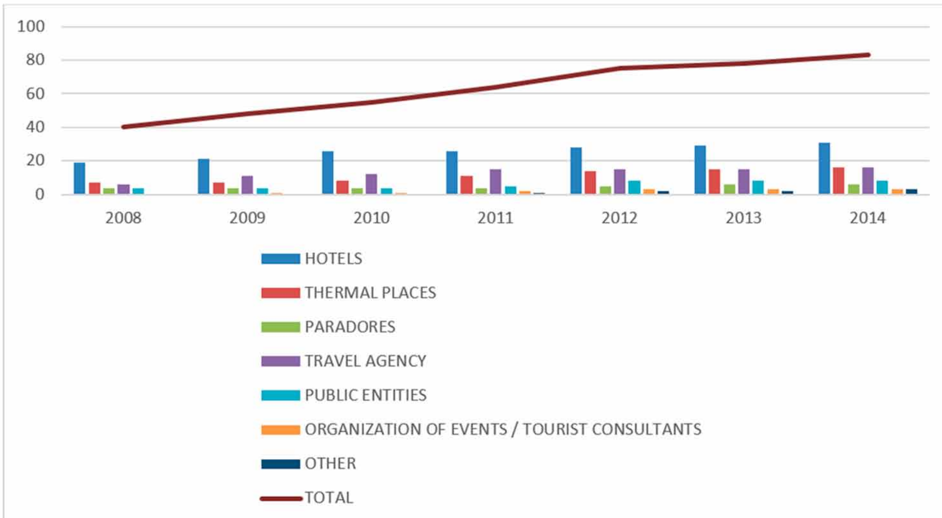
Regarding the companies in which the program allows students to carry out their internships, the offer is relatively varied. Back in 2008, the masters' program had protocol with approximately 40 companies, all located in Spain. Still in the first year of the internship program, it started offering the possibility of carrying out internships in other European countries through the Leonardo da Vinci Scholarship of the Provincial Council of Ourense. Such opportunity has been communicated to students every year. In the first year, four out of the 25 students enrolled decided to take this route, and carried out internships in the United Kingdom, France and Portugal.

The initial set of 40 companies has been incremented throughout the analyzed period. This was made possible both through agreements carried out by the course's coordination and through requests made by students. Currently, there are over 80 companies available, which are divided into seven groups: hotels, thermal facilities (spas, thalassotherapy facilities and hot springs), *Paradores* (Spanish luxury hotels in castles, palaces, convents, monasteries fortresses and other historic buildings), travel agencies, town halls or public entities, tourism consulting companies and event organizers (including active tourism or tourism projects in partnership with other companies, for instance, shopping tourism in a textile company). As shown in Table 2, the hotel group is consistently the most dominant. A total of 19 hotels integrated the pool of companies in the first year, and the number increased to over 30 in the last. However, in terms of the groups' representativeness within the available companies, hotels' dominance has been challenged over the years. They initially accounted for 50% of the total offer, but in 2014, their representativeness had decreased to 37%, as other groups, such as thermal establishments and travel agencies, gained more relevance (19.27% each of them, in 2014). These changes reflect, to a great extent, the demands of the students. This is particularly true for thermal establishments, a Galician tourist specialty that is the main reason for many students to choose tourism as a professional area in the first place.

Regarding the number of students who carried out internships, up to the 2009/2010 school year, when 25 places were offered by the masters' program, it oscillated between 19 and 25. In 2009, the blended (semi-presential) modality was introduced, which allowed for the expansion of the number of places to 40: 25 for the face-to-face program and 15 for the blended one. Accordingly, enrollment figures rose. Between 2009 and 2014, it ranged from a minimum of 26 to a maximum of 38 (considering only new enrollments). It should be clarified that not all students participate in the internship program, as many opt for the blended modality precisely because they already have a part-time, or even a full-time job, in the tourism sector, which dispenses them of the need to carry out this practical component. The year with the highest number of enrolled students, 2012 was a special case, as this was the year when the internships of the old and the new masters' programs took place simultaneously, which resulted in a total of 38 internships, as seen in Table 1.

Upon analyzing the internships carried out during the first two years (before the advent of the blended modality), a common trend is observed. Hotels are the most attractive option, accounting to almost 40% of internships. Students' opinions point to two reasons for this: 1) many students who have not carried

Figure 2. Companies where students can carry out their internships per type (2008-2014)



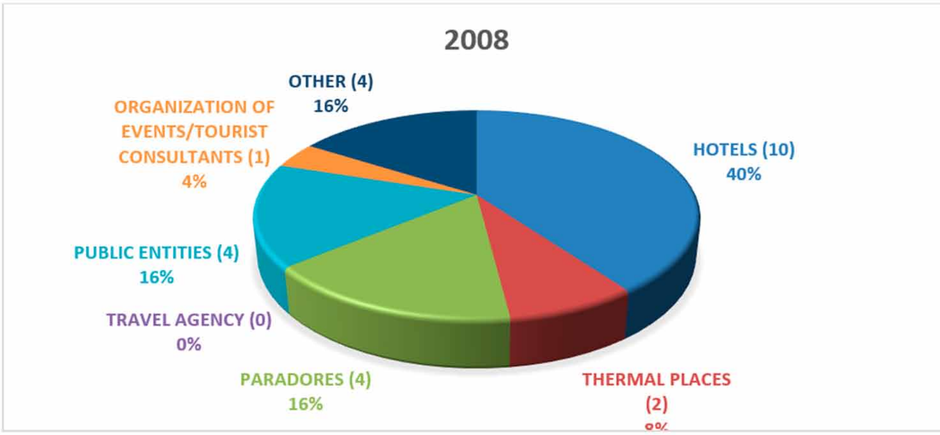
out internships in hotels during their graduate studies think that experiencing a hotel's operations, starting from the reception, is essential to their training; and 2) a significant part of students who have already carried out an internship at a hotel's reception during their graduate studies is eager to experience departments and functions that imply greater responsibilities (HR, marketing, address...) during the master. The remaining practices are carried out mostly in public organizations (town halls, tourist offices, tourism marketing organizations, etc.) travel agencies and thermal establishments. During the first year of the master's program, a special interest in *Paradores* was noticed, as 4 students chose Sto Parador. Estevo de Ribas de Sil and Parador de Monforte. Another popular option in the first years was the Leonardo DaVinci scholarship, which attracted four students in 2008, as mentioned in the methodology section, and five in 2009 (see Figures 3 and 4).

Up from 2010 (2009/2010 school year), the blended modality started being offered. However, the number of internships did not rise accordingly, as most students in this modality already work in the

Table 1. Number of students who carried out who participated in the internship program per year (2008-2014)

Year	Number of students
2008	25
2009	19
2010	20
2011	28
2012	38
2013	26
2014	26
TOTAL	182

Figure 3. Internships per company type (2008)



tourism sector. Regarding the representativeness of company types, hotels kept leading the rank, as they attracted 50% of students. The remaining internships were carried out, once again, mainly in thermal establishments, travel agencies and public entities. These results are summarized in Figure 5.

When addressing the internships carried out in the context of a masters' degree, employability should also be considered. In the most favorable cases, students were incorporated into the company immediately after the end of the internship period, or a few months later, when a vacancy came up. In 2012, these former students were contacted via mail and asked about their employment status. Table 2 summarizes former the data regarding students who have been hired by the company where the internship was carried out. Additionally, one student from the 2007/2009 school year carried out her internship in an event organizing company, after which she decided to create her own company, which is still active.

The evaluation of internships by students and vice versa is rather consistent throughout the years. The items that make up this construct show high reliability (Cronbach's alpha=0.845). The companies evalu-

Figure 4. Internships carried out per company type (2009)

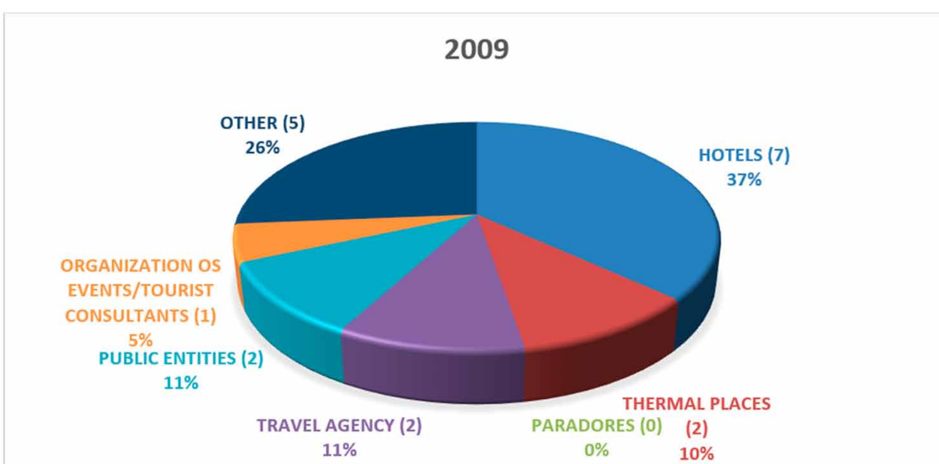
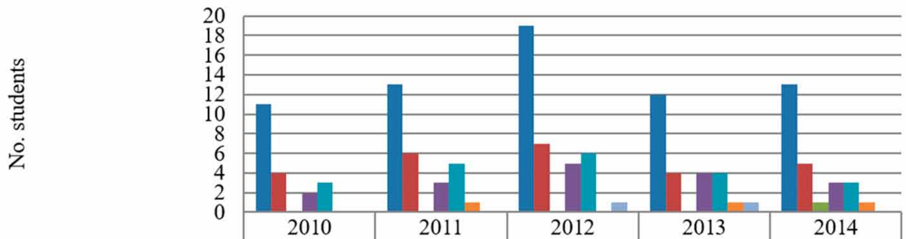


Figure 5. Internships carried out during from 2010 to 2014



	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
HOTELS	11	13	19	12	13
THERMAL PLACES	4	6	7	4	5
PARADORES	0	0	0	0	1
TRAVEL AGENCY	2	3	5	4	3
PUBLIC ENTITIES	3	5	6	4	3
ORGANIZATION OF EVENTS / TOURIST CONSULTANTS	0	1	0	1	1
OTHER	0	0	1	1	0

ate students very positively, as the average score is 4.5, in a scale from 1 to 5. Only in one exceptional case, the student got a score lower tan 3, as he abandoned his activities before the end of the internship period. Accordingly, students also value the host companies very positively. As shown in Table 4, the items of evaluation of the program all have an average score of at least 4.6, and 5 is the most common response. The items in which below average values are found correspond directly to the company, i.e., internship tutor and perceived level of integration. Nevertheless, these items still present rather high values, and the below average scores are associated with punctual cases of dissatisfaction.

Table 2. Students hired by the company where they carried out the internship

Company	Nº of hired students	Observations
AC Hotel Villa de Allariz (Ourense)	1	Currently hired
Le Meridien Ra Beach (Tarragona)	2	Temporary contracts of up to two years
Eurostars Ourense (Auriense y San Clodio)	4	One is currently hired
Ibernisha (Termas Chavasqueira y Outariz)	3	One is currently hired
Gala Termal (Mondariz)	1	Contract finished
Consorcio Turismo A Ribeira Sacra (Ourense)	1	Currently hired
The Westin Valencia	1	Temporary contract
Paradores	3	Two are currently hired

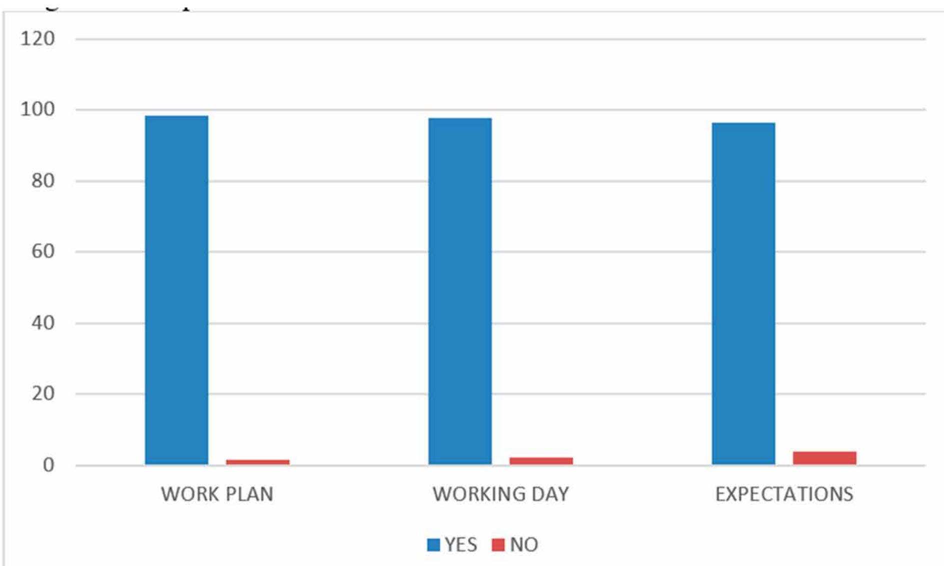
Regarding the work plan, working shifts and whether the program met students' expectations, results are also very positive. As shown in Figure 6, over 96% of students are satisfied with these aspects. The tourism industry, and specially the hospitality sector, has many positions that need to filled 24 hours a

Table 3. Evaluation of the internship program

Evaluation items	Mean	Median	Mode	Min.	Max.
General satisfaction with the internship program	4.76	5	5	2	5
Satisfaction with the information provided about the internship program	4.90	5	5	3	5
Satisfaction with the internship	4.83	5	5	2	5
Satisfaction with the academic tutor	4.87	5	5	3	5
Satisfaction with the company tutor	4.68	5	5	1	5
Perceived level of integration within the company	4.66	5	5	1	5
GLOBAL MEAN	4.78	5	5	2	5
*Respondents evaluated each item in a scale from 1 to 5, whereas 1 = “totally dissatisfied” and 5 = “totally satisfied.					

day, every day of the year. To meet these demands, companies need to have their employees working in atypical working shifts, which often includes resting days during the week, rather than in the weekend. The same goes for companies that organize events, which very often take place on weekends. Although companies normally attempt to give trainees a more forgiving schedule, so they can still meet their academic obligations, they often need to request their participation in activities outside of their habitual work shift, which displeases some students. Even so, these are punctual cases, as most students are aware of the demands of the tourism industry before deciding to try and join it. In sum, students attribute a great value to participating in the companies’ routines.

Figure 6. Students satisfaction with the work plan, their work shifts and with how the experience met their expectations (%)



Finally, possible links between the type of company (hotel, thermal establishment, travel agency...), or school year, and the evaluation of the internship program were analyzed. A Pearson chi-square test pointed to a dependency relationship (significance values lower than .05), between the type of company and students' general satisfaction with the internship program. Moreover, a similar relationship was found between the school year and the general satisfaction with the internship program, the satisfaction with the academic tutor, the satisfaction with the company tutor, and the perceived level of integration within the company, as summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Pearson's Chi-square tests' results

	bilateral asymptotic Sig.	
	Company	**School year**
General satisfaction with the internship program	.03	.000
Satisfaction with the information provided about the internship program	.578	.144
Satisfaction with the internship	.760	.000
Satisfaction with the work plan	.925	.678
Satisfaction with the work shifts	.966	.360
Degree to which the program met the student's expectations	.551	.238
Satisfaction with the academic tutor	.239	.036
Satisfaction with the company tutor	.720	.029
Perceived level of integration within the company	.567	.002

Figure 7. Relationship between company time and general satisfaction with the internship program

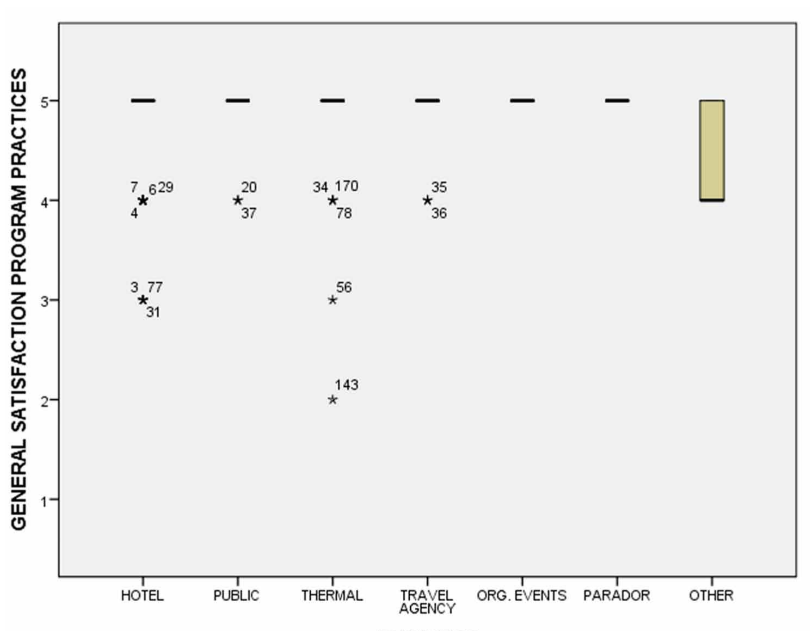


Figure 8. Relationship between school year and evaluation items: general satisfaction with the internship program, satisfaction with the internship, satisfaction with the academic tutor, satisfaction with the company tutor and perceived level of integration within the company

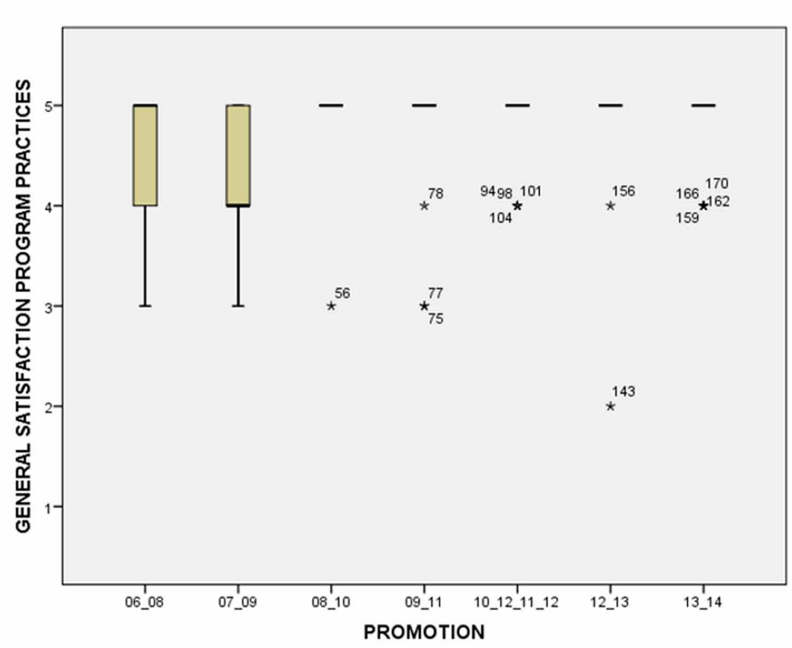


Figure 9. Relationship between school year and evaluation items: general satisfaction with the internship program, satisfaction with the internship, satisfaction with the academic tutor, satisfaction with the company tutor and perceived level of integration within the company

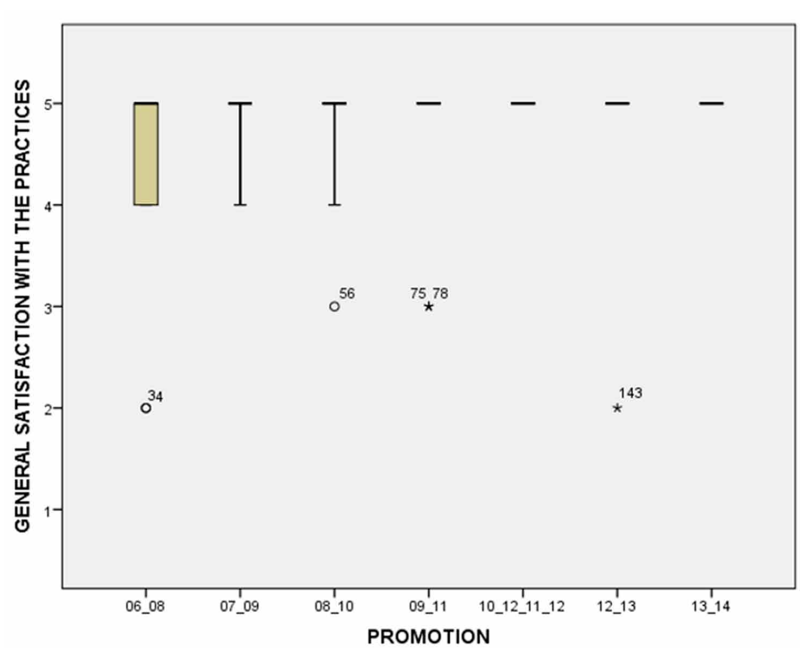


Figure 10. Relationship between school year and evaluation items: general satisfaction with the internship program, satisfaction with the internship, satisfaction with the academic tutor, satisfaction with the company tutor and perceived level of integration within the company

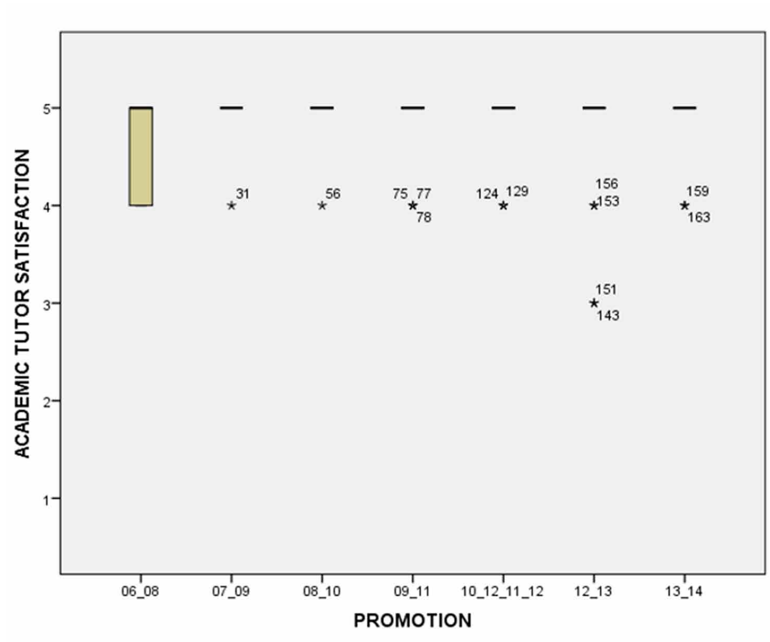


Figure 11. Relationship between school year and evaluation items: general satisfaction with the internship program, satisfaction with the internship, satisfaction with the academic tutor, satisfaction with the company tutor and perceived level of integration within the company

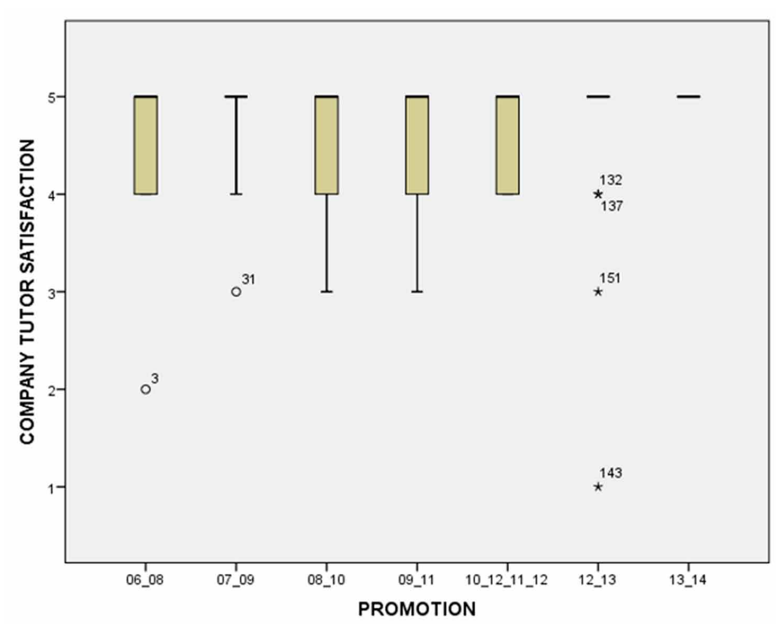
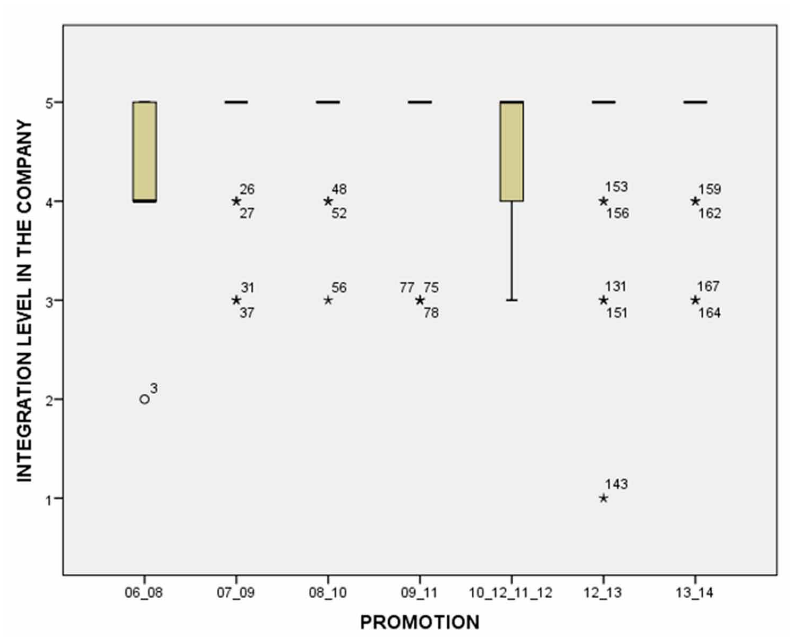


Figure 12. Relationship between school year and evaluation items: general satisfaction with the internship program, satisfaction with the internship, satisfaction with the academic tutor, satisfaction with the company tutor and perceived level of integration within the company



Regarding the link between company type and general satisfaction with the program, students who carry out their internships in hotels and thermal establishments tend to be less satisfied, as shown in Figure 7. Regarding the school year, students who carried out the internship in 2012-2013 tend to score lower in all satisfaction items. The five cases correspond to the same individuals (evaluations 1, 2 and 3). Regarding the satisfaction with the academic tutor, there is one additional individual who scored 3. In the year 2008-2009, one respondent scored 3 in some items, and in 2009-2011, two respondents scored 3 in the first variables (general satisfaction with the internship program and satisfaction with the internship *per se*). Even so, as shown in figures 8, 9, 10 and 11, most of the sample answered 4 or 5 for in all items.

CONCLUSION

Within the current higher education model, providing students with a chance to experience the labor market is essential. Due to the demands of such market, the knowledge acquired through theoretical expositive classes are not enough to prepare future successful professionals. In this context, bringing professionals to share their knowledge and sending students to have real-world experience in companies are common practices. In this context, graduate programs normally include a curricular internship as part of their program. The trend is carried on to masters' degrees, which also offer students an opportunity to gain additional experience in the labor world.

Within the Master in Tourism Management and Planning of the University of Vigo, in which 182 internships were carried out between 2008 and 2014, half the students decided to carry out their internship in hotels. Although the master offers a specialty in inland and health tourism, there is indeed a significant amount of disciplines focused on management and planning, in which most students are particularly interested. The possibility of working in thermal establishments, including spas, thalasso-therapy facilities and hot springs, is also amongst the main reasons that motivate students to enroll in the masters' program.

Approximately 30 students carried out their internships in thermal establishments. These include spas that integrate to the Association of Spas of Galicia, such as the Caldaria group, Balneario de Mondariz and Gran Hotel La Toja; thermal baths in the city of Ourense (Ibernisha), and establishments in other regions of Spain (Las Caldas Villa Termal, Asturias, among others). The third most popular company type consists on public institutions, including municipality and public tourism marketing organizations. The programs include disciplines focused on tourist destination planning and promotion, which provide valuable knowledge for professionals aiming to work in such institutions, which is why 27 students chose this route.

In sum, companies benefit from having an apprentice. They do value the opportunity of training students who can later join their staff, or alternatively, improve the local tourism sector by working somewhere else. This is evidenced by their evaluation of the experience, which demonstrates a high level of satisfaction. It should also be noticed that, despite the current economic crisis, some students are indeed hired by the host company when a vacancy arises, as they already have the basic training and are familiar with the company's routines. Accordingly, students are also highly benefited, as they can experience their work reality for the first time and acquire skills that cannot be achieved solely in the classroom. This is also evidenced by students' evaluation of the internship program, according to which, in the great majority of cases, the experience is satisfactory and meets their expectations, both in terms of the companies and of the programs' goals. Therefore, the findings point to the conclusion that the inclusion of curricular internships in the master's programs has been a success, as it has been widely accepted by students and companies and showed to be an indispensable subject in any program of this type.

For future research, a more complete survey of the companies where students do their internships is planned, in order to find out more precisely how they rate the internship programmes.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Bologna Process: A series of ministerial meeting between European countries aiming to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher education programs in Europe, and thus, facilitate the mobility of students and professionals throughout the continent. To achieve those goals, the European Higher Education Area was created in 2010.

Competence: A cluster of related abilities, commitments, knowledge, and skills that enable a person (or an organization) to act effectively in a job or situation. Competence indicates sufficiency of knowledge and skills that enable someone to act in a wide variety of situations. Because each level of responsibility has its own requirements, competence can occur in any period of a person's life or at any stage of his or her career.

Curricular Internship: Process through which students of a certain academic degree employ the knowledge they acquired and the abilities they developed during the course by temporarily working in a real institution.

European Higher Education Area: A set of agreements and common processes subscribed by over 40 countries in Europe (including all European states but Belarus), aiming to standardize the content of university degrees. It was initiated with the Sorbonne Declaration (1998) and establishes a new structure for Official University Degrees, which allows for increasing employment opportunities of students and graduates, favoring their mobility between European countries.

Health and Wellness Tourism: Are among the oldest forms of tourism. Ancient civilisations as far back as 5000-1000 bc practised many of the therapies which are found in spas today (e.g. Ayurveda, Chinese medicine, Thai massage). Greeks introduced water treatments to the Roman Empire and the Romans built some of the first spas in Europe. Hebrews engaged in ritual purification through immersion in the Dead Sea; the Ottoman Empire built Turkish baths; and the first forms of thalassotherapy (visits to sea water resorts) took place in the eighteenth century.

Higher Education: Any of various types of education given in postsecondary institutions of learning and usually affording, at the end of a course of study, a named degree, diploma, or certificate of higher studies. Higher-educational institutions include not only universities and colleges but also various professional schools that provide preparation in such fields as law, theology, medicine, business, music, and art. Higher education also includes teacher-training schools, junior colleges, and institutes of technology. The basic entrance requirement for most higher-educational institutions is the completion of secondary education, and the usual entrance age is about 18 years.

Official Master: Special degree accredited by ANECA (in Spain) and recognized by the countries that integrate the European Higher Education Area. It gives access to Doctoral studies.

Skill: An ability and capacity acquired through deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to smoothly and adaptively carryout complex activities or job functions involving ideas (cognitive skills), things (technical skills), and/or people (interpersonal skills).

Thermal Establishment: Socio-sanitary establishment that employs mineral-medicinal waters, medical services, and adequate facilities to carry out prescribed treatments and leisure activities. They may or may not have hotel facilities.

Tourism Planning: Relates to the same basic concepts and approaches as general planning; however, it is adapted to the specific characteristics of the tourism system. A plan can be defined as a set of various decisions for action in the future (Hall, 2000). Several authors agree that the most significant feature of any type of planning, including tourism planning, is its orientation towards the future (Hall, 2000; Gunn, 2002). According to Inskeep (1991), planning for tourism is a step-by-step process which should be continuous, comprehensive, integrated, and environmental, focusing on achieving sustainable development and community involvement. Gunn (2002) similarly suggests that tourism planning should be directed towards four main goals: sustainable use of resources, enhanced visitor satisfaction, integration of local community and area and improved economy and business success.

University Degree: The first cycle of official university education. It consists is the general training of the student in one or several disciplines, aiming to prepare them for exercising professional activities.

University Institution: Usually comprising a college of liberal arts and sciences and graduate and professional schools and having the authority to confer degrees in various fields of study. A university differs from a college in that it is usually larger, has a broader curriculum, and offers graduate and professional degrees in addition to undergraduate degrees. Although universities did not arise in the West until the Middle Ages in Europe, they existed in some parts of Asia and Africa in ancient times.

Work Experience: Is any experience that a person gains while working in a specific field or occupation, but the expression is widely used to mean a type of volunteer work that is commonly intended for young people—often students—to get a feel for professional working environments. The American equivalent term is internship. Though the placements are usually unpaid, travel and food expenses are sometimes covered, and at the end of the appointment, a character reference is usually provided. Trainees usually have the opportunity to network and make contacts among the working personnel, and put themselves forward for forthcoming opportunities for paid work. Many employers in the more sought after professions demand that every new entrant undergo a period of unpaid "work experience" before being able to get paid work.

Work Plan: A document that systematises of the relevant information for a certain work. It includes methods for interrelating the necessary human, financial, material, and technological resources for a certain task.

ENDNOTE

1 European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System.

Chapter 10
Intangible Cultural Heritage and Management of Educational Tourism:
An Experiential Learning Approach

Burcu Toker
Bahçeşehir Cyprus University, Cyprus

Hamed Rezapouraghdam
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8190-6565
Bahçeşehir Cyprus University, Cyprus

ABSTRACT

Travel has been advocated as a fortifying ground for experiential learning that can engage individuals in numerous experiences through the observation of the destination society and culture. In spite of the vast literature available about the link between tourism and experiential learning outcomes, there are limited studies that gauge educational tourists' familiarity with the intangible cultural heritage of their host communities. Particularly, this study focuses on local food, which is known as a marker of the destination culture and an intangible heritage that plays an inevitable role in almost any tourism experience. Correspondingly, the current exploratory study took an experiential learning approach to understand educational tourists' knowledge about local foods in Cyprus. The findings of the research revealed that educational tourists have very meager knowledge of local foods. The discussion is accordingly provided.

INTRODUCTION

Undoubtedly, tourism is one of the pioneers of the experience economy (Akhsik et al., 2020; Quan & Wang, 2004). Besides its economic aspects and impacts (Alipour et al., 2017; 2019), this social phenomenon also provides numerous socio-cultural opportunities both for the locals and travelers. In this regard, it is believed that tourism provides an effective context for achieving lifelong learning proceeding

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch010

(Broomhall, Pitman, Majocha, & Mcewan) and travel has been asserted to be a fortifying ground for experiential learning (Falk, Ballantyne, Packer, & Benckendorff, 2012). Especially, as a focus of this study participation in local food tourism networks has several positive outcomes such as learning spillovers and enhancing human capital (Dougherty et al., 2013). Plenty of benefits are attributed to the experiential learning in tourism such as social and cultural awareness, gaining new knowledge and perspective among others (Stone & Petrick, 2013) and the learning outcomes as the result of traveling experiences such as cultural understanding (Richards & Wilson, 2003), gaining cross-cultural competencies (Laubscher, 1994) and increase in the knowledge and skills (Alexander, Bakir, & Wickens, 2010) have been asserted in the literature. Unlike the emphasis on learning through formal education approach, it is believed that learning is a lifelong process which is often informal (Mitchell, 1998). Tourist experience includes two dimensions known as peak touristic experience and the supporting touristic experience where the former refers to the experience of the major motivation for tourism and the latter deals with the experience of the basic needs on travel such as eating (Quan & Wang, 2004). Among the other forms, the educational tourism, an under-researched discourse in the literature (McGladdery & Lubbe, 2017) is considered as one of the major ways which provide a convenient venue for both the visitors and the destination community to learn and expand or exchange their knowledge (Pittman, 2012). In recent years, the world has experienced drastic growth in the number of educational tourists and educational institutions providing facilities to them (Bodger, 1998). Educational tourism is described as any program in which participants travel to a location with the primary aim of engaging in the learning process. The increase in the number of students taking their study abroad has also expanded the attention of scholars to research various aspects of this phenomenon (Rezapouraghdam, Behravesh, Ari, & Doh, 2018). However, the pace of research in educational tourism has not been paralleled with industry development (McGladdery & Lubbe, 2017). The interaction between hosts and guests is a major dimension of tourists' experience in destinations (Eusébio & Carneiro, 2012). The interaction between tourists and host individuals can be regarded as a distinctive form of cross-cultural interaction. There are many outcomes in which educational tourism begets such as fostering personal and intellectual growth, new language acquisition, enhancing intercultural awareness and also professional development (Falk et al., 2012). Drawing on the socio-cultural constructivist theory, learning is described as interactions between individuals and the socio-cultural environment where based on prior knowledge, new understandings are constructed (Vygotsky, 1978, cited in Moseley et al., 2019). Based on the theory of socio-cultural experiences and interactions, experiential learning has been emblazoned as a philosophy of education (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Study abroad allows for a more authentic educational experience through observing the new society and culture (Levine & Garland, 2015). In sum, the travel can provide the whole prerequisites of experiential learning for individuals (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Integrating experiential opportunities for students through study abroad empowers them to both study and entirely experience cultural differences and similarities (Earnest, Rosenbusch, Wallace-Williams, & Keim, 2016). It was argued that encountering an unfamiliar socio-cultural context, although challenging made the students actively engage in the socio-cultural and academic practices of their host community to adjust and adapt themselves (Gill, 2007). The literature asserted that there are various positive outcomes regarding study abroad such as acquiring new information about the social, geographical, political, history, people and the culture of the host destination (Chieffo, 2007). Nonetheless, despite the widespread pieces of evidence about the influence of travel experiences on individuals' learning (Stone & Petrick, 2013), one of the experiential learning aspects of tourism that has received less attention is the familiarity of tourists with the local destination food culture. In the literature food has been frequently used as a cultural marker (McKercher, Okumus, & Okumus, 2008) and also an expression of the local culture (Kim & Iwashita, 2016) and it is believed that "culture can be learned through individuals' experiences" (Zhang, Zhou, & Stodolska, 2018, p. 6) crystalized in human beings' everyday language. To fill this gap, the current study seeks to find an answer to the following question: To what extent are the educational tourists who spend considerably a longer period in host communities are familiar with the local and traditional foods from their hosts? There are several significant contributions that the research points to. First of all, educational tourism has received proportionately little attention in the tourism literature (McGladdery & Lubbe, 2017). Secondly, this study targets Northern Cyprus as a study setting that also exacerbates the significance of the research more for a number of reasons. Educational tourism (Edu-tourism) is one of the major sources of economy for Northern Cyprus (Rezapouraghdam et al., 2018) and due to inevitable economic contribution of edu-tourism in many societies, scholars suggested for understanding various aspects of this sector in order to apply appropriate managerial strategies for acquiring sustainable development outcomes for the host communities (Rezapouraghdam et al., 2018). Thirdly, food, an intangible heritage, and tourism have emerged as a chief theme in tourism research and it has witnessed unprecedented growth in recent decades (Ellis, Park, Kim, & Yeoman, 2018). Moreover, there is a knowledge gap between intangible cultural heritage and tourism context (Sotiriadis, 2017). Fourthly, Mediterranean Diet has been recently inscribed in the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization' (UNESCO) list of the intangible cultural heritage of humanity (NO. 00884, 2013, Baku). This event has attracted attention to the remarkable role of traditional foods in the sustainable development of tourism destinations in the Mediterranean basin (Cyprus in this case). Since, the kind of foods provided for tourists in destinations has great implications for the social, cultural and environmental sustainability of the communities, it is so important for host communities to understand the tourists' preferences and consumption of traditional foods (Amuquandoh & AsafoAdjei, 2013). Finally, this is one of the first attempts in the case of Northern Cyprus which through the triangulation method observes the knowledge of educational tourists about the local foods (Toker, Rezapouraghdam, 2019). Additionally, the previous study propounded that the food experience affects the destination image and it is linked with the satisfaction of travelers and memory of the destination and also impacts the intention of the tourists to return to the destination (Stone, Migacz, & Wolf, 2019). In other words, the local food and cuisine which play an inevitable role in the formation of destination image and identity can be used as a strategy for the promotion of tourism development and success (Lai, Khoo-Lattimore, & Wang, 2019).

Based on the aforementioned rationalities and because of the potential cultural representative power that educational tourists can have in the future to the sustainable development of their host communities; of course in case they accumulate adequate familiarity with the culture, this study may contain valuable implications for various stakeholders accordingly.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND THE BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Experiential learning theory (ELT) (Kolb, 1984) can provide a framework to understand the link between learning and traveling. ELT concentrates on the role of experience in the learning process (Levine & Garland, 2015). Kolb's (1984) formulation of ELT draws on the studies of previous scholars such as Dewey (1938) and highlights the critical role of experience in influencing the learning and change. This theory (see Figure 1), in fact, merges the experience, perception, cognition, and behavior to construct learning. This theory proposes that people engage in recursive cycles of the following dimensions: a) concrete experience, b) reflective observation, c) abstract conceptualization and d) active experimentation (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). The reflection is the key aspect of this theory (Stone & Petrick, 2013) and the traveling experience provides a chance for the travelers to reflect on the experience which consequently leads to learning (Mouton, 2002).

The knowledge in ELT is contemplated as the transaction between two forms of knowledge; social knowledge and personal knowledge. The social knowledge is co-constructed in the socio-historical context and the personal one which is the subjective experience of the learner (Passarelli & Kolb, 2012). Based on the ELT, learning is defined as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 41).

Passareli and Kolb (2012) discuss that learning needs a *space* to occur- a multi-dimensional concept which includes social, cultural, institutional, psychological and the physical aspects and ELT considers all of the dimensions of the learning space together in the learners' experience. The concept of learning space is founded on Kurt Lewin's field theory and his concept of "life space" (1951). For the learners to fully engage in the learning cycle, space should be provided to engage in the four modes of the cycle (Figure 1): feeling, reflection, thinking, and action (Passareli & Kolb, 2012). This space should be characterized as a welcoming and hospitable, supportive and safe one that also creates challenges for the learner at the same time so that learners can be in charge of their learning (Passareli & Kolb, 2012). Montrose (2002) stated that EL sends learners out of the classroom and to the complex world to challenge their abilities to take responsibility for their knowledge. Thus through this process, the students do not memorize the information but they create their ideas. Tourism and study abroad have several common factors out of which the "travel" is the central component of each and for that reason, many of the advantages of study abroad can be affected by touristic activities (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Touristic adventure and outdoor activities have resulted in learning experiences (Koseoglu & Doering, 2011)

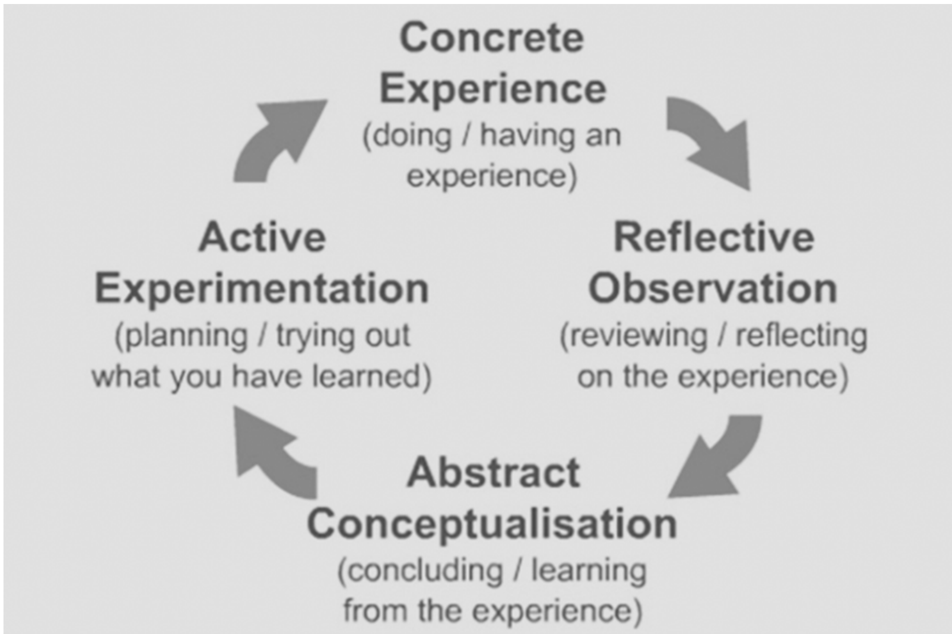
Study abroad programs are believed to be one of the methods of experiential learning that can engage students in various ranges of experiences (Mason & Thier, 2018). Study abroad has been reported as one of the major experiences of students within studying their undergraduate program (Paige, Fry, Stallman, Josić, & Jon, 2009). Experiential learning has been proposed to be a valuable teaching technique for cultural competencies (Weaver, 1998). Morgan and Xu's study (2009) notes for many students experiencing a different culture and interacting with the locals correspond to memorable experiences of tourism trips.

The authors assume that there is a connection between educational tourists' level of familiarity with local foods and the ELT. Based on the learning cycle of ELT (Figure. 1), the educational tourists during their study abroad start observing the host culture environment (concrete experience) including their food that is a part of the culture. In the next mode (reflective observation), based on their concrete experience educational tourists notice the experience they had and they reflect on their observation and compare what is familiar for them. Later, to further analyze and also adopt the new concepts, the educational tourists' reflection is assimilated into new cultural knowledge (abstract conceptualization). At the final stage, they engage in testing their newly acquired knowledge (active experimentation) which consequently leads to a new cultural experience as well as a new learning cycle (Zhang et al., 2018).

Northern Cyprus and Educational Tourism

Educational tourism is described as any program in which participants travel to a location with the primary aim of engaging in the learning process. This type of tourism has a wide range of subcategories

Figure 1. Davies and Lowe (n.d.) based on Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model. Source: Stone and Petrick (2013).



that international students are one of them. Educational tourism is an under-researched discourse in the literature which was called to move from the periphery of academic research (McGladdery & Lubbe, 2017). On the other side, the nations which take advantage of the economic revenues of this sort of tourism are not a few (Bhuiyan et al., 2010). International students are considered as one of the major groups of educational tourists (Huang, 2008). North Cyprus is a small Mediterranean island, and thus its economy is tightly interwoven with the tourism industry (Rezapouraghdam, Alipour, & Darvishmotevali, 2018). Undoubtedly, the contribution of higher education institutions (educational tourism centers) such as Eastern Mediterranean University to the development and economy of Northern Cyprus is so immense. The main economic activities in the region after tourism are education, construction, and industrial production. Nowadays this destination is the home for thousands of educational tourists and of course, their families and relatives who temporary travel and stay with them. Due to this fact, a huge number of restaurants and fast-food houses are working where educational tourists' study (Hassannia, Rezapouraghdam, & Darvishmotevali, 2016) and accordingly educational tourists have lots of food choices in their surroundings particularly since small and sized Cypriot cuisine restaurants are gaining popularity in recent years in the region. In the context of this study, it is conceptualized that the experience of local food is a supporting means of the main purpose of travel for educational tourists. Therefore, it is reasonable to consider that educational tourists in one way or another might have experienced and accordingly had got acquaintance with the local foods of their host community. As discussed earlier it is of great importance for the tourism destinations to understand and measure the extent to which their tourists are familiar with their local foods.

METHODOLOGY

A two-stage methodology was used in this study to explore educational tourists' knowledge about the local food in their host community. In the first attempt using a purposive sampling technique (Tongco, 2007) the key informants were chosen by authors. The respondents were originating from different regions of the island to have a suitable representative from the community. Initial appointments were made by the informants and then the authors contacted the respondents in 2019. The semi-structured interviews were conducted in the participants' homes and on average each interview lasted between 15 to 30 minutes. Among the other questions related to foods, the respondents were asked to mention a list of the most popular local and traditional foods in their area of residency. In total 14 women (54-69 years old) were interviewed and the process continued so that the saturation of the data was ensured. After transcribing the interviews and conducting a content analysis method (Weber, 1990), a list of 20 food items that were commonly uttered through the conversations by the participants was reached (Table 1).

In the second stage, a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data from the educational tourists consists of 20 food items. Since English is the medium of instruction for educational tourists, no back-translation was deemed to be needed. A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1-5 was used in this study and additional explanations also were provided with each anchor as follows in response to the following question:

Please rate the extent to which you are familiar with any of the following food items:

1 – Not familiar at all (I do not know it at all), 2 – Slightly familiar (The name sounds familiar but I do not know what exactly it is), 3 – Rather familiar (I know it but I have not tried it before), 4 – Familiar (I know it and I have tried it), 5 – Very familiar (I have tried it and I know how to prepare it). Moreover, to control common method variance (Karatepe, Rezapouraghdam, & Hassannia, 2020), the purpose of the study was clearly explained on the cover page of the survey, the anonymity of the respondents was ensured and the demographic questions were included in the last section (Rezapouraghdam, Alipour, & Darvishmotevalli, 2018). In total 160 questionnaires were distributed using a convenience sampling technique (Zikmund, Carr, Babin, & Griffin, 2013), out of which 10 were excluded because of the missing some values. Thereafter, 150 completed surveys were the source of the statistical analysis using SPSS 22. Such a survey, by its very nature, is descriptive and exploratory since no baseline data was available. The results of both phases are provided in the next section.

Results

The result of the first phase of the study is provided in Table 1. The English equivalent of the foods also was included next to items. It should be noted that because the language of the community members in the study setting is not English, the foods are pronounced in their original format.

The Findings of the First Phase of the Study

The resulted list (Table. 1) was later used as the source of the second part of the study as follows:

Table 1. The local food items repeatedly mentioned by the interviewees.

1.	Ceviz Macunu (Walnut preserve)	**11.**	Nor Böreği, (Pastry with sweet cheese and cinnamon filling)
2.	Fırın Kebabı (Slow-cooked meat and potatoes)	**12.**	Paluze (Grape Juice or Carob Extract Pudding)
3.	Garavolli Tatlısı (Pastry filled with cream)	**13.**	Patates köftesi (Meatballs with grated potatoes)
4.	Gullurikya (Pastry cooked in carob syrup)	**14.**	Patates yahnisi (Potatoes cooked in tomato juice)
5.	Herse (Wheat and chicken cooked in broth)	**15.**	Pirohu (Boiled pastry filled with traditional Cypriot cheese)
6.	Kabak Çiceği Dolması, (Stuffed cabbage flowers)	**16.**	Sac Gatmeri (Pastry with honey or sugar)
7.	Kolokas (Colocasia)	**17.**	Samsı (Pastry filled with cracked almonds and cinnamon, in syrup)
8.	Magarina Bulli (Chicken and Pasta in broth)	**18.**	Şeftali Kebabı, (Meatballs rolled in a layer of caul fat)
9.	Molehiya (Corchorus leaves cooked with meat	**19.**	Sulu Muhallebi (Starch pudding with rose syrup)
10.	Mücendra Pilavı (Rice with green lentils and onions)	**20.**	Yahnili Makarna (Chicken and pasta in tomato sauce and broth)

The Findings of the Second Phase of the Study

The respondents' age, education level, length of stay and gender are illustrated in Table 2.

Based on the data (Table. 2), the majority of the respondents were between 18-22 (42%) years old. Both males and females had almost equal participation in the study. For the education, bachelor students had the main group of participants in the study (55.3%) and in general, the participants had spent more than one academic year in the study setting in specific between 3-4 academic years (40.7%).

A series of descriptive analysis was also conducted subsequently to identify the participants' familiarity with each of the foods as well as obtaining a mean of the total respondents' familiarity with foods (Table 3).

According to the findings, the majority of the participants had either no familiarity (56.96%) or they have been slightly familiar (19.57%) with the local traditional foods in Northern Cyprus. In total, 11.64% of the respondents were rather familiar with the foods. It means that they have heard about the food but they had not tasted and tried the food by the date of conducting the research. However, 9.43% of them have already familiar with the foods and they had the opportunity to taste it. In sum, 2.4%of the international students not only have tasted the foods but they even knew how to prepare the local foods. The total mean of the rating (1.80) is another indicator which shows the educational tourists' level of familiarity with the traditional and local foods. To indicate which food items had the most and least familiarity among educational tourists, a descending means analysis by SPSS was applied and the results are provided in Table 4.

Table 2. Respondents profile.

	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
18-22	63	42.0
23-27	36	24.0
28-32	32	21.3
33-37	15	10.0
38 and over	4	2.7
Total	150	100.0
Gender		
Female	72	48.0
Male	78	52.0
Total	150	100.0
Education		
Bachelor	83	55.3
Master	36	24.0
Ph.D.	31	20.7
Total	150	100.0
Length of Stay		
less than 1 academic year (1 semester)	6	4.0
1-2 academic years	40	26.7
3-4 academic years	61	40.7
5-6 academic years	14	9.3
7 academic years and over	29	19.3
Total	150	100.0

Seftali kebabi, was ranked first by the students' level of familiarity and Patates köftesi, Fırın Kebabı, and Molehiya became next on this list. On the opposite side, Gullurikya, Samsı, Garavolli Tatlısı, and Paluze, received the least familiarity portion from international students' ratings. The next section will present the discussion of the study accordingly.

Finally, a correlational analysis was performed to check if any of the demographic variables have a relation with the educational tourists' familiarity with local foods (Table. 5).

As shown in Table 5, there is only a positive significant correlation between educational tourists' familiarity with local food items and their length of stay in the host community (R=0.684, p-value=.000). However, it should be noted that all of the respondents have the experience of living in the targeted host community minimum for one semester.

Table 3. Mean, SD & the familiarity level of educational tourists with foods (% of respondents).

Food items	1 Not familiar at all	2 Slightly familiar	3 Rather familiar	4 Familiar	5 Very familiar	Mean	*SD
1. Ceviz Macunu	62.0	15.3	8.7	14.0	-	1.74	1.10
2. Fırın Kebabı	36.0	35.3	10	12.7	6	2.17	1.21
3. Garavolli Tatlısı	70.7	14.0	15.3	-	-	1.44	0.74
4. Gullurikya	80.7	13.3	5.3	0.7	-	1.26	0.58
5. Herse	60.0	18.7	12.7	7.3	1.3	1.71	1.03
6. Kabak Çiçeği Dolması	53.3	16.0	15.3	14	1.3	1.94	1.17
7. Kolokas	60.7	14.7	12.0	11.3	1.3	1.78	1.12
8. Magarina Bulli	59.3	16.0	7.3	9.3	8.0	1.90	1.32
9. Molehiya	60.0	10.7	14.7	10.0	4.7	1.88	1.25
10. Mücendra Pilavı	52.7	18.0	6.0	20.7	2.7	2.02	1.28
11. Nor Böreği	49.3	26.7	8.7	13.3	2.0	1.92	1.13
12. Paluze	64.0	28.0	4.0	4.0	-	1.48	0.75
13. Patates köftesi	37.3	25.3	24.0	6.0	7.3	2.20	1.21
14. Patates yahnisi	49.3	18.7	20.7	11.3	-	1.94	1.07
15. Pirohu	61.3	20.7	8.7	8.7	0.7	1.66	1.00
16. Sac Gatmeri	53.3	24.0	14.7	8.0	-	1.77	0.97
17. Samsı	77.3	16.7	2.0	3.3	0.7	1.33	0.73
18. Şeftali Kebabı	36.7	20.0	17.3	17.3	8.7	2.41	1.36
19. Sulu Muhallebi	58.0	21.3	10.7	8.7	1.3	1.74	1.04
20. Yahnili Makarna	57.3	18.0	14.7	8.0	2.0	1.79	1.08
- Total	56.9	19.6	11.6	9.4	2.4	1.80	0.69

Note: * SD: Standard Deviation

Table 4. Items ranking based on the respondents familiarity.

(Rank) Food item	Mean	(Rank) Food item	Mean
(1) Şeftali Kebabı	2.41	**(11)** Kolokas	1.78
(2) Patates köftesi	2.20	**(12)** Sac Gatmeri	1.77
(3) Fırın Kebabı	2.17	**(13)** Ceviz Macunu	1.74
(4) Molehiya	2.02	**(14)** Sulu Muhallebi	1.74
(5) Kabak Çiçeği Dolması	1.94	**(15)** Herse	1.71
(6) Patates yahnisi	1.94	**(16)** Pirohu	1.66
(7) Nor Böreği	1.92	**(17)** Paluze	1.48
(8) Magarina Bulli	1.90	**(18)** Garavolli Tatlısı	1.44
(9) Mücendra Pilavı	1.88	**(19)** Samsı	1.33
(10) Yahnili Makarna	1.79	**(20)** Gullurikya	1.26

Note: Descending means

Table 5. Descriptive statistics and correlations between study variables.

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Familiarity	1.80	0.69	1				
2. Length Stay	2.12	1.11	.684**	1			
3. Education	2.65	0.80	-.127	.014	1		
4. Gender	0.52	0.50	-.146	-.017	-.183*	1	
5. Age	2.07	1.12	-.035	-.029	.657**	-.139	1

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

DISCUSSION

This study is part of a larger project focused on various aspects of intangible cultural heritages in the context of Cyprus. This small island state hosts a huge number of educational tourists who are ready to learn, explore and experience new and different culture including the food as a marker of that culture in the host community. Previous research in Northern Cyprus mentioned that educational tourists have affected the socio-cultural structure of the community in several ways both positively and negatively including the changes in the eating habits of the community members. On the side, this sector has also provided a potential capacity to be used by Northern Cyprus to enhance its social and cultural identity including traditional foods. Since these students are away from their homes and usually they tend to go out to have meal and mingle with friends in restaurants, a very good opportunity in this destination has been formed to achieve a sustainable development in the form of the cultural revitalization and intangible heritage promotion of the community, particularly the food. Sustainable development through tourism is an issue frequently declared by international organizations (Alipour et al., 2020; Rezapouraghdam et al., 2020). Particularly, "the United Nations' designation of 2017 as the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development (UN, 2017) provided a unique opportunity for tourism and hospitality operators and planners to (re)emphasize the significance of sustainability with respect to the industry's magnitude and impact worldwide (UNWTO 2016, cited in Rezapouraghdam, Alipour, & Arasli, 2018). UNESCO also inscribed Mediterranean Diet in the list of the intangible cultural heritage of humanity; another indication of the remarkable role foods may play in the sustainable development of tourism destinations (for this study, Cyprus; a Mediterranean island). The kind of foods provided for tourists in destinations has a great implication for the social, cultural and environmental sustainability of the communities. Consumption of the local and traditional foods is a sort of cultural expression and a means to economic growth as a result of enhancing the local agricultural market and environmental protection through the production and consumption of healthy foods. These facts altogether encouraged the authors to gauge the level of educational tourists' familiarity with the local foods. Unlike the assumption, however, the result of the study showed that although the educational tourists had experienced living in their host community for more than one semester, they had very meager knowledge about the local foods. One probable reason for this lack of familiarity with the foods questioned in this study is that some of the foods are mostly cooked at homes rather than being served in every restaurant specifically the ones ranked at the end of the list. These findings create some debates about educational tourism and the experiential learning concepts as follows. Since the interaction between guests and hosts can provide a good opportunity for tourists to learn about the new culture, there might be an obstacle to preventing the smooth flow of interaction. One probable reason for this limited familiarity of educational tourists with the local foods might be the language barriers. Since Turkish is the dominant language in the region, it might be difficult for the students to easily communicate with those community members who do not know English. Referring to Libben and Lindner (1996), it was mentioned that speaking a different language "allows individuals to switch, as if into an alternative mind with cultural understandings that may be at odds with their first culture (Gill, 2007, p. 177). Therefore, it is also suggested for the educational tourism providers to put more effort into helping educational tourists with the acquisition of the Turkish language. This may enhance both the ease of communication and interaction between locals and educational tourists and also it can help mutual understating of their cultures. In this case not only will the educational tourist learn about the locals' cultures and traditions but the locals also can benefit more from understanding the diverse cultural presence in their society. The socio-cultural adaptation is playing a crucial role in the prevention of numerous mental and physical health problems for international students (Smith & Khawaja, 2011). In sum, the meaning of "experiential" as stated by Conceição and Skibba (2008) is "to interact with the environment, use the language, learn the history, participate in customs, and develop relationships with the indigenous people" (p. 25). The lack of any of the aforementioned factors can be an obstacle that may prevent educational tourists from the acquisition of the local culture and food as a marker of that as it is for the case of this study. Human capital has an important role in tourism and hospitality industry which requires the attention and cooperation of the stakeholders including government and private sector to be developed and improved (Adedipe & Adeleke, 2016). In other words, human capital is one of the basics of achieving sustainable development in any community. Therefore, it is highly recommended for the policy makers in Northern Cyprus to invest on and support the development of the human capital networks in food tourism. This will lead to the overall sustainable development of the region and food tourism in particular. Human capital refers to the stock of skills that the labor force possesses (Goldin, 2016). Hall (2012) emphasizes that human capital (skills and knowledge level) is one of the main factors that is needed for the successful development of food tourism networks in destinations. Human capital alludes to the value of the knowledge, skills and capabilities of individuals (Becker 1964) which also refers to traditional knowledge and acquired skills and capabilities as well (Flora & Flora 2012). Although it is a low-cost, the human capital has a crucial role in community economic development as it is easily transferable among individuals while ate the same time it is considered a high-impact resource (Dougherty, Brown, & Green, 2013). Previous study found that However, it was stated that regarding the local human capital in small and medium-sized family restaurants younger generations are not eager to continue the business of their ancestors anymore as cookery is hard and not so 'cool' or 'fun' for them (Zhang & Yu, 2018). Thus, overcoming the issues related to the management of human capital also can be a likely solution to the growth of local food tourism in Northern Cyprus which will lead to increase the availability of such intangible heritage in the destinations and consequently a means of familiarity of travelers with the food items.

Another argument around this finding is that for the learners to fully engage in the learning cycle, space should be provided to engage in the four modes of the cycle (Figure 1): feeling, reflection, thinking, and action (Passareli & Kolb, 2012). Therefore, educational tourism providers need to understand the various aspects of ELT at first. Then they will be able to facilitate the students' engagement in the experiential learning process. Moreover, the educators should explain to the students that learning does not only occur within the classrooms and institutions but it extends to other aspects of the life space. In other words, the students should be encouraged and get motivated to involve in broader learning dimensions as well. For instance, in the curriculum, some elective courses can be embedded that focus on experiential learning. Such courses can provide initial information about the ELT and then can participate in students with various assignments and homework in experiential learning outside of the campus. The activities that require more interaction between educational tourists and the local community also can be a useful part of the educational institutions' objectives to develop educational tourists' experiential learning growth. The students should experience the social and cultural traditions of the local community.

Theoretically, this study contributes to the literature on educational tourism and experiential learning, particularly in the case of food knowledge acquisition as an intangible cultural heritage of the host communities.

The huge number of educational tourists, as well as their families and friend who visit them from time to time, is an outstanding opportunity for Northern Cyprus. Through well-planned strategies, local foods can be introduced to the international students in the institutions and periodic food festivals and competitions inside/outside of the universities also can be a means for the students to experience and taste the local foods. Moreover, special efforts should be undertaken to promote interaction between the local community and educational tourists. For instance, involving the locals and educational tourists in festival organizing and cultural events could be an appropriate strategy to achieve this objective. Finally, local food restaurants can be established in the universities which provide the local foods at a better price for the students so that they can be motivated for the purchase of such foods. The local government also should support the youth who are interested in running small and medium-sized local restaurants by providing loans and facilitating rules and regulations in this regard. Another suggestion for the educational tourism providers is to offer an elective course about local gastronomy in the universities where tourism and hospitality programs are active. This course can have both educational and entertaining outcomes to attract international students to the culture of Northern Cyprus. Local foods can be prepared and served for enrolled students at the end of each session to make the courses more amusing and effective.

CONCLUSION

Experiential learning "is implicit within virtually all forms of travel" (Grabowski et al., 2017; p. 140). Educational tourism as a significant form of tourism besides its main goal which is teaching a particular knowledge within the classroom can also provide opportunities for travelers to learn more about their host community as well through experiencing that. In this study, the authors tried to measure the level of educational tourists' knowledge of local food. The findings showed that educational tourists have in general fewer experiences about local food. Educational tourism is a valuable chance for tourists to develop their knowledge and competencies through experience. A proper space if provided and also adequate awareness about the realms of education beyond the formal training in the class if given to them, the educational tourists' ability to involve in this process can be more facilitated. The interaction between educational tourists and local community members can help them to get more experience about the social and cultural traditions including the food culture and habits of their host community.

By enhancing the food experience for the educational tourists who are large in number and also live in various places in Cyprus, there are many advantages to this destination. The local food cycle will help the communities' sustainable development through the production and consumption of local ingredients. Moreover, the image of this destination will be improved and the satisfaction of the educational tourists also will increase. All of which will be a mechanism that can improve the overall welfare of the local community and the sustainable development of the region as well. However, unfortunately, as an island highly dependent on tourism and no access to expansive resources, sustainability is not something to be taken for granted in Northern Cyprus.

LIMITATION

The generalizability of this study is restricted by its limitations. This study did not identify the barrier factors of international students' familiarity with local foods. This is a novel topic for future studies to understand the factors which prevented such awareness. This study did not test the influence of educational tourists' nationality on their local food familiarity. Since the cultural and geographical distance may affect ones' level of awareness about other cultures, it is suggested for future research to include this factor. Additionally, the results of this study are limited to students of one single university. The small number of participants in this research opens the door for more studies by involving students from other educational institutions located in different parts of Northern Cyprus. The list of foods in this study was more than 20 dishes, however, due to the lack of consensus among the informants (the first phase of the study) the other items were excluded. Therefore the future studies can include more food dishes in their list of the survey. The finding of this study only was limited to the perspectives of educational tourists or consumers side of local food. Therefore, more comprehensive studies are required to analyse local food tourism from other perspectives such local food providers such as managers of small and medium sized enterprises in tourism sector who are involved in local food tourism network. Previous studies have articulated several difficulties that small and medium sized businesses face regarding the human capital management including low associativity of employees towards the company, high turnover levels, little training (Núñez-Ríos et al., 2019). Since these factors are so crucial in the sustainable development of food tourism, it is suggested for the future studies to consider the role of green human resource management (Ari et. al., 2020) in food tourism. The other avenue for future research also is to observe the likely challenges of the employees in local food sector such as their job security issues or their social well-being to find out the obstacles that prevent the promotion and growth of this niche market in Northern Cyprus. Therefore, more comprehensive studies are required to analyse local food tourism from other perspectives such local food providers such as managers of small and medium sized enterprises in tourism sector who are involved in local food tourism network.

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Chapter 11
Antecedents and Consequences of Work-Family Conflict in the Hospitality Industry

Mert Gürlek
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0024-7746
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Turkey

İlker Kılıç
Yozgat Bozok University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Work-family conflict (WFC) is a critical issue for the hospitality industry. Many hospitality employees face the challenges posed by WFC. Therefore, this chapter aims to examine the antecedents and consequences of WFC in the hospitality industry. In this context, the study consists of three main parts. Firstly, WFC and its types are defined; secondly WFC theories are explained; and finally, the antecedents and consequences of WFC in the hospitality industry are provided through an integrative literature review. The literature review covered articles published between 2000 and 2019. Journals included in the research focus on such areas as hospitality management or management and organization. In this context, 47 studies were included in the literature review. Based on the findings, the antecedents and consequences of WFC were classified under four groups as individual, work-based, familial, and organizational. As a result, examining the nature of WFC in the scope of the hospitality industry, which is characterized by fast-paced working environment, can contribute to literature.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the majority of adult family members are involved in working life to generate income. Therefore, work-life conflict has become one of the most significant problems for the humankind (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Individuals spend most of their lives either with their families or at work. In this respect, it is of great importance for individuals to establish a balance between work and family life (Fu

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch011

& Shaffer 2001). WFC occurs when there is no balance between the two domains. WFC causes serious harm to individuals and organizations due to the problems it brings along (Delfgaauw, 2007; Magnini, 2009). In particular, the WFC is acknowledged as one of the most important barriers to effective human management in the hospitality industry (Tromp & Blomme, 2012).

Hospitality employees are confronted with intense and heavy demands of work. While customers enjoy their holidays and leisure time, employees work under stressful and challenging working conditions in order to deliver good quality services (Wong & Lin, 2007). The necessity of simultaneously fulfilling the responsibilities of work and family domains results in WFC among such employees (Zhao and Ghiselli, 2016). In short, work – family conflict (WFC) refers to "inter-role interferences between work and family domains" (Zhao, & Namasivayam, 2012, p.458). WFC is characterized by two dimensions: work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) (Frone Russell, & Cooper, 1992). WIF occurs as the demands of work interfere with the fulfillment of family responsibilities, whereas FIW emerges when the demands of family interfere with the fulfillment of job-related responsibilities (Frone, 2003). Hospitality enterprises need to ensure effective management of human capital in order to gain competitive advantage, as firms need employees with good physical and mental well-being in order to sustain the organizational success (Arslaner & Boylu, 2017). In this context, understanding the nature of WFC is of great importance for practitioners and researchers.

Hospitality industry is recognized as an industry where employees have to sacrifice their family responsibilities in order to ensure service quality (Karatepe, 2008; Karatepe, 2010). Hospitality employees suffer from WFC when they are subject to irregular work schedules, long working hours, low wages and heavy workloads (Zhao, Qu, & Ghiselli, 2011). On the other hand, many employees have difficulty in meeting the demands of work due to the demands of family (Zhao, 2016). WFC is a severe problem that reduces service quality and customer satisfaction. Therefore, it is important and valuable for researchers and practitioners to understand the antecedents and consequences of WFC.

This chapter aims to explain the nature of WFC in the hospitality industry. In this context, the study consists of three main parts. Firstly, WFC and its types are defined, secondly WFC theories are explained, and finally the antecedents and consequences of WFC are provided through an integrative literature review. In this context, 47 studies were included in the literature review. As a result, the current study contributes to the literature on several aspects. Further research addressing the antecedents and consequences of the WFC in the hospitality industry from a holistic perspective is needed. Examining the nature of WFC in the scope of the hospitality industry which is characterized by fast-paced working environment can contribute to the management and the hospitality literatures. The current study paves the way for researchers to recognize theoretical gaps by way of revealing the antecedents and consequences of WFC based on previous empirical evidence. For instance, a researcher studying the field of management in the context of the hospitality industry will have a review of the topics that have already been studied. This study proposes a holistic model involving the antecedents and consequences of WFC based on the previous researches in the literature. By way of testing the proposed model, future researches can put forward which antecedents and consequences are more related to WFC.

BACKGROUND

Work–Family Conflict

WFC is an inter-role conflict where the pressures and demands originating from the domains of work and family are reciprocally incompatible (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). WFC is addressed under two categories as work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) (Frone Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Whereas WIF reflects the impacts of the domain of work on the domain of family, FIW refers to the impacts of the domain of family on working life (Zhao, Qu, & Ghiselli, 2011; Johnson, Eatough, Hammer, Truxilllo, 2019). WFC is a conflict which arises as a result of failing to evenly fulfill the responsibilities relevant to work and family. Moreover, the main reason underlying the WFC is the fact that the time allocated for work and family is insufficient (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001). WFC, acknowledged as an inter-role conflict (Higgins & Duxbury, 1992), is defined as the point of conflict on which the individual's responsibilities as an employee and as a family member interfere (Dubrin, 1997). In other saying, work and family life conflict is a situation where the roles brought on by work and family come to play simultaneously and impact one another negatively (Parasuraman and Simmers 2001). Work and family are interacting factors (Saucan, Marhan & Micle, 2015). Therefore, as much as the domain of work influences the family, so can the domain of family influence work (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992).

WFC has three different types depending on the underlying reasons. These types are classified as time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985; Shang, O'Driscoll, & Roche, 2017). Time-based WFC arises in cases where the individual fails to fully meet the requirements brought on by work and family due to a lack of time. For instance, the individual's failing to fully perform his/her roles in the family due to work load causes familial problems (Hochschild, 1983; Netemeyer, Boles & Mcmurrian 1996). This is exactly where the time-based WFC comes into the picture. The situation can play out both ways, with being unable to allocate time for the family due to work load and being unable to allocate time for work due to familial roles.

Strain-based WFC is defined as negative psychological effects shaped by the family or working life of the individual being reflected on the responsibilities of the other role (Bacharach, Bamberger & Conley, 1991; Houlfort, Philippe, Bourdeau, & Leduc, 2018). Additionally, it also expresses a situation where the stress arising from one of the roles an individual plays influences the other role (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). For instance, the loss of productivity experienced by a person who suffers from stress due to familial issues can be explained through strain-based WFC. Behavior-based WFC is defined as the incompatibility of certain behaviors expected from work and family roles (Kinnunen & Mauno 1998). For example, an individual may be expected to be authoritarian and firm at work and emotional and understanding in family. This may cause the individual to face behavioral issues and have problems at work or within the family (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985).

Theories of Work-Family Conflict

According to the Role Theory, conflict between roles is caused by the incompatibility between the expectations from different roles. As a type of inter-role conflict, WFC can be approached from the viewpoint of the Role Theory (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Carlson, Grzywacz & Zivnuska, 2009). The Role Theory as relevant to WFC addresses a type of conflict where the roles brought on by the responsibilities arising out of the individual's work and family life block one another (Frone & Rice 1987; Ollo-López & Goñi-Legaz, 2017). If the individual desires success at work and happiness within family, s/he has to fulfill the responsibilities related to the both roles. Otherwise, no matter which role is given the greater importance, the other one would be lacking. This would reinforce the conflict between the two roles, causing problems both within the family and at work (Zedeck and Moiser 1990; Qian & Qian, 2015).

The Segmentation Theory claims that work and family life are factors which do not affect one another (Zedeck & Moiser, 1990). That is because work and family life are separate from each other (Lambert, 1990; Zedeck 1992). These two domains have different functionalities: family primarily meets emotional needs while work serves instrumental purposes (Fiksenbaum, 2014; Michel & Hargis, 2008). From this point of view, Segmentation refers to the degree to which the domains of work and family are kept separate (Kreiner, 2006). According to this theory, a high segmentation of roles occurs when one addresses the domain of work and non-work related domains separately. For instance, non-work related issues are left at the door when one enters the domain of work (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). When the segmentation of roles is greater, individuals display the tendency to not transfer the strains and stress they experience within one domain (e.g. family) to the other domain (e.g. work) and strengthen the boundaries between the domains of work and family. In such case, the individual's experiencing discomfort within the domain of work has little effect on his/her general satisfaction with life (Pasupuleti, Allen, Lambert, & Cluse-Tolar, 2009). The concept of "asymmetric permeability" purported by Pleck (1977) points to the opposite direction. According to the concept of asymmetric permeability, a problem which occurs at work can negatively impact family life; likewise, a problem within the family can also negatively impact working life (Pleck, 1977).

The Spillover Theory is one of the most popular WFC theories in the literature. The theory is based on the study by Staines (1980) and puts forward two types of spillover; namely, positive spillover and negative spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Sirgy, Lee, Park, Joshanloo, & Kim, 2019). That the individual has more intense feelings of unhappiness, restlessness and stress due to work when compared with positive feelings will have a negative effect on his/her family life. This is called "negative spillover". On the other hand, if the individual has more intense positive feelings than negative ones due to work, this will have a positive effect on his/her family life. This is explained with the concept of "positive spillover" (Evans and Bartolome, 1984; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). In short, the happiness which a person has in his/her working or family life bringing about happiness in his/her other life is called a positive spillover and the unease felt in a domain of life having a negative impact on another domain of life is called a negative spillover (Zedeck and Mosier, 1990: Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006; Carlson, Thompson, & Kacmar, 2019). Additionally, Kılıç (2016) defines spillover as a process wherein family or working life affects one another in a positive or negative manner. An example for this could be a person having problems in his/her family life and such problems having a disrupting impact on his/her success at work.

The Compensation Theory originates from the individual's balanced use of the element of time between his/her work and family. According to the base perspective of the theory, there is an interaction between factors within and out of the domain of work. Working individuals strive to have a proper work or family life with all respective elements in place in order to feel the happiness which they lack in the other domain of life (Zedeck and Moiser, 1990). Within this scope, compensation theory is defined as all efforts made by a person to compensate for the lack of satisfaction they feel in their work or family life in the other domain (Edwards and Rothbard 2000; Mansour & Tremblay, 2018). In order to compensate for the lack of satisfaction in their work, individuals may seek personal gratification in off-work activities (Zheng, Molineux, Mirshekary, & Scarparo, 2015). An example for this could be an individual who has no satisfaction and happiness in his/her working life compensating for this by participating in local community activities (Guest, 2002).

Work–Family Conflict in the Hospitality Industry

WFC is one of the most serious problems in the hospitality industry. Long working hours and intensive work is a rule rather than an exception in the hospitality industry. The job characteristics of the hospitality industry increase the likelihood that employees face with WFC. WFC causes employees to leave not only the organization but also the industry. This is the most serious problem faced by the industry (Tromp & Blomme, 2012). Hospitality employees work in an environment where family-friendly practices are limited. Under these conditions, employees experience a conflict between family roles and working roles (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008). The hospitality industry creates a stressful working environment due to its inelastic work schedule and heavy workload. In particular, the "face to face" working culture requires that employees work physically for a long time. In addition, Hospitality staff should organize their feelings to provide excellent service when faced with demanding customers. This significantly consumes the emotional resources that employees need to allocate to their families (Pan & Yeh, 2019). Hospitality employees have to work irregular hours when employees in other industries do not work. Work programs of such employees are quite different from employees in more traditional job. Irregular work is a serious problem faced by many hospitality employees (Lin, Wong, & Ho, 2014). Jobs in the hospitality industry have features such as low wages, working on holidays, and long working hours. Hospitality employees have to spend a significant amount of effort, personal time, and resources to improve customer satisfaction. Therefore, they have problems balancing their work responsibilities and family responsibilities. WFC has, therefore, become a critical issue in the hospitality industry (Zhao, 2016).

ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Review Scope and Procedures

There are a scarce number of studies providing comprehensive information on the antecedents and consequences of WFC. For instance, Xu & Cao has addressed eight antecedents and eight consequences of WFC. Therefore, studies which look into the antecedents and consequences of the concept in further detail are needed. This study serves as an extensive literature review in order to fill the gap of research in the area. Databases such as Web of Science, Elsevier and Emerald were used for the literature review. The keywords searched were the terms "work-family conflict", "work interference with family" and "family interference with work" and "hospitality". The search covered all articles published between 2000 and 2019. Journals focus on such areas as hospitality management or management and organization. The main purpose here is to reach management studies focusing on WFC in the hospitality industry. The selection criteria included degree of relevance to WFC (work-family conflict, work interference with family and family interference with work), the relevance of the context of the study (hospitality industry), time period (2000 and 2019), and area of study (hospitality management or management and organization). In line with the recommendations put forth by Torraco (2016), the review process follows some certain steps. Firstly, 62 articles were reached. The articles reached were reviewed for suitability. Secondly, the studies which passed the initial screen were read to identify the focal point and methodology. During this process, studies which did not focus on the domains of management and organization and hospitality industry were left out. As a result of this process, 47 studies have been included in the literature review. Later on, the studies were grouped in accordance with the antecedents and consequences of WFC. Then, the antecedents and consequences themselves were classified as individual, work-based, familial and organizational. Findings of this review process have been presented in the sections below and in Table 1.

Table 1. Antecedents and consequences of WFC

Antecedents			Consequences		
WFC Types	**Variables**	**References**	**WFC Types**	**Variables**	**References**
WIF, FIW	Psychological capital	Karatepe & Karadas (2014)	WIF	Marital dissatisfaction	Mulvaney, O'neill, Cleveland, & Crouter (2007)
WIF	Negative affectivity	Karatepe & Uludag (2008a)	WIF	Family satisfaction	Karatepe & Baddar (2006)
WIF, FIW	Positive affectivity	Karatepe & Uludag (2008a), Xu & Cao (2019)	WIF	Job satisfaction	Kong, Jiang, Chan, & Zhou (2018), Zhao & Namasivayam (2012), Yan & Peng (2018), Qu, & Zhao, (2012), Pan & Yeh (2019)
FIW	Family social support	Karatepe & Bekteshi (2008), Xu & Cao (2019)		Job performance	Karatepe (2013), Xu & Cao (2019)
WIF	Workaholism	Pan (2018)	WIF, FIW	Job embeddedness	Khorakian, Nosrati, & Eslami (2018)
WIF	Stressful work conditions, work hours	Lawson, Davis, Crouter & O'Neill (2013), Burke, Fiksenbaum, Jeng, & Koyuncu (2010)	WIF, FIW	Work engagement	Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum, & Tekin (2013), Karatepe & Karadas (2016), Fiksenbaum (2014)
WIF	Emotional labor	Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer (2017), McGinley & Wei (2018)	WIF, FIW	Customer satisfaction	Zhao Mattila, & Ngan (2014), Zhao & Mattila (2013)
WIF, FIW	Work-home arrangements	Tromp & Blomme (2012)	FIW	Life satisfaction	Karatepe & Bekteshi (2008), Zhao, Qu, & Ghiselli (2011), Qu & Zhao (2012), Fiksenbaum, (2014).
WIF	Spousal support	Gamor, Amissah, & Boakye (2014)	WIF	Burnout	Lin, Huang, Yang, & Chiang (2014), Mansour & Tremblay (2018), Lee, Davis, Neuendorf, Grandey, Lam, & Almeida (2016), Xu & Cao (2019)
WIF	Workload	Mansour & Tremblay (2016), Lin, Wong, & Ho, 2015	WIF, FIW	Presenteeism	Arslaner & Boylu (2017)
WIF, FIW	Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity	Ryan, Ma, Hsiao, & Ku (2015)	WIF	Well-being	García-Cabrera, Lucia-Casademunt, Cuéllar-Molina, & Padilla-Angulo (2018), Xu & Cao (2019)
WIF	Autocratic leadership style	Marianne Tromp & Jan Blomme (2014)	WIF	Turnover intention	Blomme, Van Rheede, & Tromp (2010), Mansour & Tremblay (2018), Xu & Cao (2019)
WIF, FIW	Supportive work–family culture	Fiksenbaum (2014)	WIF	Job stress	Zhao & Ghiselli (2016), Mansour & Tremblay (2016).
WIF	Colleague support	Darcy & McCarthy (2007)	WIF, FIW	Organizational citizenship behavior	Wang, Lee, & Wu (2017)
WIF	Polychronicity	Daskin & Surucu (2016)	WIF	Psychological Strain	O'Driscoll et al. (2003).
WIF, FIW	Transformational leadership	Hammond, Cleveland, O'Neill, Stawski, & Jones Tate (2015)	WIF	Job anxiety	Vanderpool & Way (2013)
WIF, FIW	Supervisor support	Karatepe & Uludag (2008b), García-Cabrera et al. (2018), Xu & Cao (2019)	WIF	Service quality	Mansour & Mohanna (2018)
			WIF	Service recovery performance	Daskin & Surucu (2016), Karatepe & Sokmen (2006)
WFC= Work-family conflict; WIF= work interference with family; FIW= family interference with work.					

ANTECEDENTS OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Individual Antecedents

Elderly workers and workers who have more children face more WFC. On the other hand, female workers face more FIW due to their role of being a mother (García-Cabrera, Lucia-Casademunt, Cuéllar-Molina, & Padilla-Angulo, 2018). The negative impact of WFC is more evident among women. Likewise, the positive impact of WFC on the turnover intention has a higher level among women (Yavas, Babakus & Karatepe, 2008). Workload, time constraints and tight work schedules escalate WFC for working mothers (Lawson, Davis, Crouter and O'Neill, 2013). Considering generations, many employees from Generation Y leave the industry due to work-life conflict (Brown, Thomas, & Bosselman, 2015). Whereas among the tourism and hospitality workers Baby Boomers display less negative psychological reactions (low psychological well-being) when faced with work-life conflict, Generations X and Y display stronger psychological reactions when compared to Baby Boomers (Tsaur & Yen, 2018).

Different types of affectivity may bring about different impacts on work-life conflict. Positive affectivity reflecting the excitement, activeness and alertness felt by a person alleviates WFC felt by hotel employees; and negative affectivity reflecting subjective troubles and dissatisfaction with life increases WFC (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008a). On the other hand, workaholism escalates WFC since it causes the individual to focus on work in an obsessive manner and ignore his/her personal life (Pan, 2018). Polychronic individuals also face more WFC. Since such individuals try to perform more than one task at a time, they cannot make the time necessary for their family (Daskin & Surucu, 2016). Moreover, WFC can deplete the personal resources of a person. Psychological capital can ensure the retrieval of psychological losses brought about by WFC. Especially for hotel employees, psychological capital can provide self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism and help them cope with WFC (Karatepe & Karadas, 2014).

Familial Antecedents

Social support from the domain of family is a kind of social support that is non-work related. Specifically, family members such as the spouse and siblings can provide emotional support to individuals in issues related with work. Individuals who receive such social support from their families are more successful in coping with the negativities caused by the working life (Karatepe, 2015). Familial social support reduces the negative impacts of WIF and FIW. Social support is a coping mechanism that helps one to overcome problems caused by stressors and can be provided by family members of employees. Additionally, family members can support employees on issues which may be faced with relation to the working life, causing a decrease in WFC (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008). Spousal support also reduces WFC. In the presence of spousal support, the time that employees have to spend to meet the demands of the house and their parental duties decreases, thus alleviating the impacts of the intervention of the domain of work on the domain of family (Gamor, Amissah, & Boakye, 2014). If spouse and family support is provided in the non-work related domains, it becomes possible to strike a balance between the expectations borne out of the non-work related domains and the expectations of the work domain (Xu & Cao, 2019).

Work-Based Antecedents

Service industry, especially the hospitality industry, requires a constant improvement of service quality in order to meet customer needs and to retain the competitive power. Increasing competition between companies and higher service expectations from customers cause higher demands at work for the employees (Mansour & Tremblay 2016). Such demands bring with them issues such as irregular work schedules, low wages, long working hours and heavy work load. Service employees spend a significant amount of time and resources and exert significant effort to improve job performance and service quality but face issues in balancing the work tasks and family demands (Zhao, 2016). Due to the nature of 24/7 service provision and an intense working culture, service business creates a stressful work environment (O'Neill and Xiao, 2010). In the service industry, especially in hospitality, stressful work environment, heavy work load and long working hours are among the basic determinants of WFC (Burke, Fiksenbaum, Jeng, & Koyuncu, 2010; Lawson, Davis, Crouter & O'Neill, 2013). Most service workers cannot set aside enough time for their private lives due to the intense work tempo. Service workers are obliged to work during special days, holidays and days of rest (Mulvaney, O'Neill, Cleveland, & Crouter, 2007). On the other hand, due to the intense work tempo, service industry also causes some conflicts and ambiguities as to the work and tasks which disturb the balance between work and family. Specifically, role conflicts and ambiguity can bring forth WFC. When employees are confused as to what their duties and responsibilities are and have to undertake more than one role at a time, they are faced with more WFC (Ryan, Ma, Hsiao & Ku, 2015).

Service industry is a labor intense sector and therefore service work requires a significant emotional labor. Emotional labor means hiding real emotions to a great extent and focusing on and displaying the emotions desired by the organization. For example, even though service workers may feel sad in reality, they still have to act as if they are happy (Philipp ve Schüpbach 2010; Brotheridge ve Lee, 2002). As a result, the need to suppress negative emotions and display positive emotions causes the development of affective disharmony, which is defined as the area of stress between the emotions felt and displayed by a person (Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017). Due to affective disharmony, the emotional resources of the individual is depleted in the workplace as a result of exerting emotional labor, which also uses up the resources that should be spent for the family and causes WFC (Cheun & Tang, 2009; McGinley & Wei, 2018).

Organizational Antecedents

Organizational antecedents focus on the work environment within the organization and the features of the organization. Inter-colleague relationships are an important part of the work environment. Colleague support decreases WFC for individuals with children. Especially during the earlier stages of child care responsibilities, colleague support minimizes the possibility for individuals to face WFC. During the early stages of child care responsibility, colleagues support their fellow workers who have recently had a child. It should be remembered that the same support may not be provided in the following stages of child care responsibility (Darcy & McCarthy, 2007). That is because colleagues may perceive a non-equitable work environment due to the increased workload on them and feel resentment against those benefiting from family-friendly policies (Grandey, 2001; Boren, & Johnson, 2013).

The type of leadership in the organization and supervisor support also plays an important role in preventing or escalating WFC. Transformational leadership decreases WFC in an indirect manner rather than a direct one. Transformational leadership involves having ideal impact, communicating a strong and attractive vision (an inspiring motivation), encouraging followers to think for themselves (intellectual encouragement) and caring for the unique requirements of followers. Such characteristics of leaders diminish WFC by way of supporting work resources (autonomy), social resources (supervisor support) and personal resources (positive affectivity) (Hammond, Cleveland, O'Neill, Stawski & Jones Tate, 2015). Besides these, supervisor support is a crucial factor to cope with challenges posed by work-family and family-work conflicts. A supervisor discussing work-family problems or familial issues with the workers and the organization informing workers about the policies and practices in place with regard to these issues (e.g. child care, flexible working arrangements) represents supervisor support (García-Cabrera, Lucia-Casademunt, Cuéllar-Molina, & Padilla-Angulo, 2018). Workers who receive supervisor support at the workplace face lower levels of WIF and FIW (Karatepe & Kilic, 2007). Those workers who do not receive sufficient support to cope with issues stemming both from work-family and family-work conflicts face negative consequences such as family distress, low job performance, and job distress (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008). On the other hand, autocratic leadership paves the way to WFC. Autocratic leaders restrict the input of their subordinates in decision making, are assertive and aggressive and have little respect for the opinions and values of others (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). Such autocratic leadership behavior causes high tension between the followers and brings about a transfer of the negativities experienced at work to the family life (Marianne Tromp & Jan Blomme, 2014).

Another organizational antecedent is work-home arrangements. Work-home arrangements define the facilities provided by the organization in order for employees to strike a balance between their working life and family life (Erden Bayazit, & Bayazit, 2019). Flexible working hours, parental leave, child care support can be given as examples for such arrangements (Dikkers et al., 2007). Work-home arrangements made by the organization in order to balance the responsibilities of work and family (e.g. family-friendly programs) contribute to the alleviation of work-family and family-work conflicts (Tromp & Blomme, 2012). Not only WFC, but also the work-family culture helps employees to balance the responsibilities of work and family life. Work-family culture represents the shared presumptions, beliefs and values pertaining to the extent to which an organization provides support for its employees in the balance between their work and private life Thompson et al., 1999). In such a cultural environment, employees are supported in resolving their personal and familial issues and tolerance is shown for their familial needs (Dikkers et al., 2007). If a work-family culture is dominating the organization, employees face less work-family and family-work conflicts (Fiksenbaum 2014).

CONSEQUENCES OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Individual Consequences

WFC has a negative impact on the overall life satisfaction of employees. Life satisfaction generally refers to the overall feeling of well-being stemming from an evaluation of one's life (Zhao, Qu, & Ghiselli, 2011). Individuals feel less satisfied with their lives both due to interventions on private life from the work domain and to the penetration of private life into the work (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008; Qu & Zhao, 2012). Besides, WFC also has impacts on the mental health of employees (e.g. anxiety disorders, problem drinking, and depression). Since individuals who face WFC also experience high levels of strain (O'Driscoll et al., 2003) and work stress (Zhao & Ghiselli, 2016; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016), they also suffer from high levels of job anxiety. In other words, individuals feel mentally restless and anxious due to work-life conflict (Vanderpool & Way, 2013). Moreover, WFC decreases well-being by increasing burnout (Lin, Huang, Yang, & Chiang, 2014). Besides, WFC has a negative impact upon the perceived well-being of a person. The impact of WFC on well-being depends on the perceived supervisor support. That is to say, if the organization includes supervisor support, then these types of conflict have a lesser negative impact on well-being. Moreover, since part-time workers have a less intensive work schedule, they are able to manage all home and family responsibilities simultaneously and experience less conflict (García-Cabrera, Lucia-Casademunt, Cuéllar-Molina, & Padilla-Angulo, 2018).

Familial Consequences

WFC can lead up to the deterioration of the relationship between couples. WFC is especially common for married couples. When employees are unable to make the necessary time to spend with their spouses due to an intense workload, marital dissatisfaction may come into play (Mulvaney, O'neill, Cleveland, & Crouter 2007). Individuals who are not satisfied with their marriage are characterized by such dispositions as feeling unhappiness from living together with the spouse, arguing, remorsefulness due to marriage and aggression towards the spouse. Marital dissatisfaction can cause undesired social consequences including divorces (Gürlek & Yavuz, 2019). WFC not only causes marital dissatisfaction but also harms the relationships between the employee and other family members. Therefore, individuals who cannot make enough time for their family due to their work also feel less satisfied with their family. Family satisfaction refers to an emotional state brought on by the individual's evaluation of the familial aspects of his/her overall life. Individuals who have difficulties in managing the domains of work and family or the conflicts between the two have lower levels of satisfaction in their family life (Karatepe & Baddar, 2006).

Work-Based Consequences

WFC is among the most significant antecedents decreasing job satisfaction in the hospitality industry (Kong, Jiang, Chan, & Zhou, 2018). WFC decreases job satisfaction by cutting down on the satisfaction felt by the individual for the work environment (Yan & Peng, 2018). Both types of conflict (WIF and FIW) simultaneously impact the work attitudes of the individual. Individuals experiencing stress due to WFC perceive work as the source of conflict and stress and the satisfaction they feel with work diminishes. Similarly, individuals undergoing FIW ascribe the discomfort they feel to the work itself and the organizational arrangements, which decreases their job satisfaction (Zhao & Namasivayam, 2012).

Individuals facing the both types of conflict (WIF and FIW) experience decreased job performance. From the viewpoint of WFC, individuals who are unable to set aside the time for their families experience stress and pressure and display lower performance at work (Karatepe, 2013; Xu & Cao, 2019). The mentioned conflict types also decrease work engagement and job embeddedness which have a positive relation to job performance. Work engagement involves the full investment of an individual's physical, cognitive and emotional resources to the work (Gürlek & Tuna, 2019). Job embeddedness refers to the set of elements impacting the work retention of the individual (Kanten et al., 2015). Both WIF and FIW deplete the resources an individual can use at work and decrease their work engagement (Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum, & Tekin, 2013). Due to the inconsistent demands from both domains, the conflict between the roles of the work domain and the family domain uses up the psychological and emotional resources required to fulfill family and work responsibilities (Mansour & Mohanna, 2018) and thus, the job embeddedness (Khorakian, Nosrati, & Eslami, 2018) and work engagement (Karatepe & Karadas 2016) of individuals decrease.

WFC gives way to presenteeism. Presenteeism refers to a situation where employees come to work even in the presence of health issues which would prevent them from working, and put out a sub-par performance. Employees suffering from both types of conflict may be physically present at the work place but they perform worse than their normal levels of performance (Arslaner & Boylu, 2017). That being said, when care services are provided by the organization, WFC causes less emotional fatigue. Additionally, in the presence of organizational care services, the negative impact of WFC on job performance is also decreased (Wang, Tsai, Lee, & Ko, 2019). WFC also ramp up turnover intention by increasing feelings of emotional fatigue and desensitization. In addition, when employees need more child care services, these types of conflict cause more work-related stress and emotional fatigue and bear an intention to leave the sector (Mansour & Tremblay, 2018).

Organizational Consequences

Based on the literature review, organizational consequences of WFC can be classified as customer satisfaction, service quality, service recovery performance and extra-role performance. These consequences are explained below. In the service industry, customer satisfaction is informed mostly by the quality interactions between the employees and customers (Gürlek & Tuna, 2019). Therefore organizations need to pay regard to the work-life balance of their employees. However, conditions present within the industry do not allow this to a great extent (Gürlek & Yavuz, 2019). Most of the time, workers are faced with WFC due to long working hours and as a result experience burn-out and are unable to exert a quality emotional labor. Low emotional labor decreases customer satisfaction by diminishing extra-role performance. In that sense, WFC can bring about some negative impacts on customer satisfaction by way of some behavioral processes (burn-out, emotional labor) which are not easy to predict (Zhao Mattila, & Ngan, 2014). Besides that, WFC creates tension and pressure on employees, which is reflected to the customers, decreasing customer satisfaction (Zhao & Mattila, 2013) and service quality in turn (Mansour & Mohanna, 2018).

In the service sector, employees are obligated to perform voluntary actions beyond their official role definitions which are named as organizational citizenship behavior (Pham, Tučková, & Jabbour, 2019). When an employee is faced with demands from work and family, it is not difficult for work-life conflict to develop. WFC creates time constraints and psychological problems for the individual and depletes the resources which could be utilized at work. This way, individuals have fewer resources to display voluntary behavior and can only do with following their original job description (Wang, Lee, & Wu, 2017).

In order to ensure service excellence in the service industry, service employees are expected to put in a service recovery performance (Luo, Guchait, Lee & Madera, 2019). Service recovery performance refers to the performance delivered by service employees to compensate for service delivery failures in order to ensure customer satisfaction. Due to the negative mood and weariness it causes, WFC decreases service recovery performance (Daskin & Surucu, 2016). Employees who are unable to balance work requirements with family responsibilities and social relationships also have irregular work schedules and limited weekend leaves with many various customer demands and complaints at work which they are expected to deal with. This situation in turn decreases their service recovery performance (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006).

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A literature review was performed in this study in order to shed light on the nature of WFC within the hospitality industry. A total of 47 articles were perused in the review process. The following recommendations are purported in line with the antecedents and consequences found. The recommendations are aimed at employees, families and organizations. In order to overcome the negative consequences of WFC, employees must have a strong psychological capital. Organizations may use tests during recruitment processes in order to evaluate the psychological capital of candidates. Organizations need to acknowledge the basic importance of psychological capital and design training programs which also include ways for service employees to protect themselves from the loss of such capital (self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience) and help them develop their psychological capital to higher levels (Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015).

Positive affectivity decreases WFC. Therefore, organizations need to select employees who are enthusiastic, self-confident and problem-solving; i.e. employees with high positive affectivity (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008a). Workaholism incites WFC to a great extent. Therefore employees can make use of both intra-organizational and extra-organizational psychological counseling services to avoid overworking obsessively. Similarly, polychronic individuals face more WFC. Such individuals can also benefit from psychological counseling services or try approaching their work in a more planned manner.

Family and spousal support alleviates WFC. Spouses or relatives can provide social support on familial issues to the person working in the service sector. Thus, family members can come up with new solutions by discussing personal issues among themselves. For instance, the child who goes to primary school can be picked up by his/her father and mother by turns. Moreover, fellow workers and supervisors can provide support to a worker to relieve the conflict between the roles of the work and the family. Especially female employees with children need such support more (Darcy & McCarthy, 2007).

Organizations can make work-home arrangements in order to help their employees in balancing their roles stemming from the domains of family and work. They can support the employees with flexible working hours, parental leave, child care support, scholarship and the like (Dikkers et al., 2007; Tromp & Blomme, 2012). A cultural transformation is needed to popularize such arrangements in the organization. Organizations can establish a work-family culture in order to minimize the conflict between family and work roles (Fiksenbaum 2014). To achieve this, they can propagate presumptions, beliefs and values which may help strike a balance between work and family within the organization (Thompson et al., 1999). Such a cultural environment may provide tolerance and support for members of the organization in cases of conflicting work and family roles (Dikkers et al., 2007).

Emotional labor is an essential part of service industry due to the nature of the industry. However, the surface acting aspect of emotional labor may also increase emotional contradictions among employees and bring about negative consequences. Therefore, employees are recommended to not display surface acting but natural acting (Gürlek et al., 2020). That is because natural acting can decrease WFC by reducing emotional contradictions. Moreover, conflicting roles and role ambiguities can bring forth WFC. Therefore, supervisors need to clearly explain to the employees what their duties and responsibilities are and, in addition, employees must not be obliged to undertake more than one work role at a time (Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2013). Leaders have great responsibilities in preventing WFC. Leaders should not display autocratic leadership behavior, which is an oppressive type of leadership, and display supportive leadership behavior instead (Marianne Tromp & Jan Blomme 2014).

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study presents and discusses the antecedents and consequences of WFC as based on previous research. In this way, it provides to researchers a holistic overview of the antecedents and consequences of the concept at hand. Future studies can include the antecedents and consequences put forth in this study in the research model together and test them simultaneously. Besides that, they can also perform an important-performance analysis to reveal which variables are more related to WFC. Factors such as marital status, gender, number of children, generations and job position can be included in the research model built as moderator variables. For instance, in countries near to the East such as Turkey, women spend more time for their homes. Therefore, the level of relation between the antecedents and consequences of WFC may differentiate in accordance with gender. In their meta-analysis study, Xu & Cao (2019) has addressed eight antecedents and eight consequences of WFC. This study puts forth 17 antecedents and 18 consequences of WFC. Future studies can assert a general understanding by bringing together the results of many studies in a new meta-analysis effort. This study covers only studies performed within the hospitality industry. Future studies can look into the studies performed in different industries and benchmark the findings thereof with the current study.

CONCLUSION

Organizations in the hospitality industry operate 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. For this reason, Employees working in such businesses spend a significant amount of time at work and often receive low wages. This disrupts the work-life balance of the hospitality employees (O'Neill & Follmer, 2020). The work-family imbalance is common for hospitality employees because they often have irregular work programs such as working on public holidays (Wong, & Chan, 2020). Due to the nature of service industry, and especially that of hospitality industry, service workers mostly face issues brought on by WFC. When not managed properly, WFC can give way to disastrous results for employees (Magnini, 2009). Therefore examining WFC in the hospitality industry is valuable. The main purpose of this study is to review and synthesize the antecedents and consequences of WFC in hospitality industry. In short, WFC refers to "an inter-role conflict between the domains of work and family" (Zhao and Namasivayam, 2012, p.458). WFC is classified under two categories as work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) (Frone Russell ve Cooper, 1992). WIF occurs as the demands of work interfere with the fulfillment of family responsibilities, whereas FIW emerges when the demands of family interfere with the fulfillment of job-related responsibilities (Frone, 2003).

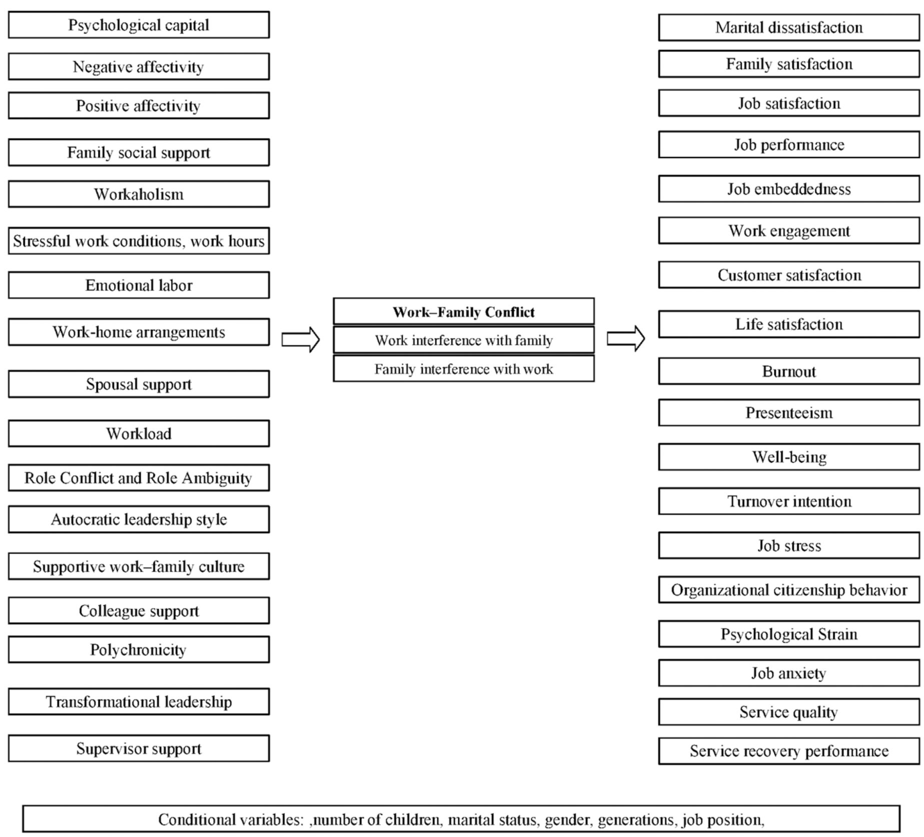
An analytical approach was adopted for the review by following Torraco's (2016) recommendations. A total of 47 studies performed in the hospitality industry from the perspective of the domain of management were included in the study. On this basis, 17 antecedents and 18 consequences of WFC were identified. Concepts such as psychological capital, negative affectivity, positive affectivity, family social support, workaholism, stressful work conditions, work hours, emotional labor, work-home arrangements, spousal support, workload, role conflict and role ambiguity, autocratic leadership style, supportive work–family culture, colleague support, polychronicity, transformational leadership, managerial support, supervisor support were identified as antecedents of WFC. Concepts such as marital dissatisfaction, family satisfaction, job satisfaction, job performance, job embeddedness, work engagement, customer satisfaction, life satisfaction, burnout, presenteeism, well-being, turnover intention, job stress, organizational citizenship behavior, psychological strain, job anxiety, service quality, service recovery performance were identified as consequences thereof. On the basis of the findings, antecedents of the concept were classified under four groups as individual antecedents, familial antecedents, work-based antecedents and organizational antecedents. Consequences were classified under four groups as individual consequences, familial consequences, work-based consequences, and organizational consequences. Classification is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Classification of the antecedents and consequences of WFC

Antecedents	Consequences
Individual	**Individual**
Positive affectivity	Life satisfaction
Positive affectivity	Psychological Strain
Workaholism	Job anxiety
Polychronicity	Well-being
Psychological capital	Burnout
	Job stress
Work-based	**Work-based**
Stressful work conditions, work hours	Job satisfaction
Emotional labor	Job performance
Workload	Job embeddedness
Role conflict and ambiguity	Work engagement
	Presenteeism
	Turnover intention
Familial	**Familial**
Spousal support	Marital dissatisfaction
Family social support	Family satisfaction
Organizational	**Organizational**
Colleague support	Service quality
Supervisor support	Service recovery performance
Transformational leadership	Organizational citizenship behavior
Autocratic leadership	Customer satisfaction
Work-home arrangements	
Supportive work–family culture	

When the findings of the antecedents of WFC are analyzed, it is seen that the antecedents stemmed significantly from the characteristics of the hospitality industry. Stressful work conditions, long work hours, emotional labor, over workload, role conflict, and role ambiguity are among the main characteristics of the hospitality industry (Kuruüzüm, Anafarta, & Irmak, 2008; Gürlek, 2020). However, the antecedents from the family domain, such as family social support and spousal support in the hospitality industry, are among the factors that reduce WFC. In this respect, it can be said that the family domain plays an important role in the hospitality employees' coping with difficult working conditions in the industry. Besides, managerial practices are a critical issue in minimizing WFC. Factors such as work-home arrangements, managerial support, supervisor support contribute to the reduction of WFC in the hospitality industry. This study underlines that the conflict between hospitality employees' work roles and family roles has negative consequences for employees and organizations. When the consequences of WFC are analyzed, it is seen that WFC has negative effects on employees, employees' family life, work, and organization. Especially, WFC negatively affects basic job outcomes such as job satisfaction and job performance. In addition, WFC has negative consequences for private life factors such as life satisfaction and family satisfaction. Moreover, WFC undermines the success of the organization by reducing its service quality and service recovery performance. Given such negative effects of WFC, businesses operating in the hospitality industry should be very careful while increasing the workloads and working hours of employees.

Figure 1. Integrative model



This study provides some contributions to the literature. There are a scarce number of studies addressing the antecedents and consequences of WFC in the hospitality industry in a holistic manner (Xu & Cao, 2019). Looking into the nature of WFC within the hospitality industry, which has a dominant

24/7 work culture (O'Neill ve Xiao, 2010), may bring value for both management and the hospitality literature. The current study can help researchers to perceive theoretical gaps more easily due to the fact that it reveals the antecedents and consequences of WFC based on previous empirical evidence. For instance, a management researcher who is to perform a study of the hospitality industry can see which topics have already been studied upon examining the current study. This study proposes a holistic model containing the antecedents and consequences of WFC based on the literature (Figure 1). The following steps have been followed to create this model. First, the articles reached were reviewed for eligibility. Second, selected studies were read to describe the focus and methodology. A total of 47 articles were included in the review. Third, the studies were grouped in accordance with the antecedents and consequences of WFC. Finally, the findings were integrated in Figure 1. Future studies can test the proposed model and see which antecedents and consequences are more related to WFC.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Emotional Labor: Managing emotions and exhibiting the emotions desired by the firm.

Marital Dissatisfaction: It is that couples are not satisfied with the marriage process.

Polychronicity: A personal preference for doing two or more tasks or activities at the same time.

Presenteeism: The loss of productivity resulting from the employee coming to work while sick.

Spillover: A term that describes the entry of one factor into the domain of another factor.

Work-Family Conflict: A conflict between work role and family role.

Work-Family Culture: Organizational values and beliefs that help employees balance work roles and family roles.

Chapter 12
Blue Economy and Tourism:
Is There a Potential to Create Sustainable Jobs?

Jorge Ramos
University of Algarve, Portugal

Benjamin Drakeford
University of Portsmouth, UK

ABSTRACT

The ocean covers about two-thirds of Earth's surface, and until sometime ago, it was considered an endless source of resources. The distorted advancement of technology was by far too steep in comparison to the pace of renewable resources recovery. Today, it is known that sustainability is fundamental in order to preserve sea resources and ensure their high resilience. Certain sectors are highly demanding in terms of human capital, and the tourism industry seems to be on the rise. Worldwide tourism keeps growing, and several phenomena have determined some trends, particularly related to recreational and cultural activities. Tourism inflicts a high pressure on coastal resources at different levels. Natural and social scientists strive to find solutions for the problem, whereas some other sectors of society try to reach solutions in terms of business opportunities. The tourism industry has a large stake in these issues because it is an important opportunity to take advantage of human capital and simultaneously educate people for more sustainable uses of sea resources.

INTRODUCTION

Humans have sought coastal areas since a long time ago and several activities have been developed according to the needs of humankind. The interest for the ocean, however, is more recent, probably because of advances in technology that can be used in deeper waters further offshore, namely drilling to obtain fossil fuels (e.g. Rajan, 2011) or by exploring new forms of producing renewable energy (e.g. O'Hagan, 2015), extracting metals from the deep (Salomidi et al., 2012) and deeper fisheries (Cartes et al., 2017).

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch012

Altogether those activities can potentially provide an immense panoply of jobs (Wei et al., 2010) and economic growth, particularly in coastal regions.

As a result of these developments and increasing debates on climate change and the ocean's role in mitigating its impacts, there is a growing awareness to ensure sustainable use of ocean resources. However, given the technology developments and the wider interest by countries in developing the blue economy, there is also a growing number of activities related to sea resources and more and more people pursuing ocean-related careers and deriving human benefit from the sea (Bebianno et al., 2018). In the last decades, the ocean and sea have provided an increasing number of maritime-related job opportunities (goods and services on seafood, shipping, fishing, etc.) (Guest et al., 2015). With the increasing number of people engaging in tourism activities in their leisure time, probably the largest share of such jobs are related to maritime/coastal/oceanic tourism and the enormous range of activities on offer (e.g. health, cultural, creative, to name just a few). The adequate management of ocean resources imposed by a modern society continues to thrive and encourages the generation of more jobs (Olsen et al., 2016). Thus, some alternatives are sought for the activities that are less sustainable, and reconversion of jobs are aligned to that (Spagnalo, 2004). Another alternative to the reconversion of jobs is co-creation in tourism, which can add value to traditional activities in coastal areas, such as is the case of the salt pans. These activities can also provide recreational and wellbeing outdoor services (Jakulin and Cop, 2017; Ramos and Campos, 2020).

With the awareness of climate change there is an increasing interest in blue economy in trying to view the ocean not only to preserve its renewable resources (e.g. fish), but also as a potential realm for developing activities with the use of new or improved technologies for ocean observation at a low cost (e.g. internet of things to control sensors of temperature remotely) (Wright and Chan, 2016).

Sometimes trade-offs need to be found. For instance, a given country sought for summer tourism, which has already invested much in tourism infrastructures, should not reverse the decision and start to develop fossil fuels exploitation (Cadarso et al., 2016). The contrary does not also seem reasonable, that is, a given country who already has some fossil fuels exploitation should not decide to invest in tourism infrastructure nearby (Michalena et al., 2009). Of course, all is dependent on the dimension of the country and the distance between activities. Despite the fact that fossil fuels are utilised in every human activity, their exploitation is not possible in many places. On the contrary, the potential for tourism is always available and with the improvement of the fourth industrial revolution technologies, such potential can be explored in many ways, as well as renewable energy (Tang et al., 2011).

The objective of this book chapter is to highlight the potential for blue growth (economy and governance) in developing and encouraging employment in the coastal, marine, maritime and oceanic realm. We describe and discuss the established sectors, as well as the emerging ones, to demonstrate the potential of the blue economy to create sustainable jobs. Particular attention is given to the tourism sector and sustainability of jobs.

SUSTAINABLE PRACTICES AND THE BLUE ECONOMY

Throughout the world, there is an increasing interest to explore marine resources and to expand marine industries in order to create jobs. Energy and food production are the main priorities. The link between 'growth and jobs' and 'growth and sustainability' is explicit in many blue economy development plans e.g. sea basins of the EU (Kraemer, 2017). In fact, all sea basins in the EU have strategies associated with them. The Baltic Sea Strategy, for example, is about returning the sea basin to good environmental status i.e. it is considered ‘biologically sound’ before blue economy sectors exploit resources to deliver jobs and growth. The Atlantic Strategy, for instance, recognises that the Atlantic Ocean has achieved good environmental status and is therefore about sustainable growth and job creation, with an explicit focus on the benefits of sustainable blue economy development for coastal regions and communities.

Johnson & Dalton (2018) refer that the EU policy for the ‘Blue Growth’ defined five priorities: aquaculture, renewable energy, seabed mining, biotech and tourism **(Figure 1)**. There is a great focus on sustainability of resources and sustainable development and developing sectors that have a high potential for sustainable jobs and growth. However, economics indicates that most of the coastal or marine activities may be not sustainable in the long run, if sustainable practices are not taken into account. Some countries promote activities stimulating long-term maintenance of profitable economic coastal activities, as is the case of Japanese Satoumi concept where bottom-up fishing initiatives are taken (Mizuta and Vlachopoulou, 2017). Some traditional activities such as whaling, which is argued to be sustainable resource exploitation by some (see e.g. Cunningham, Huijbens & Wearing, 2012; Moyle & Evans, 2008), has in some countries transitioned to the sustainable use (economic benefits) of whale watching. As whale populations have grown following whaling bans in many nations, in some small island states whale watching is a significant economic activity (see e.g. Cisneros-Montemayor et al, 2010; Moyle & Evans, 2008). Such changes in anthropogenic interactions with marine wildlife, i.e. whaling to watching, have resulted in significant economic benefits from growth in ecotourism.

There is an extensive number of records attesting problems affecting ocean and coastal areas and these are not new to managers (Agardy et al., 2011). The obtention of inputs from the different stakeholders in dealing with such problems is deemed as necessary (Khan and Chuenpagdee, 2014; Gourguet et al., 2018). In Europe, activities sustained in more renewable practices have a great number of supporters (Ramos et al., 2015). Further, most funding programmes at EU level require the active engagement of stakeholders, both those who are directly engaged with the resource (e.g. fishermen) and civil society, following a citizen science approach. This is an important step in developing policy and management plans, which are compatible with resource exploitation and sustainability. The UN has proclaimed a “Decade of Ocean Science for sustainable development (2021-2030)” to reverse the cycle of decline in ocean health (for example, many commercial fish stocks are still categorised as overexploited by the FAO) and build on the “First World Ocean Assessment”, which found that much of the ocean is now seriously degraded (UN, 2018).

There are also new paradigms and eventual controversial opportunities in the global ocean due to for instance the retreat of sea ice opening the opportunity of more activities, namely oil and gas exploitation, as well as shipping and tourism (Skern-Mauritzen et al., 2019). Further, new technologies and capabilities, and the impacts of climate change are affecting Krill in the Antarctic, which is exploited by vessels from several countries (e.g. China and Norway) and is likely to affect future fisheries productivity (McBride et al, 2014). The exploitation of krill is a reasonably new development and economics had previously prevented exploitation, but now krill-meal is being considered a potential replacement to fishmeal, although experimental trials have yield limited results (see e.g. Moutinho et al., 2018). Also, in the developing country context, development plans of several countries e.g. Bangladesh, have recognised that their resource base is more suited to developing a blue economy rather than a traditional land-based economy (World Bank, 2017).

The governance of tourism is a complex system, with many economic sectors that are often interlinked (Tonazzini et al., 2019). Given, the global nature of tourism activities, Intergovernmental Organisations, such as the World Bank and the United Nations, and regional actors, such as the European Commission (in the case of Europe) are essential for promoting responsible tourism that is environmentally and socially sustainable (*op. cit.*).

Blue Economy Jobs

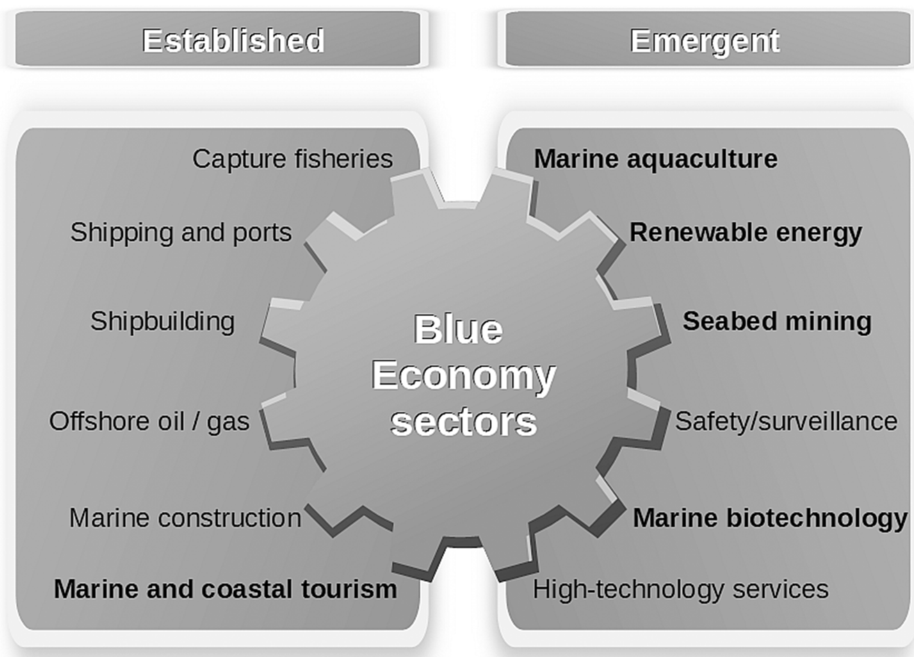
Fishing and trading are probably the first jobs created for people (usually men) working directly with the sea (Burton, 1985; Frost, 1999; Couper, 2009). Boat construction needed many people and resources to build the structures, but large boats with huge and numerous sails needed the captain, the skipper, others specialised, including a crew (Acheson, 1981; Abbott et al., 2010; Squires and Kirkley, 1999). With the advent of powered engines other jobs were created, some related to the mechanics and energy, and other commodities (electricity, cook, master of ceremonies, onboard ship employees). The boat itself also had different crew specificities according to its goal, either for fishing, shipping, offshore oil and gas support, cruising, scientific or any other purpose (Pugh and Skinner, 2002). All the above activities needed support inland, and consequently by establishing activities on sea that need people to work on, there are also jobs created inland, whether they are established in developed or developing countries (Béné and Neiland, 2006).

More recently other sectors have appeared. The overexploitation of some fisheries, the knowledge of fish life cycles of several species, the scarcity of inland spaces and the improvements in technology related to the fourth industrial revolution have encouraged the development of marine aquaculture (Monaco and Prouzet, 2014). The effects of climate change and global warming have put pressure on the development of cleaner forms of energy that tend to be carbon neutral, and developed further offshore, where there is less competition for space (Newell and Paterson, 2010). The overpressure of ore resources inland, jeopardising local people's lives due to pollution and other side effects derived from mining, as well as improvement of technology that is able to go deeper, and the large amount of submerged minerals in the seabed has stimulated its exploitation in this area (Allen, 2000). The rise of marine traffic worldwide due to world trade (which still accounts for the majority of transport for the world's consumption of goods), fishing, transport (including refugees) and some illegal activities has created the need for surveillance either by coast guard, ONG or military patrolling to protect safety at sea (Klein, 2011; Kraska and Pedrozo, 2013). The abundance of unexplored sea resources of biological origin has triggered the development of several biotech related products (Armstrong et al., 2012). In supporting all of the above referred activities, there are high-tech services that are also developed (Mercier-Laurent, 2015).

There are many activities connected to the sea and the ocean. Generally, the sectors related with the blue economy can be split into two broad areas **(Figure 1)**: 1) The established sectors, and 2) The emerging sectors.

The European Commission introduced the definition of the blue growth as 'the long-term strategy to support sustainable growth in the marine and maritime sectors as a whole' (EC, 2012). The EU's blue growth strategy recognises the seas and oceans are drivers of the EU economy and have great potential for innovation and growth (*op. cit.*). As seas and oceans straddle countries and borders, and blue economy sectors straddle maritime business and public authorities, the EU's strategy for blue growth focuses heavily on cooperation and diffusion of best practice – delivered through tailor made sea basin strategies. As of 2017, the EU's blue economy employed more than 5 million people and generated almost EUR 500 billion a year (EC, 2017). According to the OECD (2016), by 2030 the ocean economy will double in size to $3 trillion, accounting for the direct employment of more than 3 billion people.

Figure 1. The European Union policy for the 'Blue Growth'. The sectors in bold are the five priorities. [Source: Adapted from the European Commission (2019)]



Further, looking toward 2030, many ocean-based industries have the potential to outperform growth of the global economy, both in terms of value added and employment (OECD, 2016).

The following sections discuss the potential of the blue economy to create sustainable jobs.

ESTABLISHED SECTORS

Capture Fisheries

Capture fisheries is a long-established blue economy sector. While fish is a renewable resource, it is highly dependent on human pressure and its related consumption (Failler et al., 2007). Therefore, the sustainability of fishing activity highly depends on the type of fisheries practiced. However, apart from small-scale artisanal fishing, worldwide there is increasing pressure due to increased efficiency by technological advancements. In fact, over 75% of commercial stocks are considered overexploited (FAO, 2018). Management measures e.g. the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) in EU fisheries, have been implemented in response to overfishing (and its causes e.g. overcapitalisation), including enforcement actions, but it is very difficult to regulate due to the dimension of the world sea (Garcia and Rosenberg, 2010).

Industrial fisheries, due to their high economic efficiency, extract many fish resources jeopardising their natural renewability (Bolster et al., 2012). This applies even when industrial fisheries operate in a highly selective manner. Each industrial fisheries unit (a large fishing vessel) does not need many people on board (Lloret et al., 2018) and as such industrial fisheries (due to the highly mechanised nature) do not substantially contribute to sustainable employment. In contrast, traditional fisheries, which operate on a smaller-scale basis, need many more people to catch a similar amount of fish as their industrial counterparts. However, as noted by Tietze (2005), traditional fisheries tend to be less economically efficient, resulting from the need for more inputs, and less technological advancement, but are more socially effective because they allocate more people and create more jobs.

In many coastal areas around the world, fisheries have been the tradition and sometimes a job opportunity among few others, if any (Bjørndal et al., 2015). Being at sea on a daily basis is a tough job and in the last decades, young people that tend to have more education than their parents, look for other job opportunities in the employment market (Ljung and Widell, 2014). A possibility is to provide some sort of empowerment to the arts and crafts as new opportunities for specific local communities, as can be found where there is the role of sense of place to encourage residents and their descendants on the decision to operate small and medium business enterprises (SMEs). There is some evidence that in certain local areas, operating tourism related businesses (whether residents or outsiders) contribute to the preservation of community's culture and sustainable tourism development (Liu and Cheung, 2016).

Fishermen have also the perception of risk in relation to their activity (Edvardsson et al., 2011), from a perspective of risk to themselves (given the nature of the danger involved with high seas fishing), and from the perspective of risks from governance and resource management – including competition for space and marine spatial planning – on their activity (Tingley et al., 2010; Soma et al., 2014).

While some fisheries are categorised as overexploited, some exceptions for such decrease in fisheries may be related to going fishing with tourists. *'Pescaturismo'* in Italy is such an example that has been developed since some time ago (Himes, 2007). More recently, other countries have developed similar ideas. In the EU, programmes such as the FLAGS (van de Walle et al., 2015) where public-private partnerships have created the opportunity to stimulate people with business ideas to be entrepreneurs. These sort of activities, where the tourist is also a fisher for a couple of hours creates value to the whole activity. This tends perhaps to be the future of fisheries due to its much higher sustainability.

The concept of 'fishing tourism' though may be limited to local small-scale fisheries, rather than large-scale industrial fleets. It may also be specific to some countries, particularly those who rely heavily on tourism and fishing – for example the Seychelles. Development of a blue economy, centred on tourism and fishing, is key to the development plans of some small island states, like the Seychelles (Drakeford et al, 2020) and linking touristic activities with sustainable fishing offer opportunities for sustainable economic growth.

Some practices, such as industrial fisheries, may produce many fish to consumers, but despite being reasonably known, they are not quite so well managed. The conciliation of artisanal/local fisheries and recreational fishing with tourism may be a more sustainable way to produce fish in the future (Barreiros, 2015). This practice can also generate more economic value from the human capital employed in the activities, leading to gains for society (particularly local communities) by involving more people and contributing to less waste of resources (fish and energy). The questions related to territorial use rights in fisheries (TURFs) may be seen as sustainable practices by improving fishing conditions through engaging local actors (Aceves-Bueno et al., 2017). TURFs linked with marine reserves are also beneficial to tourism connections, as they are implementing sustainable management through community engagement. A thriving and sustainable fisheries sector is also important for tourism. Traditional fishing ports in the UK, for example, Brixham and Newlyn in the South West of England, have become touristic attractions based on the history of the fishing industry in the area. This, in turn, leads to increased and sustained employment opportunities resulting from tourism.

Shipping and Ports

World trade is mostly made possible by shipping. Coastal countries need to develop adequate ports in order to receive and send cargo ships. Containers travel the entire world and make the most desired or sophisticated item available to each household that demands it. Internet developments and the fourth industrial revolution have been easing such processes and shipping is there to allocate that demand (Hummels, 2007).

At EU level, there has been a drive to promote port development as hubs of maritime activity and identifying how the principles of smart specialisation can be used to develop the maritime economy. Public and private investments in "smart hubs" can integrate complex value chains of the different blue economy sectors in ways that specialised ports (e.g. commercial shipping ports) have not done. For example, cruise terminals that already act as hubs for tourism activity can be integrated with other blue economy sectors that draw tourists (e.g. fishing ports). However, one of the main issues to developing cruise tourism (and ports that are capable of handling cruise vessels) is creating economic growth and jobs through tourism revenue, while managing the negative environmental impacts e.g. air pollution (EC, 2007).

In the EU's Atlantic Strategy[1], ports are highlighted as potential blue hubs of excellence that through collaboration can provide solutions to the several environmental problems that ports face. Further, by improving the connectively of blue economy sectors (for example, through port accelerator programmes) economic opportunities exist for multi-use ports (including the 'greening' of ports e.g. decarbonisation). However, further research is required to assess the extent to which blue economy sectors can collaborate in practice e.g. the co-use of offshore platforms for blue economy sectors. The EU funded MARIBE[2] Project addresses this issue, with the aim of strengthening blue economy sectors through synergistic collaboration.

Shipbuilding

Shipbuilders create every type of ship demanded. Ships made of wood, ferrocement, steel and fiberglass are probably the ones most commonly in use for different purposes (Gaythwaite, 2004). But other materials have been used more recently (Stott, 2018). With an increasing tourism demand for recreation, and intensifying environmental awareness, boats have become more environment friendly (Ramirez-Peña, 2020).

The new paths of offshore wind energy have developed from the shipbuilding industry as is the case in Germany. In this case, employment increased tenfold in the last two decades (Fornahl et al., 2012). In Britain, in places showing decreasing industry activity in the sectors such as steel, coal or shipbuilding, some policy makers are giving more importance to creative industries related to arts, heritage, museums, sport and tourism. This has been done since some decades ago (Oakley, 2004).

Shipbuilding is seeking alternative boat construction, namely researchers are keen to enhance the use of renewable energies in order to get more sustainable transportation. The use of solar energy to propel boats are demanded, and the part of the tourism industry that is environmental-friendly is a great supporter of this new technology (Kurniawan 2016).

Shipbuilding has been a traditional industry, but prone to be on the verge of innovative improvements. Thus, the sustainability of innovations occurring in shipbuilding have been studied only in the last decade or so, intending to address 2030 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (Kytölä and Naaranoja, 2016).

Offshore Oil and Gas

Fossil fuels have always been an attractive sector to those that want to earn high wages at the expense of some solitude and harsh work conditions, particularly when the drilling works are at sea. At the present time, there is the complex dilemma of extracting fossil fuels and climate change due to their burning. Simultaneously, the technological development and climate change may ease the access of some fossil fuels that were previously inaccessible.

With the ice retreat due to global warming (climate change), there is an increasing opportunity to both explore oil and gas and tourism as in the case of Svalbard in northern Norway (Kaltenborn & Emmelin, 1993). The relation between these two sectors (i.e., fossil fuels and tourism) is not an easy task. For example, when one is developed the other needs to be slightly further away (Morakabati et al., 2014). Sustainable operations in petroleum engineering are being sought, with an awareness of the environmental issues (Islam & Khan, 2013). It is also a cause for concern that tourism activity as it is exerted nowadays is quite oil-intensive and poses some pressure on sustainability (Becken, 2008).

Oil-driven economies have created wealth, particularly in the Gulf States. Thus, much of the capital generated has been invested in creating competitive new sources for economic growth - having in mind sustainability and employment generation (Ewers, 2016).

Marine Construction

To support coastal activities, significant infrastructure developments are required. Some to protect the coast from erosion and to support coastal economic activities. Some required to be deployed, for instance artificial reefs that has been adopted first in Japan and in the US and afterwards in Europe and elsewhere. Artificial reefs provide several ecosystem services (Ramos et al., 2019). Artificial reef construction *per se* generates some employment before and during the deployment period, and potentially enhances job sustainability and eventually creation of jobs after deployment, either related to fisheries or tourism (mainly diving) (Sutton and Bushnell, 2007; Whitmarsh et al. 2008; Oliveira et al. 2015). Many of these constructions may be related to building, but need professionals with different backgrounds such as architecture, engineering, design etc. Some artificial reef structures have been considered as important tourism resources and management tools in the promotion of scuba diving tourism, providing additional opportunities to tourism ventures (Stolk et al., 2007; Oh et al., 2008).

The coastal population is on the increase and in several countries the coastal zone is a major source of tourism-related income (Klein et al., 2004). The long-term ecological health and sustainability of the marine and coastal environments are obviously at risk. Coastal projects such as beach re-nourishment, housing developments, pipeline, harbour and marina construction can have negative impacts on the coastal environment that must be mitigated. Coastal construction can include structural designs that are not ecosystem friendly. Structures incorporating fish and invertebrate habitat are good options with no additional construction cost (Pioch et al., 2011).

Marine construction is only accounted for the blue/marine economy when they are established in places near or close to the coast (Surís-Regueiro et al., 2013). The construction of marine structures is not always on the rise, but usually involve several companies and workers due to the complexity of some works (Fernández-Macho et al., 2015). This complexity needs the contribution of a diverse range of professionals from several sectors of activity (e.g. architecture, engineering, environmental agents, construction and other technical professionals).

Marine and Coastal Tourism

The increasing demand for tourism and associated entertaining activities related to the sea creates opportunities to marine and coastal entrepreneurs (Baum, 2006). Snorkelling, scuba diving, surfing, body boarding, kitesurfing, stand-up paddling, water scooter, canoeing, kayaking, etc. near the shore in touristic places are business opportunities that stimulate many people to create their own jobs (Sardá et al., 2005). Even small towns may have a great potential to develop their local economy by specialising in activities related to a given tourist demand. Machado et al. (2018) explore the case of surfing in a rural municipality in a region well known for tourism, as in the case of the Algarve.

This sector seems to be already well established, but probably one of the ones that may have more space to be developed. Increasing tourism demand and their environment awareness leads to new forms and ideas of fulfilling tourist's demand (Boniface et al., 2016). Pendleton et al. (2007) note that coastal recreation and the tourism industry are great generators of jobs and beaches and recreational fishing are well founded in the literature allowing an effective support for policymaking.

Certain areas of marine tourism, like cetacean based tourism, has grown in recent years. However, as highlighted by Rocha et al, (2020), not every operator has an environmental education component attached to its programme. Therefore, this form of marine tourism has the potential to negatively impact on the animals targeted e.g. dolphins. There is a need to develop educational programmes, which can be implemented on an international level, to ensure that different types of marine tourism are sustainable and continue to generate employment and touristic opportunities.

Some further drawbacks can be found in marine and coastal tourism. One such example is related to the erosion that many cliffy or sandy beaches suffer (Teixeira, 2014). Some of these erosive phenomena are provoked by climate change and sea level rise and may have some impacts on coastal tourism that are deterred from using some dangerous or no longer accessible coastal places (Kildow & McIlgorm, 2010). Marine litter and pollution provoked by plastics and other residual materials also damage not only the marine environment, but also local economies and particularly the tourism industry (McIlgorm et al., 2011).

Other Established Sectors

There are other established sectors of activity where firms produce goods and services related to the sea and ocean. Either related to maintenance of structures or marine research and development, sand dredging, marine transport and eventually other marine services such as preventing from marine pollution (e.g. oil spills).

EMERGING SECTORS

Marine Aquaculture

Aquaculture has grown rapidly around the world and now accounts for more than 50% (by volume) of fish produced for human consumption (FAO, 2018). Marine aquaculture, also known as mariculture, refers to the farming of fish in the sea, using enclosed systems e.g. net pens, cages (finfish) or ropes, bags or cages (shellfish). As of 2016, mariculture production amounted to 28.7 million tonnes with a first sales value of USD 67.4 billion (*op. cit.*). The rapid growth in mariculture can mainly be attributed to technological developments, advances in feed efficiency and increased demand for farmed seafood products. However, the rapid expansion of the sector has been coupled with environmental concerns, including waste, introduction of invasive species and wider issues of sustainability e.g. the use of fishmeal in aquafeeds (which equates for about 1/3 of global capture fisheries landings).

Marine spatial planning is the tool used to reduce congestion and conflict among maritime sectors, and to plan for sustainable development, both environmental and economic (e.g. growth and jobs by harnessing ocean resources). Regarding aquaculture, marine spatial planning at the EU level, for example, considers conflicts between aquaculture and other activities in the marine environment, such as the visual impact of aquaculture sites that may be considered to devalue the aesthetics of otherwise pristine environments e.g. Scottish Lochs. Thus, most of the time is not possible to make aquaculture developments offshore– at say 20 miles from the shore – because expenditures are too high due to high traveling costs, or because there is water temperature inadequacy (Ramos and Ferreira, 2019). Aquaculture-tourism conflicts for this reason are generally inshore, as many touristic activities e.g. recreational fishing, diving etc require the same sheltered inshore locations as aquaculture operations. Several initiatives at the EU level are attempting to reduce such aquaculture-tourism conflict. In the Catalonia and Murcia regions of Spain, where innovative systems for farming bluefin tuna have been developed, there is an explicit link with tourism - in that tourists are offered the opportunity to swim with tuna in open ocean cages (MSP Platform Conflict Fiche).

Renewable Energy

Blue energy (i.e. offshore wind) and ocean energy (i.e. wave and tidal) are rapidly evolving, with jobs in offshore wind alone growing ten-fold from 2008-2018, with significant offshore energy employment related to onshore jobs e.g. the production of turbines (EC, 2019). The growth in marine renewable energy is expected to continue at an increasing rate, resulting from economies of scale – mainly reduced production, installation and maintenance costs (e.g. floating offshore wind platforms), as well as the role of marine renewable energy in helping governments reach decarbonisation objectives (*op. cit.*). Wave and tidal ocean energy technologies are relatively new compared with offshore wind, and still in the research and development phase, primarily funded by the private sector, generating less employment opportunities. Further, the development of tidal energy is not seen as being so intrusive on the aesthetic value of oceans that is often highly valued by tourists.

However, there are several negative links between the growth of marine renewable energy (particularly offshore wind) and tourism. There is growing concern that offshore wind installations (most of which are visible from beaches) detract from the overall tourism experience, influencing on the number of tourist visiting sites near offshore wind developments and thus the tourism contribution to the economy (MSP

Platform Conflict Fiche). However, the rapid growth in the offshore wind sector has been responsible for increased jobs, although the benefits to local communities in terms of employment and contribution to the local economy is less clear. Given tourism is an important (often the most important) sector to coastal economies, there is concern over the continued impact of offshore wind development over other forms of marine energy e.g. tidal. In the EU, funding has mainly been directed to offshore wind research and development, as a trade-off between wave and tidal (i.e. offshore wind is far cheaper to develop).

Other Emerging Sectors

There are other emerging sectors of activity related to the exploitation of coastal and oceanic resources, such as seabed mining, safety and surveillance, marine biotechnology, and high-technology services. Seabed mining and marine biotechnology are among the five priority sectors of activity defined by the EU policy. Their relation to the generation of employment maybe potentially high, but their relation to the tourism sector is probably low - as a result they are not discussed in this chapter.

Tourism: the largest employer

The emerging topic of blue economy development in the last two decades - and its potential to create related jobs with special focus on the tourism industry - has been under scrutiny. Many innovations were created and with them many jobs were also generated (Pauli, 2010). In the Atlantic Arc, innovation, human capital and social capital have been the main contributions to the establishment of maritime clusters and their consolidation (Pinto et al., 2015).

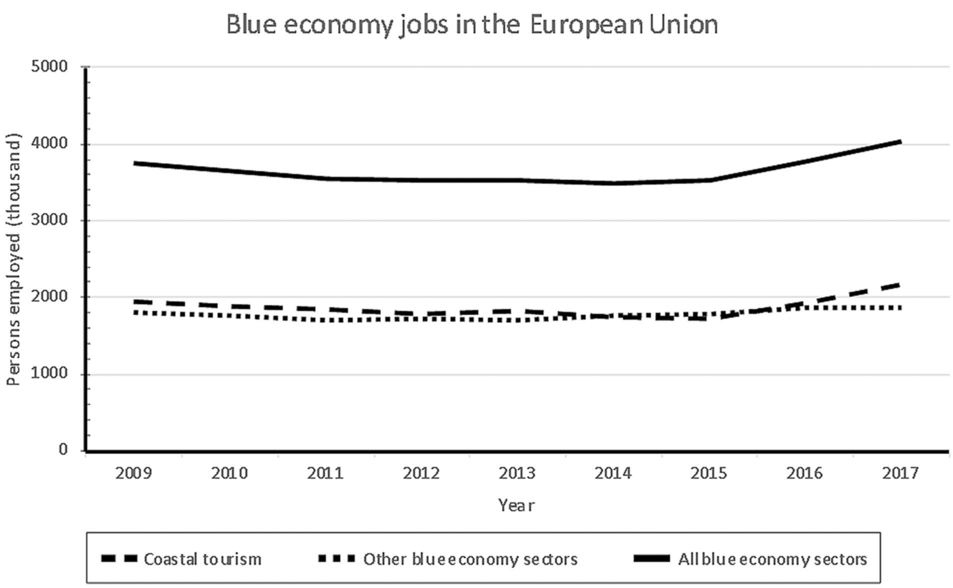
Despite the seafood sector being the largest employer among the industries that rely on the ocean resources (Jouffray et al., 2020), in many parts of the Eastern Atlantic, coastal tourism brings millions of tourists and as such is the largest employer in the blue economy (Calado et al., 2019). Jarratt and Davies (2019) report that tourism stands at the frontline as the main employer in coastal regions of the EU (**Figure 2**). In Africa the sector that is usually the major employer in coastal countries is normally tourism. This sector is also the largest contributor to the gross national product (GDP) and sustainability plays a great role in attracting tourism (Diop and Scheren, 2016). Safety and the good health status of the oceans are important to keep economic, recreational and cultural activities in demand (Techera and Winter, 2019).

Leisure, sport and recreational fishing are marine activities subject to several regulations – dependent on the country. Usually these activities require specific individual licences for fishing (Pawson et al., 2008). In the coastal areas of the Mediterranean, several firms took advantage of developing these economic activities generating good business opportunities and created jobs (Franquesa et al., 2004). However, in northern European countries such as Sweden, there are some restrictions to the development of recreational fishing firms (Waldo and Paulrud, 2012).

Tourism activities such as marine wildlife tours where tourists wish to be in contact with nature provide several benefits to visitors namely by giving them the opportunity to benefit from educational and conservation activities, including emotional bonds as well as learning (Zeppel, 2008). In several tourism locations, there is an increasing demand for on-board, scuba diving and snorkelling for wildlife observation of whales, dolphins, sharks, rays, turtles and other iconic species (e.g. Zemah Shamir et al., 2019).

Nowadays sustainable whale watching has replaced whale hunting, generating higher income. In addition, it is also one of the fastest growing wildlife tourism activities in the world (Silva, 2015). In certain countries, tourists are attracted to visit shark-diving tourism sites, which has grown in popularity e.g. in some of Indo-Pacific nations. Such activities contribute much to the economy of those countries that are highly dependent on tourism (Vianna et al., 2012). In the Maldives, shark-diving tourism is responsible for the creation of many jobs and increased economic benefits (Zimmerhackel et al., 2019). However, there are also some drawbacks, namely species disturbance due to lack of regulation when the new profitable phenomenon occurs, as in the case of shark tourism (Shamir et al., 2019). In such cases, responsible tourism and adequate design - including programmes with different levels of knowledge for users - are primordial to sustainability (Grimwood et al., 2015).

Figure 2. The trend of the blue economy jobs in the European Union since 2009
[Source: Adapted from the European Commission (2019)]



DISCUSSION

The terminology “blue economy” is relatively new. The purpose of this chapter was to identify and explore the established and emerging sectors related to the topic of blue economy and the potential to create related jobs, with a special focus on the tourism industry. The European Commission has considered the tourism sector as one of the most vital of our times, capable of generating income and jobs, ultimately contributing to higher wealth. In this emergent paradigm, countries having coastal areas should focus intensely on the tourism industry, particularly focusing on blue economy issues. By now, the blue economy, due to several global environmental challenges, needs more action and involvement from different sectors of society. Sustainable practices are needed and required. Capable human capital is of fundamental importance.

Due to the limited capacity of the sea to respond to anthropogenic pressure, new fisheries and aquaculture concepts - mainly related to more sustainable use of resources - have been sought by new firms employing highly qualified human resources. Tourism trends show that there is an increasing interest for such extractive activities, namely sustainability of seafood by attributing their origin and sustainability certification (e.g. MSC – Marine Stewardship Council on certain fisheries or species in given geographic locations). A relationship between both types of economic activities can generate more sustainable practices, either from the perspective of the producer (fisheries and aquaculture firms) or the consumer (tourists).

The blue economy is about harnessing the ocean's wealth to create growth and jobs, particularly in coastal areas (which are often the poorest performing segments of the economy). The European Union (EU) has a wealth of ocean resources and has put in place support mechanisms to harness them. For example, the EU's Atlantic Strategy has stimulated over €6 billion of investment in more than 1,200 projects. Coastal regions in the EU Atlantic area represents 18% of the population, generating 20% of EU GDP. Creating jobs that are long-term (i.e. beyond the often seasonal nature of employment in coastal regions) is key to developing the blue economy.

Thus, the challenge is transferring knowledge from project outputs to society, namely by capitalising on economic activities and related jobs. It is intended to go further by exploring not only the traditional extractive economic values of resources either by catching or rearing marine living organisms (e.g. fish, shellfish), but also extending the business concept to non-extractive economic values (e.g. tourism visits, diving). The potential to create new jobs is triggered by innovative products and/or services that address demand and being able to satisfy it. In addition, innovative products and/or services should be able to address market differentiation issues.

Altogether, it is about creating additional value to existing resources and posing a lower environmental pressure on them. The upgrading of coastal infrastructures to more environment friendly devices; associated to the increasing number of self-made entrepreneurs, who are highly educated and nature aware, has been contributing to satisfy an increasing demand for sustainable coastal tourism. The value created with such service activities may overtake the value of extracting activities, posing a lower pressure on marine resources and generating higher wealth.

Investment in education, in the development of skills and further training is paramount to deliver the skilled workforce that is needed to bring about the potential of the emergent blue economy. In many sectors of the blue economy, it is not a lack of labour that may limit expansion, but the availability of skilled labour. Further, adequate legislation and political will need to be applied in order to encompass blue economy developments in a sustainable way.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There may be several constraints with some coastal economic activities. For instance, a sudden demand from the tourism industry for services may trigger new entrants, which in turn may offer redundant services. In addition, too many competitors may pose some risk to natural or biological resources. Adequate management of human capital is therefore of vital importance.

It is highly valuable to have new entrants and renewal of the existing ones, but the management of such competitors is fundamental to maintain natural resources sustainable. Too much extraction of raw materials is negative and may be an undesirable waste of resources. The development of innovative services that address demand in a suitable way is therefore one of the main goals sought by the blue economy in connection with tourism.

It is important to keep and improve science and technology knowledge, but paramount is the use of human resources to determine trade-off solutions. The tourism industry seems to be on the rise in terms of human capital demand. Tourism continues to grow and there is demand for many services (e.g. nature-related to observe wildlife). Tourism exerts - to a certain extent - a high pressure on coastal resources at different levels: coastal settlement landscapes, seafood resources, freshwater consumption and seawater use, to name just a few. The adequate management of all these pressures within an integrated framework is needed. Scientific research, including the environmental, economic and social interactions, is paramount for achieving sustainable management. In the EU, a significant emphasis on the role of citizen science, engaging stakeholders for policy makers to civil society, will underpin the sustainable development of tourism within wider blue economy development.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This paper is financed by Portuguese National Funds provided by FCT - Foundation for Sciences and Technology through project UID/SOC/04020/2019.

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ENDNOTES

[1] See https://ec.europa.eu/maritimeaffairs/policy/sea_basins/atlantic_ocean_en
[2] See www.maribe.eu

Chapter 13
Designing Entrepreneurial Ecosystems to Support Resource Management in the Tourism Industry

Leah Ryan
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3978-6437
Letterkenny Institute of Technology, Ireland

Manuel Catena
Letterkenny Institute of Technology, Ireland

Pablo Ros
Universidad de Murcia, Spain

Simon Stephens
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0322-0888
Letterkenny Institute of Technology, Ireland

ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this chapter is to review the literature on entrepreneurial ecosystems as it relates to the tourism sector. The authors do this in order to develop an understanding of the needs of the human resource management needs of tourism entrepreneurs. The experience of tourism entrepreneurs is documented in the academic literature. Jaafar and Rasoolimanesh report that the tourism industry is an important catalyst for regional economic activity. Therefore, the importance of this sector has caught the attention of policy makers and academics. However, research has identified that the area lacks the presence of effective and evidence-based theory. In this chapter, the authors review the literature on entrepreneurial ecosystems as it relates to the tourism industry. They provide recommendations for customizing entrepreneurial supports and ecosystems to maximize the success of human resource management and human capital development amongst tourism entrepreneurs.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch013

INTRODUCTION

The study of entrepreneurship has grown rapidly over the past two decades. Berglund and Johansson (2007, p. 78) propose that there is some kind of mystification regarding the assumptions that can be attached to entrepreneurship. The result is a wide range of policies which affect virtually every element of the entrepreneurial ecosystem (Hegarty *et al.,* 2020). The intention to start a new venture can be culturally bound. Culture refers to the way activities are typically undertaken and completed in an entrepreneurial ecosystem (Brennan 1992, p. 3), i.e. its modus operandi. It can be argued that the entrepreneurs are influenced by the supports and culture of their entrepreneurial ecosystems. (Bass and Avolio 1993). Entrepreneurial culture focusses on the existence of common values, attitudes; and essential assumptions of what is important (Brown 1995, p. 9). According to Patterson and Spencer (1991, p. 142), it refers to the model of behaviour, beliefs and ideologies that people have about their entrepreneurial ecosystem. Therefore, it is important to understand the relationship between entrepreneurship culture and the design and development of entrepreneurial ecosystems.

The decision to become an entrepreneur can be a deliberate career choice. However, it can also be driven by certain triggering events (Bygrave and Zakarakis, 2014), for example, a change in an individual's social, family and/or economic circumstances (Littunen, 2000). An entrepreneurial ecosystem can be characterised by many factors such as: regulation, political systems, labour market dynamics, infrastructure and the availability of credit. Sustainable job creation particularly in rural communities requires that we provide an ecosystem that enables entrepreneurs to develop, create, produce and supply innovative new products and services. In addition entrepreneurs will need support to allow them the efficiently and effectively manage the factors of production. Indeed, there is a need to support all types of entrepreneurs throughout their business cycle and in all their activities. Van Gelderen *et al*., (2008, p. 539) reflect that changes in the political and socio-economic environment have resulted in fewer opportunities for continuous organizational employment. New structures and strategies need to be explored, as entrepreneurs are likely to require assistance in order to develop their: business ideas; grow sales; and manage their factors of production. This is particularly important in areas where the traditional socio-economic environment has been impacted by the development of new industries e.g. the tourism industry, which often replaces traditional local businesses in rural areas across Europe. For example, entrepreneurs in the area of tourism in coastal rural communities must manage the traditional seasonality, inconsistency and instability associated with employment in the industry. Therefore, one of the main factors in progress of any tourism industry component is the development of human capital. Indeed, the appearance of innovative types of contracts such as the discontinuous fixed employment contract have a significant impact on the local labour markets (Simon-Moya *et al*., 2014; and Yebra-Serrano, 2019). Therefore, this chapter examines the impact that the proliferation of research on entrepreneurial experiences has for the evolution of entrepreneurial ecosystems. The focus is on developing design principles that can help to integrate the literature. The purpose is to help to (re)design existing practices or design new solutions for enhancing government managed/influenced ecosystems with an emphasis on the management of the factors of production, specifically, human resources.

Entrepreneurship and Rural Regeneration

Rural communities across Europe have experienced rapid changes in terms of population, the number of service providers, the range of social and cultural amenities, the development of infrastructure and the growth in the service sector. This poses question about how best to manage resources. Traditionally, economic development efforts have been directed toward: (1) business attraction, (2) business retention/expansion, and (3) business creation, with primary focus on the first, minimal attention to the second, and almost total disregard for the third (Klein *et al*, p. 305). The continuous search for responsible and sustainable practices in the tourism industry paves the way for alternative approaches to rural development. For many rural communities people and their human capital is the primary resource, highly valued but often lacking appropriate management. Often, local communities are at the foreground of innovative tourism entrepreneurship and development strategies (Aquino *et al*., 2018). However, many communities suffer from lack of infrastructural investment; education provision; access to enterprise supports and training in resource management. As a result, many communities are incapable of adapting to the necessary changes. With a cycle of under-investment, weak employment and skills gaps in the labour market, especially for young people, many rural communities are exposed to economic and social challenges. Business closures, a decline in agriculture, the demise of public services, financial systems; and poor connectivity has left communities isolated and in deficit in terms of key infrastructure, the factors of production and growth opportunities. Tourism entrepreneurs work on the frontline helping individuals affected by these issues, supported by local authorities and development agencies and the broader entrepreneurial ecosystem. But their actions have been curtailed by a reduction of funding over the last ten years and there are underlying, structural challenges. The high levels of rural community decline challenge us to develop new insights into causes of failure and innovative approaches to growth. We believe that tourism entrepreneurs make transformative changes in community regeneration by improving knowledge, skills, confidence and connections. Furthermore, tourism entrepreneurs can act in specific areas such as community leadership, cross-sector collaboration, social enterprise, innovative investment approaches, cultural heritage, impact evaluation and more.

A further issue identified by Aquino *et al*., (2018) is that the scale of tourism enterprises operating are usually micro, small or medium-scale organisations and have been depicted as industry outliers that are aimed to positively transform the tourism system. Although rural Europe has witnessed dramatic changes in the last number of decades, one aspect of rural life that remains unwavering, irrespective of decline or growth, is the contribution and impact of entrepreneurship. On a consistent basis, tangible and quantifiable enhancements are made to the quality of life of rural inhabitants as a result of entrepreneurial activity carried out in rural villages, towns and peripheral areas (Farrell, 2018). In the last two decades, rural areas have witnessed unprecedented change and transformation, driven largely by technological innovation, social modernization, and processes of globalisation (Woods, 2012). Many European countries have and are experienced rural economic restructuring. Social and economic change disturbs the equilibrium of communities leading to opposition, conflict and underutilisation of human capital and the other factors of production. Locally organized collective action includes many different strands, each of which draws on different life histories, cultures and social issues. Together they can be seen as creating a strong, vibrant force within society, through which ordinary people are able to improve the quality of their lives, tackle problems and challenge unfair situations. Smith (2012, p. 57) explains that socio-economic decline in rural areas is a pervasive and debilitating phenomenon in terms of regional development, particularly when former models of economic growth, which once stimulated business generation and regeneration can no longer be counted on to do so. Indeed, Franco and Tracey (2019) propose that although the value of community capacity building is widely accepted within scholarly literature, there is a need to increase knowledge regarding specific priority areas which can be effective pathways towards sustainable development. In Europe most countries, regions and local municipalities have a development or regeneration strategy that aims to ensure community investment, with a commitment to supporting indigenous enterprise via an emergent and publicly managed ecosystem. While many plans have a collaborative framework, in recent years, the scope of these plans has been limited by budgetary restraints; systemic problems with infrastructure; and poor resource management. In Europe our communities need regeneration and reenergizing. Tourism entrepreneurship within a publically managed ecosystem is one possible approach.

ENTREPRENEURIAL ECOSYSTEMS

Indeed, Aldrich and Zimmer (1986) suggest the inclination to enter into entrepreneurship is sometimes based on culture, religion or national origins. Findings from a study conducted by Wennberg *et al.,* (2013) concluded that the promotion of an entrepreneurial culture is a key element of the successful design of an entrepreneurial ecosystem. However, Chakraborty *et al.,* (2016) found that culture does not always affect entrepreneurial actions; it is also influenced by other characteristics such as demographics, work and life experiences (Wennberg *et al.,* 2013). Each country will approach entrepreneurship differently thus, differences will occur within countries in terms of economic and social development and the characteristics of the entrepreneurial ecosystem which emerges. However, there is a consensus that an entrepreneurial ecosystem can be created to nurture small business start-ups and appropriate resource management and utilization (Simon-Moya *et al*., 2014). Despite the design and operation of the ecosystem, multiple factors drive entrepreneurship. These factors include culture, personal status, wage/salary increase, entrepreneurial education, family circumstances and fundamental soft and hard skill proficiency (Spigel and Harrison, 2018; and Bloemen-Bekx *et al*., 2019).

Blanchflower *et al.,* (2001) explain how each nation is diverse in terms of their enthusiasm towards enterprise development and creation of a suite of supports via an entrepreneurial ecosystem. Therefore, it is important to understand the relationship between entrepreneurship and public policy as it can be an integral component in the development of effective ecosystems. Findings from a study conducted by Wennberg *et al.,* (2013) concluded that the promotion of an entrepreneurial culture through innovative public policy design and initiatives should encourage entrepreneurs by celebrating new venture creation and emphasizing the personal development of the entrepreneur rather than their economic contribution. Roundy *et al*., (2017, p 100) propose that entrepreneurial ecosystems – communities of agents, social structures, institutions, and cultural values that produce entrepreneurial activity – are receiving growing academic, practitioner, and policy-maker attention and are increasingly viewed as a source of economic growth and revitalization. While certain individual-level characteristics shape entrepreneurial activity, entrepreneurs must be understood in terms of their entrepreneurial ecosystem. Kline *et al.,* (2014, p. 306) explain that the entrepreneurial ecosystem refers to the interdependent set of physical, legal, cultural, financial, human, and organizational elements within a community that has the potential to support or thwart an entrepreneur's activity.

Berglund and Johansson (2007, p. 78) propose that sustainable job creation requires that governments and support agencies provide an ecosystem that enables entrepreneurs to emerge and create value-added for themselves and their communities. Indeed Kearney *et al*., (2019) argue that future rural sustainability and development will depend heavily on a better understanding of the role of entrepreneurs and micro firms in society and the economy and on the cultivation of studies of how entrepreneurs and micro firms are supported. This enhanced understanding should result in better design, development and management of appropriate ecosystems. It can be argued that the support of governmental agencies is particularly relevant, for example, Javier and Aser (2010) propose that one of the key parts to the success of tourism business is the role of publically funded support agencies (within the ecosystem). Accordingly, both national and local governments should work together while instituting the policy and strategy for sustainable tourism business environments. In addition, these agencies should involve all the shareholders to represent all their viewpoints and welfares related with the tourist sector (Brokaj, 2014).We propose that there is a need to support entrepreneurs throughout all the stages of their evolution and in all their activities. Essential supports include the provision of the following: firstly, education; secondly, business incubation; and finally, access to formal business networks. According to the literature, these supports occur organically and/or are publically created in what is termed an entrepreneurial ecosystem.

Malecki (2018) explains that the term entrepreneurial ecosystem came into existence in the 2000s. However, due to the diversity of different entrepreneurs and their different backgrounds, a lack of suitable descriptors and metrics for ecosystems exist. Many academics have attempted to structure a definition, which they believe best describes an entrepreneurial ecosystem. For example, Stam and Spigel (2016, p. 1) explains how the concept shapes an idea that a community of independent actors and factors can be coordinated in way that they enable productive entrepreneurship within a particular territory. A definition put forward by Cohen (2006 p.3) is that:

Entrepreneurial ecosystems are defined as an interconnected group of actors in a local geographic community committed to sustainable development through the support and facilitation of new sustainable ventures.

Alternatively, it is defined by Stam (2014, p. 5) as:

A set of independent actors and factors coordinated in such a way that they enable productive entrepreneurship within a particular territory.

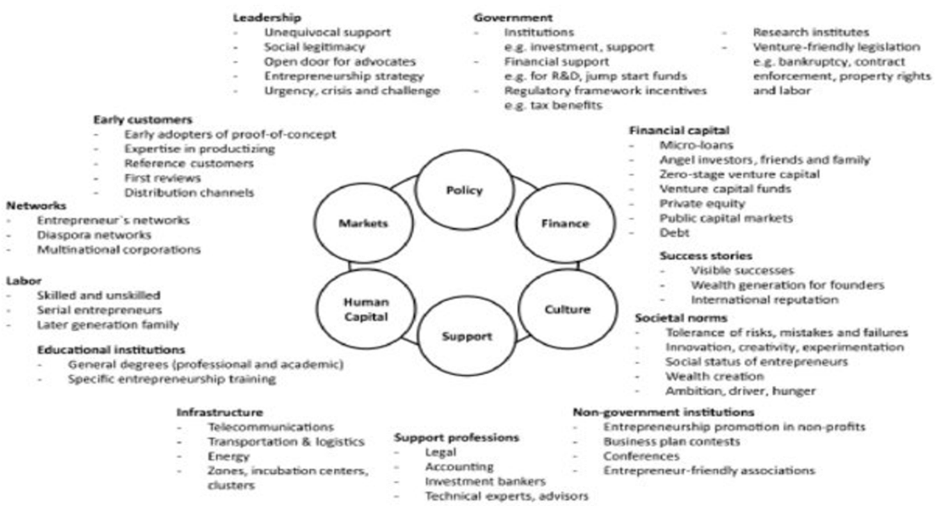
An additional definition worth considering is by Mohamed Chohra (2019, p.14)

This entrepreneurial ecosystem includes public and private business (large and small firms, and entrepreneurs), policy-makers (at international, national, regional and local levels), researchers and academic institutions (universities and laboratories)

The literature reflects a view that ecosystems should encompass a holistic approach and that all elements of ecosystem influence entrepreneurial activity within a geographical bounded environment. It is not possible to focus on all the elements in this chapter. Therefore, in the next section and our conclusion we will focus on the resource management elements and associated issues. The entrepreneurial ecosystem is useful as a means of contextualizing the increasingly complex and interdependent social systems underpinning new venture creation (Kline *et* al., 2014; and Cavallo, *et al*., 2018). It also is useful to conceptualize the role of government and public policy in shaping and enhancement entrepreneurial activities, resource management and outcomes. The entrepreneurial ecosystem is not just the abundance or endowment of particular key factors of production. It is also the manner in which economic activity is organized, within geographic space and the role of entrepreneurship in bringing it to life (Ács *et al*., 2018 p. 18). Entrepreneurial ecosystems involve multi-level processes and stakeholders, multiple actors and multiple contexts. These include systematic conditions such as networks of entrepreneurs, leadership, finance, talent, knowledge and support (auxiliary) services, all contained within a form of social context which can enable or limit interaction (Baggio and Chiappa, 2013; Cavallo *et al*., 2018). These ecosystems are often significantly impacted by geography, with the physical distance (or territory) between the entrepreneur and ecosystem resources acting as a natural barrier (Pankov *et al*, 2019). As such, entrepreneurial ecosystems regulate the nature and quality of entrepreneurial activities by shaping the direction and potential rewards associated with opportunity identification, creation, and pursuit (Wright *et al*., 2017, p. 911). It can be assumed that entrepreneurial ecosystems do, however, provide entrepreneurs with the best opportunities.

Isenberg (2010) presents a 'model of an entrepreneurship ecosystem'. The model aims to encourage economic growth. It consists of six departments with each compromising of hundreds of subsections which interact with one another (please refer to figure 1).

Figure 1. Isenberg's model of an entrepreneurship ecosystem
Source: *adapted from Mack and Mayer (2015)*



Furthermore, Isenberg (2010) proposes a range of options for policy makers and government agencies who wish to create an entrepreneurial ecosystem. We have summarized the options into four key considerations in relation to entrepreneurial ecosystems in Tourism.

1. Refrain from trying to emulate and replicate other ecosystems which are often unique and specific to a culture, economic structure and/or industry.
2. Customize the ecosystem around local conditions.
3. Engage the private sector from the start with the public sectors role to assist and facilitate, but not control this ecosystem.
4. Get a big win. Success stories encourage others to be innovative and entrepreneurial.

Prahalad, (2005) identified that a market environment whereby the ecosystem makes it possible for individuals, companies and society to effectively combine for the purpose of economic wealth. According to Isenberg, the entrepreneurial movement is not because of a person's heroics or even one theory, but because of the shared ambition of a community of investors committed to supporting innovation and developing a new environment for their dream and prosperity.

Entrepreneurial Ecosystems and Resource Mangement in Tourism

Hall (2006) reports that when the term tourism industry is used in studies it is generally used in reference to a supposedly readily identified collection of firms and organizations which share a common industrial and organizational goal. An entrepreneur in the tourism sector may be categorised into multiple divisions including: lifestyle entrepreneur; social entrepreneur; rural entrepreneur; and a hospitality entrepreneur. The distribution of tourists in space and time and their associated consumption patterns should not be confused with the location of firms and organizations that may choose to classify themselves as part of the tourism industry – or not. A community's quantity and quality of supply of tourism entrepreneurs significantly determines the magnitude and form of its tourist scape because the tourism entrepreneur is the persona causa of tourism development (Koh and Hatten, 2002). The area of tourism entrepreneurship is one of which is growing in interest. Jaafar and Rasoolimanesh (2015) reported that the tourism industry triggers regional economic activity, Consequently, the importance of this sector has caught the attention of many academics. Tourism entrepreneurship was previously assumed to occur in a planned manner. However, according to Ratten (2018) and Boes *et al*., (2016) tourism entrepreneurship develops due to a mixture of cultural and social factors including advances in technology.

Entrepreneurship is a critical factor in the development of a sustainable tourist industry, both regionally and at national level (Chang, 2011). According to Khanka (1999), a tourism entrepreneur is a person or a group of persons producing, developing and managing tourism products. But they are also sourcing, developing and managing the factors of production available to them. A key factor of production and resource in their community are people. The entrepreneurs play a key role in developing existing human capital but also in recruiting new human resources into the community. Koh and Hatten (2014) identified the prominence of entrepreneurs in tourism development. These entrepreneurs transform the local societies, economies and the availability and management approaches in relation to the factors of production. Furthermore, they often facilitate economic growth; and for that reason, tourism entrepreneurship is one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world. Entrepreneurial ecosystems usually develop in areas where the appropriate assets are already available. Indeed, it is a foundation of economic and regional development that certain areas should specialize in an industry which best relates to the sociocultural of the area. However, as previously indicate tourism entrepreneurship is often a response to an absence of other forms of labour opportunities. (Cagica, 2017, p. 7) claims that entrepreneurial ecosystems develop in locations that have place-specific assets. We would contend that tourism entrepreneurial ecosystems often lack sufficient factors of production to facilitate specialization, but that over time innovative entrepreneurial activities facilitate enhance utilization and availability of appropriate resources. Pergelova and Angulo-Ruiz, (2014) explain that public investment in entrepreneurship policies include trade-offs across alternative growth incentives including public support for incubation. Therefore, it is critical that design and management principles for entrepreneurial ecosystems are revised and updated to ensure they best meet the needs and expectations of tourism entrepreneurs.

Tourism has traditionally been regarded as a low-impact economic activity that contributes to the cultural and economic progress of certain areas by increasing the welfare of their local population. This is not the case. Tourism entrepreneurs perform a key role in transforming existing factors of production and through their human resource initiatives developed an enhanced level of human capital for their business and their community. There are numerous examples of this positive economic impact in traditional tourist destinations e.g. the Spanish Mediterranean Coast. In some areas, it has also established itself as an integral part of city life e.g. in Malaga, even in cities where the local economy is not dominated by tourism and leisure production (Hall, 2006). However, urban tourism has not received enough attention in the literature on both urban planning and sustainable tourism (Ashworth and Page, 2011); rural tourism has received even less attention. Furthermore, the emphasis has been on environmental issues compared to the socio-cultural impacts and prospects (Bramwell, 2015; Buckley, 2012). The social component is represented as equitability; a measure for the fair distribution of economic wealth and other costs and benefits between different groups and stakeholders (McElduff *et al.*, 2016). For instance, the tourism sector employs a relatively high number of women and people with relatively low levels of education, which could be argued to contribute to improving the quality of life of these vulnerable groups of city residents. Simultaneously, this s sector of the economy is not known for providing optimal working conditions for its employees and this could be argued to represent a negative impact of tourism on the social component of sustainable development, and over tourism can be argued to only increase this problem (Walmsley, 2017).

Entrepreneurs are typically influenced by quality of life considerations e.g. family-related issues (Peters and Kallmuenzer, 2018). Entrepreneurs are theoretically considered to be growth-oriented, innovative, creative and risk-taking (Lumpkin and Dess, 2001). However, entrepreneurs are also motivated by the quality of life in their communities and are also growth-orientated in terms of their communities and its factors of production. Indeed, entrepreneurs are often deeply rooted in their home regions (Deephouse and Jaskiewicz, 2013). Thus, business decisions can be expected to be directly related to the entrepreneurs' wellbeing and the wellbeing of their hinterland. In addition, individual wellbeing can be expected to influence business decisions. According to Peters *et al*., (2019), the industry of tourism is dominated by small and micro enterprises which are typically, led by entrepreneurs who face the challenge of managing business decisions and their own wellbeing at the same time. Therefore, understanding their motivations, characteristics, and work patterns is critical. Obstacles include a lack of financial funding, insufficient training for managerial roles, and the absence of entrepreneurship education (Ateljevic 2009). It may also be argued that besides the lack of training entrepreneurs receive in rural areas, they are going to be affected by the 'seasonal nature of tourism' regardless (Jaafar and Rasoolimanesh 2015 p.3*)*. Muscat *et al.,* (2019) have identified what is takes to become a successful tourism entrepreneur. The individual must be talented in the areas of communication, leadership, motivation, and management. We would emphasise the management of the factors of production with a specific focus on labour and human capital. However, it can be argued that this principle triggers the argument on whether these 'talents' can be taught or are characteristics people are born with. The tourism sector is faced with challenges that would be expected for any other entrepreneur. For example, the constant threat of sustainability, standard of educated/skilled workforce, and technological advancements. It is important that the tourism entrepreneur remains innovative in order to face future challenges.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There has been an evolution of what we would consider as the entrepreneurial ecosystem. Furthermore, entrepreneurs have increased access to entrepreneurial networks and more skills and capabilities. As a result, it necessitates a similar evolution or development of the entrepreneurial supporting structure and offerings; specifically, those offered tourism entrepreneurs with an ecosystem. Resources and access to appropriate levels of the factors of production are limited. The provision of additional resources must be complemented by additional training and guidance in resource management. How these ecosystems impact on the professional and personal development of the entrepreneurs must be measured and used to inform the design of supports, training and infrastructure (Ávila-Muñoz and García-Sanchez, 2013). However, entrepreneurial ecosystems in the area of tourism cannot be understood only as places the aggregate services, attractions, and the emergence of sustainable employment (Saraniemi and Kylänen, 2010). Therefore, policy and practice should be primarily focused on developing a supportive environment by providing access to opportunities, resources and support services.

Bensimon *et al*., (2004) explain that in order to ensure an appropriate link between research and practice, there is a need to study problems that are of greater relevance to policy-makers and practitioners. Therefore, this chapter presents the following recommendations in relation to tourism entrepreneurs:

1. First, there is a need to have a clear vision for the ecosystem. This must be linked to a profile of the traits and characteristics of the entrepreneurs including their rationale for starting a business in the specific industry (tourism).
2. Second, policy design planning and evaluation should link to key elements as per those proposed by Isenberg Model of an Entrepreneurship Ecosystem, which are: finance, markets, human capital and support culture), as they must be clearly distinguished and linked to specific interventions and initiatives.
3. Third, and finally, the ecosystem design should be constructed based on a system of supports including: education, incubation, finance, and promotion and recognition.

Successful implementation of these recommendations will help support agencies to match their communication and supports with appropriate interventions that meet the specific needs of second chance entrepreneurs.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The area of tourism entrepreneurship is an emerging phenomenon. To further the knowledge on this phenomenon we propose to that further research is undertaken, in multiple locations but with a focus on understanding and mapping different entrepreneurial ecosystems. Further research is needed to explore a number of interrelated questions:

- Which characteristics do tourism entrepreneurial ecosystem have?
- How do entrepreneurial ecosystems support new and innovation practices/processes in tourism?
- Which actors take the role of orchestrators in entrepreneurial ecosystems and what tasks do these actors have?

- What impact do entrepreneurs have on their ecosystems and the specifically, the factors of production?
- What kind of leadership do we find in entrepreneurial ecosystems and what are the characteristics?

CONCLUSION

While certain individual-level characteristics and motivations shape entrepreneurial activity, entrepreneurs cannot be adequately understood outside of their operating environment (in this case tourism) or entrepreneurial ecosystem. Despite intense scholarly interest in entrepreneurial ecosystems, research has not explicitly emphasized ecosystem-level dynamics or explored sources of variance among ecosystems (Roundy *et al*., 2017). The post-recession economic climate has presented rural communities, entrepreneurs, development agencies and local authorities with a radically changed enterprise environment and an increased demand/need for a publically managed entrepreneurial ecosystem. Although formal and informal entrepreneurial activity pervades rural communities across Europe many are suffering from inertia and apathy from within their communities. There are also limited factors of production and in some cases limited resource management skills. This creates significant challenges for sustainability and renewal. Therefore, we must work to instil a wider vision, leadership and an entrepreneurial mindset in our ecosystems so that the ecosystems can support regeneration, innovation and sustainable resource management.

Being an entrepreneur is the art of converting activities and resources into economic opportunities. Entrepreneurship is a system rather than a single phenomenon (Pirich 2001, p. 14). Henry and Treanor (2013) argue that government support to entrepreneurs often does not meet the needs of entrepreneurs. One of the reasons for this is that government support programmes are not sufficiently matched to the characteristics of the individual entrepreneur. There is a need for training and guidance of resource identification, development and management. An enhanced understanding of the evolving needs of entrepreneurs and the subsequent management/design of ecosystems will help support agencies to align their offerings according to the needs of the entrepreneurs. Similar conclusions have previously been suggested (Wiklund *et al*., 2011; Monsson and Jørgensen, 2016; Costa *et al., 2019*). Sustainable job creation requires that we provide a business environment that enables entrepreneurs to develop and produce innovative new products and services. Whilst simultaneously having the skills to develop and management labour and human capital resources. Therefore, there is a need to support all types of entrepreneurs throughout their business cycle and in all their activities. As the European economy evolves, entrepreneurs have become a central element for enhancing national economic growth and employment. Entrepreneurs can drive business innovation, economic growth and enhance to the sustainable utilization of the factors of production. The support of the government, both national and local, is essential, as the entrepreneurs require a substantial long-term support, extensive training, research and planning processes in order to grow and become sustainable and successful (Koh and Hatten, 2014).

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This research is supported by a President's Award from the Research Office at Letterkenny Institute of Technology and an Erasmus+ travel grant facilitated by the Departamento de idiomas, Escuela Universitaria de Turismo, Universidad de Murcia.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Business Incubation: A location, typically in a publicly funded building in which a there is a process, which supports entrepreneurs and start-up companies by providing access to services, training, mentoring, funding, and networks.

Business Networks: The relatively small group of individuals (n=10) with whom an entrepreneur discusses a range of experiences and activities as they relate to their business. Members are usually drawn from family, friends, peers and consultants. Interactions may be face-to-face or virtual.

Business Support Agency: A publicly funded agency who provide supports to facilitate business start-ups and development, often within an ecosystem and with a focus on internationalization. Examples include Enterprise Ireland https://enterprise-ireland.com/ and Enisa in Spain https://www.enisa.es/

Entrepreneurial Education: Teaching/training/mentoring that enables individuals to develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to run their own business. The education can be formal and occur in during traditional second level and/or higher education provision. Alternatively, the education can form part of publically funded initiatives to support lifelong learning and continuous professional development.

Entrepreneurial Ecosystems: The set of interrelated factors that enable entrepreneurship, such as: policies, interventions, incubation, education, culture, and networks. The ecosystems can develop organically but are typically supported and developed by community and government interventions.

Chapter 14
Human Capital in Tourism:
A Practical Model of Endogenous and Exogenous Territorial Tourism Planning in Bahía Solano, Colombia

Gabriela Antosova
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5330-679X
University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic

Mauricio Sabogal-Salamanca
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2633-731X
Universidad EAN, Colombia

Eva Krizova
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5651-5853
University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic

ABSTRACT

This chapter is a proposal of exogenous and endogenous practical tourism planning which therefore requires the completion of its construction. In this sense, it is necessary for tourism activities to be socialized, developed, questioned, and reformed by indigenous people, actors, and institutions involved with the planning of the municipality of Bahía Solano. The authors summarize the typology of tourism in sociological context with the aim of Colombian perspectives of social and regional development planning in a destination located on the coastline of Pacific Ocean. The main focuses of this chapter are human resources, people management, and planning in tourism with practical examples of Colombian research in the selected zone.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch014

INTRODUCTION

This chapter (aims) to be a complement to the development and planning of the tourism sector of the municipality Bahía Solano, it also contains limitations and requirements for the next implementation of the tourism plan. In the example of this municipality the authors focus on the multidisciplinary approach of the triangulation of three important dimensions: community participation (social cohesion), a predominance of the social dimension as an engine for the integral development of people and the innovation of creativity processes that must accompany the initiatives of indigenous people. In this chapter the authors understand that within the social context most behavior and motives of tourists and stakeholders who manage the touristic destination Bahía Solano in Colombia.

This chapter is divided into five parts:

1. Transformation of natural sites into touristic destinations in a sociological context
2. Overview of Colombian tourism
3. Human Resources, People Management and Tourism in Colombia
4. Fundamental principles of the proposal and strategic plan
5. Conclusion and implications, final reflections are shared on the experience of the work process.

The Authors in this chapter propose this main question and objectives:

What are the critical relationships among actors that could facilitate a tourism planning process in Bahía Solano?

- Identify the current approaches of Local Planning in Tourism in a specific region – Bahía Solano, Colombia
- Identify critical current relations between involved parties in the region
- Propose improved ways of working among these parties in the region

TRANSFORMATION OF NATURAL SITES INTO TOURISTIC DESTINATIONS IN A SOCIOLOGICAL CONTEXT

Tourism is not only a matter of economic or hospitality planning, but for decades it also is a subject of sociological and anthropological investigations. Tourism today is a diverse and multifaceted phenomenon that responds to heterogeneous societal and individual needs and interests (Cohen, 1972, 1974, 1979, 1984, 2008, Cohen & Cohen, 2012, 2019). New modalities of tourism like lifestyle nomading1 or volunteering tourism are in many aspects different from the traditional forms of modern tourism (Cohen, 2011). New tourists today have become more independent thanks to digital information and communication technologies and cheaper modes of transport. Personal autonomy, individualism and the search for authentic experiences are the main marketing traits for many tourists, today. Ecotourism is a dynamically growing branch that responds to a profound and increasing need of hypercivilized people to perceive a genuine contact with uncontaminated nature, fauna and flora. Locations like Bahía Solano can easily become a touristic destination in coming years as the impact of modernization is still low and the site offers a rich array of natural beauty.

Most sociologists agree today that tourism may have a deeper sense beyond mere travelling. Some authors have speculated about a potentially religious or spiritual meaning of tourism as it similarly like religions modifies people´s behavior. MacCannell believes that "sightseeing is a form of ritual respect for society and ... tourism absorbs some of the social functions of religion in the modern world" (MacCannell, 1973, p. 589). The way tourists approach cultural monuments or natural sites resembles an appreciation of sacral and religious objects that were constructed during pilgrimages to traditional societies. Both pilgrims and tourists visit places of a special historical, cultural and social importance (MacCannell, 1973, p. 593) and demonstrate their interest in "holy" places may also be represented by touristic "must see" places or natural sites. According to MacCannell, the desire of the modern man for "authentic experiences" at places of commonly shared devotion, respect and adoration resonates with the need for sacredness in traditional pilgrims. Authenticity has been widely discussed in tourism studies (Cohen, 1988) and many studies have expressed doubts about mass tourism and their opportunity to learn about authentic life. Instead, they are exposed to touristic bubbles, artificial realities which have been created as a part of the tourism business (Judd, Fainstein, 1999).

Transcendence of Typology in Tourism Motives

Apart from cultural heritage, nature has become a significant objective with regards to touristic motivations. Ecotourism is an exponentially growing sector and many places in the world struggle with excessive tourism. The passion for a true and authentic contact with underdeveloped, traditional and uncontaminated sites is profoundly embedded in the motivation of today´s tourists. Ecotourism like the entire tourism is closely tied to specific functions which tourism satisfies in advanced societies. In highly technological societies, alienation becomes an emotional problem that may be compensated by a trip to pure and clean natural sites. Eco-tourists are primarily driven to satisfy their need for original and direct contact with natural resources and heritage. According to Simkova and Holzner (2014, p.10) tourists in rural areas appreciate "romantic" and "traditional" life in authentic localities. Some studies have discovered that cost efficiency was important for rural tourists as they prefer low prices for products and services and can adapt to a lower standard of facilities (ibid). The main motivation of eco-tourists is then to explore nature, be active in outdoor activities such as trekking, and enjoy peace, purity and a calm atmosphere (Simkova, Holzner, 2014, p. 10). Considering widening diversification within tourism generally, it is however, questionable whether to perceive eco-tourists as a homogeneous consumer category.

Cohen (1979) recognizes a broad variety of touristic experiences on the whole scale from superficial forms to profound and existential forms. He has identified five modalities of tourism according to their primary function: recreational, diversionary, experiential, experimental and existential. This typology was not based on empirical findings; instead, Cohen has used the phenomenological method to establish it. The recreational form serves primarily to relax from tensions and restore the energy and potential to perform again in the usual life role. Recreational tourism enables that people can return home with new energy and motivation to fulfill the usual duties and life activities in the highly efficient societies focusing on personal performance and effectiveness (work, family etc.). This type of tourism is based on the presumption that those who travel are basically satisfied in their societies and only need to refresh and reduce their tiredness and exhaustion. Recreational tourists are identified with their cultural (mental, moral, spiritual) center, but they need to relief from extreme pressures on high efficiency and work/life intensity. This type of tourism enables a smooth continuation of highly efficient advanced societies, as the intensive performance would not be sustainable without temporary breaks. The diversionary type of tourism has another role. The main function is to compensate for boredom and emptiness of life and work in modern and postmodern societies. The diversionary form of tourism is often associated with difficult touristic behavior, like drinking, partying, making noise at night, drug abuse and other amusement and fun that are offered to tourists. This type of tourism balances the weaknesses of modern and postmodern societies in which people are exposed to high labor division, specialization, computerization and digitalization. These transform human relations, produce mental stress and create an isolation and alienation. Thanks to diversionary tourism people are able to sustain in the society which however fails to meet their human needs. Types of tourism formulated by Cohen are valid today, but one category is missing in his model from the 1970´s, i.e. the instrumental type of tourism. This type that has developed in later decades describes that tourism fulfils primarily other function than travelling: instrumental tourists travel in order to consume a service that is not available in their countries (e.g. medical services, sex tourism) or is cheaper in the destination country. Similarly, conference tourism is also a part of the instrumental tourism, as the primary goal of the trip is the conference. As tourism nowadays is often associated with parallel purposes, we have extended the Cohen´s typology with the additional category of instrumental tourism.

Ecotourism is often presented as an alternative to the mass commercialized tourism. In Cohen´s typology ecotourism is most likely related to the experimental form of tourism which is specified by the need for a new geographic and/or cultural knowledge in an authentic way. But ecotourism may occur at various levels and in many modifications. Hence, it is not easy to associate it precisely with one single function in Cohen´s terminology (Cohen, 1979, p. 183-193). In our view, ecotourism may range from the experiential to experimental type of tourism and in certain situations; the true and unmediated contact with animals and plants may also involve spiritual aspects which are typical for the existential type of tourism in Cohen´s typology. One sociologically noteworthy factor is that ecotourism (as with tourism generally) may respond to significant individual and societal needs and is deeply correlated with structural problems of highly advanced societies. While experiential tourism responds to human needs for new stimuli, psychologically to the need of curiosity and learning, experimental tourism is a more profound form of tourism as the "experimental tourist is in search of himself" (Cohen, 1979, p. 189). The most significant and most developed on the scale is the existential mode of tourism which not only aims to soothe the need for authentic experiences but additionally, travelling becomes deliberately the means of personal growth and self-reflection (Cohen, 2011, Cohen & Cohen, 2019).

Some forms of tourism may thus respond to the fundamental people´s search for meaning. Through existential tourism people may identify with an alternative moral/spiritual order provided by other cultures. Ecotourism most commonly is linked to experimental tourism, although it may reach all the above mentioned forms, depending on its concrete conditions and arrangements. The borders between typology units are often blurred and the differences among them are rather gradual. Conceptually, experiential tourism corresponds more with available hospitality infrastructures, while experimental and existential tourism do not suppose any commercialization and service industry. As such, experimental and existential tourism contain more adventurous elements, risks and independency.

Research into the motivation of tourists has expanded since the 1970´s. Push and pull factors theory integrates elements that attract tourists to travel pushing them to escape from their homes. In rural tourism and ecotourism, too, tourists seek rewards, like fresh air, freedom, calm, unspoiled nature, traditional rural life, authentic experience, adventure, enjoyment, relaxation etc., Conversely escaping in connection with rural tourism (and ecotourism) means escaping from technological environments, computer games, social nets, urbanized environment, noise etc. (Simkova and Holzner, 2014). The motivations of tourists are highly diverse, some are searching for fun and amusement, while others search for what they basically know but what is offered in new contexts (cheaper prices, e.g.), whereas other tourists may search to learn about otherness or search for existential impressions leading to personal growth and self-knowledge. Some tourists may find the deeper meanings in travelling, as travel may symbolize life in general. Some touristic activities may only be leisure time activities, whereas others resemble a form of religious activity contents e.g. the existential or transformational tourism (Cohen, 1988, p. 379). Touristic activities are practiced on an extremely variable scale and must be analyzed by the use of a whole list of sociological approaches and theories ranging from the sociology of leisure to the sociology of religion (Cohen, 1979, p. 193).

OVERVIEW OF COLOMBIAN TOURISM

Colombia has experienced through the years an important growth in the number of foreign visitors. According to Ministerio de Comercio Industria y Turismo (2019), during 2018 Colombia received 4.2 million foreign visitors, 7.6% more compared to 2017 and with a growth of 81.5% compared with 2011 (2.3 million). In the last seven years the number of visitors has been growing at a rate of 8.9% on average.

Table 1. Number of visitors not residents in Colombia – 2017, 2018 and Variation

Visitors not residents	2017	2018	Var. %
Foreigners not residents	2.837.171	3.104.606	9,40%
Colombian living in other countries	793.775	793.459	0,00%
International Cruises	344.624	378.081	9,70%
Total	**3.975.570**	**4.276.146**	**7,60%**

Source: (Ministerio de Comercio, 2019a)

Nevertheless, most tourism comes from the region. According to Ministerio de Comercio, (2019b), of the 10 biggest origin countries in terms of visitors, nine are from Latin America or United States (Spain is the only European country in the top ten), representing 75% of the total foreigner visitors.

The share of tourism in the GDP has increased in the last 13 years from a 3.6% in 2005 to 3.8% in 2018 according to Ministerio de Comercio (2019b).

The growth could be small, but the economy has been growing at an average 3.9% during the same period (DANE, 2019b). In terms of the share of foreign direct investment, the sector of Retail, Restaurants and Hotels has received an average of 8.5% of the total investment (Ministerio de Comercio, 2019b).

During 2018 the tourism industry produced US$ 6.6 billion in revenues, and represented 13% of exports, a higher percentage compared with the Americas Region, that had a 9% in the same period. The revenues remain low as a percentage compared with the total Americas including The United States (1.7% of the total 371 billion in 2018) and also excluding this country (5% of the 131 billion) according to the World Tourism Organization (2019), especially taking into account the relative size in the country (number 27th in the world and 7th in the region) and by population (30th in the world and 4th in the region) according to CIA (2019).

The number of establishments of tourism has increased from 15.883 in 2010 to 27.206 in 2017, a growth of 71% in the last 8 years (average annual rate of 8.4%); being hotels and similar establishments the ones growing at a highest rate with an 12.6% average annually Ministerio de Comercio, (2019b).

Strategies for Promoting Tourism in Colombia

The most recent national development plan is the one of the president Duque (Departamento Nacional De Planeación, 2019) and tourism is contemplated in its article 2th and 16th, focusing on different types of tourism (nature, communities, culture, sun and beach, business, among others), and with a coordination between Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism (MCIT) and the Ministry of Environment for promoting sustainable tourism. Tourism has been promoted by the current government as a part of the so called Orange Economy, a way to define the creative industries that has been incentivized with new normative, including tax exemptions (Ministerio de Hacienda y Crédito Público, 2019, Buitrago Restrepo & Duque Marquez, 2013).

At the same time, a Sector Tourism plan has been developed for the same period (Ministerio de Comercio, 2018) including six strategies: institutions and impulse to the tourism sector, integral management of destinies and strengthening of the types of tourism offered, infrastructure and connectivity for tourism, innovation and entrepreneurial development for tourism, strengthen of the human capital for tourism competitiveness and promotion of transformative, inclusive and equity tourism. This 2018 - 2020 plan continues a route that aims to create public infrastructures, as well as work with local communities, as depicted in the previous Touristic Sector Plan (2014 – 2018), that sought to create a strategy for tourism in communities previously affected by armed conflict, including Chocó region (Ministerio de Comercio Industria y Turismo & Departamento Nacional De Planeación, 2014).

Human Resources, People Management and Tourism in Colombia

Competitiveness and Informality

The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report of 2019 (World Economic Forum, 2019) indicates that Colombia is ranked 55th among 140 studied countries. In terms of human resources and the labor market it scores (4.6), The United States being the highest (5.5), the lowest was Haiti and Venezuela (3.6) and the region had an average of 4.4. The indicators related to human resources and the labor market pillar are Primary Education Enrolment Rate, Secondary Education Enrolment Rate, Extent of Staff Training (from a survey) and Perceived Quality Service (from a survey), as well as data on the ease of hiring and finding skilled employees. In this sphere Colombia ranked 71st with a score of 4,6 and below other main touristic regional destinations such as Costa Rica (45th, 4.9) Chile (46th, 4.8) and Uruguay (61th, 4.7), and very close to Peru (72th, 4.6), Mexico (75th, 4.5), Argentina (77th, 4.5) and Brazil (88th, 4.3).

Therefore, the country has seen a diminishment in this area compared with 2017, where it was placed 66th (World Economic Forum, 2017).

In terms of national competitiveness, there are differences by region. The main connected central regions, including the capital city Bogotá and other states with a higher presence of companies and a skilled labor force such as Antioquia, Santander, Atlántico and Valle del Cauca, are the most competitive nationwide. The state of Chocó, where Bahía Solano is located, is ranked 30th among 33 departments. The region, with a population that is almost 1% of the total population of the country, participates only with the 0.39% of the total national GDP, and has low scores in all the human capital indicators: health (4.48 of 10), basic education (3.8) and university education and work training (0.66). The best performer, Bogotá, showed 6.87, 7.99 and 8.45 respectively. Most of the low results of the department are related to low scores in public health quality, as well as low university education coverage and low quality level education measured by the scores in national tests (Consejo Privado de Competitividad, 2019).

An important aspect related to competitiveness in tourism is informality. In Colombia, 57% of the non-agricultural employment was informal in 2018 (World Bank, 2019). In the case of tourism, the sector has a 42% of participation in the informal economy and is increasing. One of the main problems is the excess of administrative procedures, a problem that the country is tackling by simplifying administrative hiring requirements (Departamento Nacional De Planeación, 2019).

The employment generation of touristic sector in Colombia was at 1.35 million in 2017, with an increase of 52% compared with 2007, an average annual growth of 6.2% (COTELCO, UNICAFAM, & Instituto Distrial de Turismo de Bogotá, 2018). In fact, the participation of tourism labor among the occupied population has increased from 5.13% in 2007 to 6.11% in 2017 (with calculations based on COTELCO, UNICAFAM, & Instituto Distrial de Turismo de Bogotá, 2018 and DANE, 2019a), which highlight its importance despite its informal character.

Talent and Training

At a global level, the tourism industry has problems attracting top talent for managerial and technical positions owing to a lack of career attractiveness and advancement programs, competition for talent from other sectors and inadequate education supply, training and practice, which are the main drivers of this issue. In fact, the talent gaps and deficiencies in the industry could cost the global economy close to 14 million jobs. For this reason, a better established collaboration is needed between the private and public sector in order to update university and training programs to fit better to the current needs of the industry and society (World Economic Forum, 2017).

One identified weakness of the Colombian tourism is the bilingual capacities. Colombia has, according to Education First (2019) a low English proficiency ranking 68th over 100 economies analyzed and below Argentina (27th), Costa Rica (30th), Uruguay (39th), Chile (42nd), Peru (58th), Brazil (59th) and Mexico (67th). Only Venezuela (73rd) and Ecuador (81st) rank below the country among all the Latin American countries analyzed. According to ICFES (2018), the national university tests that measures, among others, English skills, only 18% had B1 level and 7% were beyond B1 in 2017. This level is more critical for regions with a lower development such as Chocó, where Bahía Solano is located, with a percentage below 10% of university students with an average score of B1 or more (Departamento Nacional De Planeación, 2019).

In 2017 there were 86 formal education programs related to tourism, 34 technical educations, 26 technology educations and 26 professional or bachelor degree level, with only 6 programs accredited as high quality by the National Accreditation Council of the Ministry of Education (Ministerio de Comercio, 2018). In 2018 there were 67 universities offering programs related to tourism, and there were 76 programs between undergraduate and graduate school with 33.745 enrolled students (Sistema Nacional de Información para la Educación Superior, 2019). In the following table there is a comparison among tourism program students compared with the total enrolled. In the case of tourism programs, most of the students are enrolled in technical education (64%) with a small percentage to graduate education (1%), compared with the country with technical (29%) and graduate education (7%).

Table 2. Number of enrolled by type of program

Type of Program	Enrolled 2018 Tourism	%	Enrolled 2018 All the Programs	%
Graduate School	**277**	**1%**	**328.514**	**7%**
PhD		0%	12.085	4%
Specialization	149	54%	185.373	56%
Master	128	46%	131.056	40%
Undergraduate	**33.468**	**99%**	**4.331.863**	**93%**
Technical	21.275	64%	1.270.767	29%
University (bachelor)	12.193	36%	3.061.096	71%
Total general	**33.745**	**100%**	**4.660.377**	**100%**

Source: authors calculations based on (Sistema Nacional de Información para la Educación Superior, 2019)

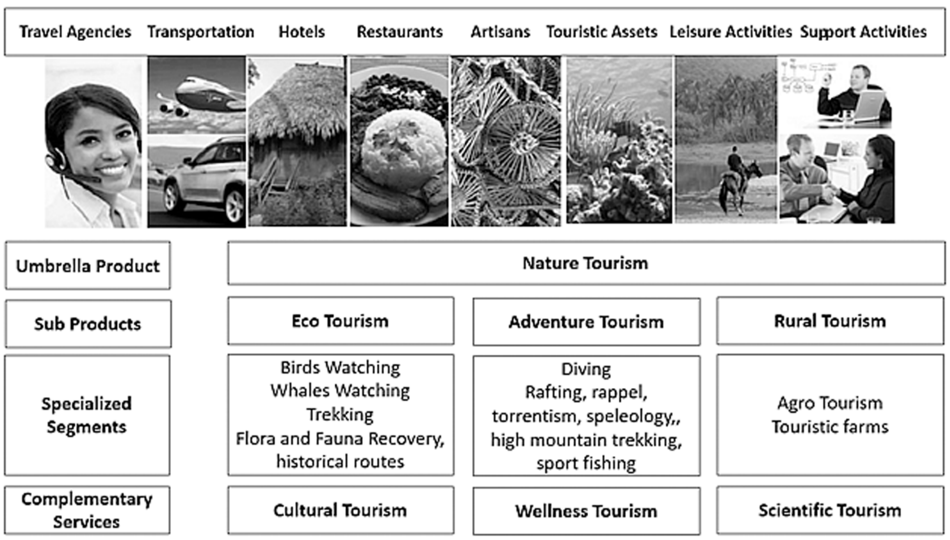
In terms of other skills, the country had a score of 6.3 in the recent 2019 Hays Skills Report (HAYS & Oxford Economics, 2019). The higher scores (reflecting the main problems of the labor market) were labor market participation (9.1), meaning that the labor pool of workers available is low, labor market flexibility (7.8), implying that there are barriers restricting the local labor market and a talent mismatch (6.2) which means that businesses face difficulties matching available talent with unfilled jobs. This mismatch was identified in workshops where entrepreneurs indicated that there are areas where the situation is more critical and there is more demand for competent professionals, such as touristic guidance, personnel for restaurants and kitchens and hotel services. The positions that are more difficult to replace are the operation and customer front office positions, highly demanded by the sector, with a disconnection with the education offered, which is focused on supervision and direction oriented education, despite the results of the previous table (Jimenez Orozco, 2017, Programa de Transformación Productiva, 2013).

Nature Tourism Chain and Its Weaknesses

The Programa de Transformación Productiva (Productive Transformation Program, now called Colombia Productiva) of the MCIT, is an initiative that aimed to promote the development of strategic sectors of the Colombian economy as well as increase its productivity. The program identified a Nature Tourism Value Chain and developed a business plan. The chain is comprised of several interrelated actors and sub-products that include ecotourism, adventure tourism and rural tourism. In all three main categories

Bahía Solano, located in Chocó department, met proper position in Programa de Transformación Productiva (2013).

Figure 1. Nature tourism value chain components and products
Source: adapted from Programa de Transformación Productiva (2013)



A structural characteristic of the chain is the predominance of small businesses. According to Jimenez Orozco (2017), in 2015 86% of service providers were business with between 0 and 20 employees. These businesses are the ones that tend to survive for less time, most of them with less than 10 years in the market. Most of these companies are informal and have either registered or updated its register in the National Tourism Registration, a basic requirement to operate in a formal way in Colombia.

Another characteristic previously mentioned is the scarcely trained workforce, including bilingual capacities, a complex relationship between the tour operators and other tourism companies and the local minority communities and institutional local weakness for the implementation of local tourism plans. The strengths included a human resource with knowledge of the territory and good service disposition (Programa de Transformación Productiva, 2013).

According to Jimenez Orozco (2017), jobs in the tourism sector in Colombia tend to be informal, highly seasonally dependent and with a high staff turnover. The nature tourism sector generally employs tourism vulnerable groups of society, such as women and youth, with a predominance of small family businesses and poorly experienced labor. Small business owners cannot easily access training because they do not have the technology to take distance-learning technical courses, there is no physical presence of training institutes in tourist guidance courses or because the high seasonality of the sector and its low salaries disincentivize this type of training.

In order to improve the performance of the actors of the chain, the MCIT has created a certification of touristic quality in 2013 (Ministerio de Comercio Industria y Turismo, n.d.). At the present only a few hundred establishments, of the 27.206 registered in CITUR platform were registered as high quality providers (detailed information: MINCIT, 2020).

PRACTICAL EXAMPLES AND RESULTS OF RESEARCH

Location of Research Area and Methodology Purposes

The geographical positioning of the municipality of Bahía Solano is delimited by the Serranía del Baudó and the Pacific Ocean and with the municipalities Juradó and Carmen del Darién (north), Nuquí and Alto Baudó (south), in the east with the municipality of Bojayá, figure 1 makes a geographical approximation of the municipality.

Similarly, the municipality is a part of the Chocó basin, which includes the entire coastal area located above the Pacific, its municipal capital (Ciudad Mutis), six districts (Nabugá, Huina, Huaca, Cupica, Valle and Mecana), four indigenous reservations (Boroboro, Poza Mansa, Brazo and Villa Nueva Juna), it has a territorial extension of 95 km2, its origins date from a former agricultural colony in 1935, but it became a municipal categorization on November 19, 1962. In accordance with the DANE, the population trend is summarized in figure 2, its main ethnographic component are the black communities and, to a lesser extent, the indigenous reservations (Alcaldía Bahía Solano, 2016).

In this territory, the post-conflict era in Colombia had a positive effect on the present local development (Çakmak & Isaac, 2016) and also on tourism activities. This area has a special potential in terms of nature, history and also the environment.

Indigenous people need to be supported by the exogenous approaches to improve the design of the touristic plan, as the preserved places and nature parks have increased tourism activities. In reality, we find there is a precarious style of life and several necessities which have to be improved. A total of 87% of the population living in Bahía Solano recognizes itself as either Black, Mulatto, Afro-Colombian, or Afro-descendent; 9% as Indigenous, and 4% Mestizo and others.

The research project of Bahía Solano entailed researchers from University Minuto de Dios, University the College of Business in Prague and Scientific Parque of Social Innovation combined quantitative and qualitative approaches for data collection. A Multidisciplinary approach was used in Bahía Solano with a focus on people management and tourism planning with triangulation method of three target groups for survey (inhabitants (56), tourists (74) and organizations involved (14) in the tourism process). Researchers gathered the results of the survey a Tourism Plan for Bahía Solano for the next future. The last Tourism Plan was created for 2016 and requires updating. For quantitative data collection in the high season of 2017 and 2018 they used questionnaires with tourists in order to assess the visitors' experience and perception during their journey to the zone. The questionnaires had 32 questions and were semi-standardized. During qualitative data collection, interviews were held with the stakeholders of each destination, five focus groups and observations of the situation of an environment during the process of tourism.

A following section represents an example of the findings of the aforementioned research.

Figure 2. Location of Bahía Solano in departmental context of Colombia
Source: Helmuth Yesid Arias Gomez, 2020, own elaboration in GIS

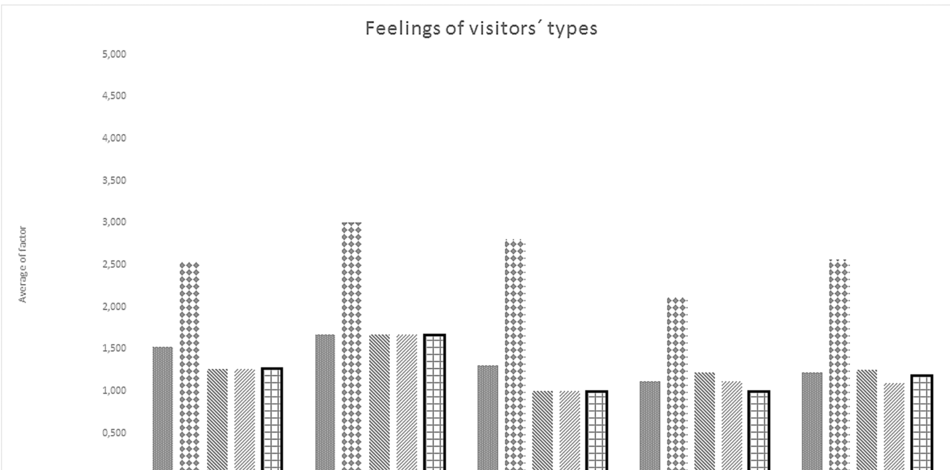
Quantitative Results

National tourists tend to visit the region in order to see the habitat of the whales since it is widely known in Colombia the biodiversity of the marine fauna from the Pacific coast. However, foreign tourists are segmented by countries: North Americans, Spaniards, and Italians prefer whale watching to other activities; French tourists visited the area because of the sun, beach, and river crossing activities (Antošová, Arias Gómez & Arias Gómez, 2019).

Indigenous people in the focus destination were affected by large flows of tourists who were there in order to enjoy the abundance of natural beauty; however, this had some serious effects with regard to the local equilibrium if the local environment, and disturbance to the daily life of its inhabitants.

These drawbacks need to be addressed through the implementation of wide-spread public policies: effective integration of the whole country, the redistribution of tourism rents in favour of inhabitants, the preservation the natural environment particularly the sea and marine life, and a progressive local taxation development. According to Cohen´s terminology outlined in the first part of this chapter the authors classified tourists in research of Bahía Solano. In the following graph tourists are classified as a diversionary, experiential, experimental, existential and recreational.

Table 3. Results from the semi-standardized questionnaires performed in Bahía Solano



	recreational	existential	experimental	diversionary	experiential
memorable experience	1,526	1,667	1,300	1,111	1,219
little effect on me	2,526	3,000	2,800	2,111	2,563
met my expectations	1,263	1,667	1,000	1,222	1,250
recommended	1,263	1,667	1,000	1,111	1,094
to visit again	1,263	1,667	1,000	1,000	1,188

Source: Authors' elaboration, 2019

The tourists (74) were evaluated on Likert scale (1- absolutely agree, 2-neither agree neither disagree, 3- absolutely disagree) five factors: memorable experiences from Bahía Solano, the tourist destination has had little effect on me, the destination met my expectations, is recommended and I would like to visit again. The relationship between evaluations is represented in an average of responses for each type of tourist.

The authors expected an association between a wish to visit the destination again and a recommendation of that place, that if there is a lower measured value of wish to visit again there will also be a low measure for that recommendation. From the findings above in the most affected experience on diversionary (10) and experiential (32) tourists is remarkable. Experimental tourists questioned in Bahía Solano: a clear association can be seen between their results regarding their recommendations and desire to visit the site again.

Qualitative results:

The indigenous territory of Bahía Solano, has aspirations of being a centred of cultural exchanges, where many factors related to indigenous cultures will be offered: a tropical paradise full of life, with a healthy environment and a tourist vocation which is clearly zoned. Communities want Bahía Solano to be an area full of peace and tranquillity where whales and other animals thrive, a municipality of development and sustainability, a healthy region a with biodiversity and numerous attractions.

Are social cohesion and the inclusion of all involved interested people needed in terms of the tourism development process and exogenous and endogenous development approach for the success of destination? Social cohesion of all the parties, settled in the municipality, have to be assimilated into the local development.

What Represents Tourism Development Planning?

Programs at the educational, health and housing and tourism level have been established in the development plan. The lifestyle of indigenous people and the process of tourism activities in the municipality of Bahía Solano could deforest and should account for the river so as to keep it clean. Marine endowments facilitate diving activities, fishing, surfing and the remaining aquatic sports. Although, the huge natural patrimony has been a relevant feature in Bahía Solano, it maintains a dramatic social underdevelopment, a high poverty level and in terms of productive structure, the tourism sector still lacks competitiveness and increases inbound tourism.

In terms of the current ecosystem of touristic factors in the region, as depicted in the following graph, it was found that in Bahía Solano there are a current offering of several nature tourism products. These products are offered by small business tour operators, most of them informal, and employing the local community population. As mentioned previously, it was found that some of the businesses mentioned the necessity of more training for their staff; however, the communities interviewed mentioned the lack of incentives due to low salaries, informality and high seasonality. The hotels which employ community staff and hotel managers also acknowledge the lack of training of some of the staff. The relationship between (In Appendix 1 Figure 3.) the hotels, tour operators and local communities sometimes is complex, with the local communities demanding better conditions. Some of the tour operators, taking advantage of the lack of controls of some of the authorities, are performing the services without meeting all the regulations, and the tourists are not aware of the dangers of some of the services provided, such as whale observation or sport fishing.

The potential danger of the services provided is not the only issue. As mentioned in Figure 4. (Appendix 2), there are other concerns related to the service in this region, concerning especially sustainability. The tours, if not regulated, can put local species in danger (for example the turtles when there are spawning or the whales where the boats approach to close). Tourist activities generate waste, and furthermore, they are not properly managed by the different establishments.

Despite the lack of regulation depicted previously, some of the businesses, especially hotels, are registered or preparing to register in the National Tourism Registration. In the case of tour operators, due to the informality and size in the region, the need to register in this system is not mentioned. The businesses that are preparing for the registration mention the difficulty and the different types of requirements needed in order to achieve registration. None of the interviewed mentioned the Quality Certification.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The tourist that seeks the Bahía Solano as a destination to spend the night and enjoy its rich geographical environment will find many exclusive and unique attractions. Its high component in biotic resources makes it a fascinating place for national and international tourists with a series of diverse activities to experience.

However, the activities contemplated by the Tourism Development Plan of the Bahía Solano municipality must adapt to involve the structural and conjunctural components. The adequacy of the development plan focusing on the definition and organization of the local tourist route is of vital importance since it allows its components to be included. We took into account three separate parties, which play a major role in the premise of preparing and organizing the new tourist route (inhabitants, tourists, and organizations) and with which we worked to extract their point of view based on their experiences in this transfer of activities from the municipality.

The result of social interaction with the target groups allowed us to understand the reality of the tourist activity, the inhabitants as agents inherent to the local concerns and that interact either directly or indirectly with the visitor. The tourist fulfills the role of the person who dynamizes the activity and the individual around which that tourist activities are focused. Finally, the organizations as agents that work to maintain the flow of tourists in the territory as a measure of economic, cultural, social and elemental environmental development since it is the source of the growth for the first three.

Regarding the first target group (inhabitants), it is imperative to link their communities (Afro-descendant and indigenous) as the ethnic value of the municipality. These communities possess ancestral knowledge, they keep their customs and local traditions which enrich the experience, and thus they also become a potential attraction for the person who visits the region. Then the municipality is therefore better prepared for the increase of visitors that are currently registered. Natural sites like Bahía Solano can be transformed into popular touristic destinations. This may produce many positive effects, like economic gains, safety and cultural understanding, On the other hand, ecotourism has already become a subject of some criticism due to "subordinating environmental issues to economic interests" (Kousis, 2000 cited by Cohen & Cohen, 2012, p. 10). Ethical issues have become enormously relevant in today´s tourism analysis (e. g. Fennell, 2013). One of the negative social impacts of tourism development is the commodification of the host culture and the environment that significantly transforms the life of indigenous people and their "view of their places and themselves" (King, Stewart, 1996, p. 293). Indigenous people should be involved in the planning of touristic infrastructures to keep some control over the development and investment processes. Responsible planning must secure the future distribution of gains and burdens are fair and just. Unregulated over-tourism can have a devastating impact on nature and cities and may even lead to social conflict.

The relationships among tour operators, tour guides (mainly from local afro-communities) and hotels should be addressed in order to align expectations and required modes of behavior. While tour guides require stable and formal jobs and do not have incentives for improve their skills, hotels and tour operators require a thoroughly trained workforce with English skills and communication and customer service training. With the intervention of the state for training as well as promoting more formal jobs with measures such as tax incentives, it is possible to improve the quality of the tour guides in the region.

CONCLUSION

Tourism is a highly diverse and ambivalent phenomenon that is closely tied to the way of life in modern and postmodern societies. The modern and postmodern life style has incorporated tourism as a fixed and relevant element which relieves tension in advanced societies. Tourism is symptomatic of the current fluid or liquid societies (Bauman, 2000). It contributes to national wealth and may support peace, safety and cultural understanding. It is also an activity that responds to the significant mental or existential needs of human beings and has many societal functions.

But there is a reverse side of dynamically growing tourism leading to overtourism. It is such an impact of tourism on a destination which excessively influences perceived quality of life of citizens and/or quality of visitors' experiences in a negative way (The UNWTO 2018). Excessive tourism creates a burden for many destinations across the globe and may be destructive for local culture and nature. It is necessary to create ethically responsible plans for a sustainable ecological or social growth of tourism. Even though eco-tourists are mainly supposed to satisfy their experiential, experimental or existential needs and search for "authenticity", it is not possible to exclude a shift of ecotourism towards diversionary tourism in the future, as there is "growing prominence of fun and enjoyment", rather than "authenticity," as the principal motive for travel (Cohen 2008, p. 332). The risk that natural sites like Bahía Solano will be transformed as a destination of amusement must be considered seriously.

Competitiveness is at the core of the people management for any touristic destination. Its determinants are much related with the way the tourism industry business works. In the case of Colombia, structural factors such as a high informality in small family owned tourism businesses, lack of regulation and state presence in touristic destinations, as well as lower level of skills and training for the tour guides, creates problems and friction in the management of individuals. The presence of the state for creating conditions that enable long term competitiveness is crucial.

Not only is competitiveness important for people management and human resources in the long term. Sustainability is also important for the development of the services in nature-based destinations such as Bahía Solano. The interaction between tour guides, tourists and the landscape can endanger local species and contaminate the landscapes. State regulation, formal business promotion, quality certification and also skills acquisition for environment protection are crucial for the long-term sustainability of the destination.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Major Harley Liliana Ortiz Salazar and her entire team, for their unwavering support. We are also very grateful to Parque Científico e Innovación Social in Bogotá for the collaboration of the process, especially to the coordinator of the project, Mauricio Peralta Mejía, Cindy Lamprea, José Ignacio Castro, professor Helmuth Yesid Arias Gómez from University the College of Business in Prague, rector Jefferson Arias Gómez and the researcher Ivan Dario Medina from the Faculty of management Corporación Universitaria Minuto de Dios, Bogotá Colombia.

First part of this research was supported by the "Corporación Universitaria Minuto de Dios. Bogotá. General Directorate of Investigations" in project Bahía Solano as a Tourist destination- Actualization of Tourism Plan for Bahía Solano - [C 117 – 60-180]. Through the third internal call for the research projects, for the support of interdisciplinary and inter-institutional research 2017 and for the support of Major of Bahía Solano;and by the "University EAN, Bogotá" - The supply chain of tourism and sustainability of natural resources – Case Study of Bahía Solano, [G3P_P13-0719].

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Competitiveness: The ability of a tourism destination (in this case) to compete. According to The World Economic Forum (2019), competitiveness in this sector relates to factors that enable the environment such as institutions and infrastructure, human capital factors such as skills, market enablers such as market size and product market, and innovation ecosystem, including business dynamism and innovation capability.

Exogenous and Endogenous Development: A theory of regional development, in which the balance between transaction and transformation costs on one hand and management costs on the other turns out to be decisive is employed as a means of explaining growth of why so-called underdeveloped styles of destination are able to compete with more developed destinations as well as the economic success of tourism districts. The involvement of all actors, residents and economic income from exogenous environment with the knowledge of national entities for local development equipped with abundance of natural and cultural resources for transformation.

Informality: Refers to the lack of access to formal regulations for both businesses and labor force in the industry. Informality is the main characteristic in nature tourism in Colombian destinations. When it is observed in the labor force, it is related to the lack of social security (such as health services and pension), in the case of the businesses, it is related to the lack of registration in the National Tourism Registration, cash payments with no valid bills and no tax collection or payment to the state.

Overtourism: The impact of tourism on a destination, or parts thereof, that excessively influences perceived quality of life of citizens and/or quality of visitors' experiences in a negative way (UNWTO 2018).

Responsible Tourism Planning: A kind of planning which must ensure, that the future distribution of gains and burdens are fair and just.

Skills: Abilities that a specific country's workforce possess and use in the tourism industry. There are several ways to measure skills, both nationally and internationally. For example, in the context of competitiveness t (World Economic Forum, 2017 and 2019) it is related to the current country level of training. Some of the indicators that are measured include: the mean number of years of schooling, skills of graduates, ease of finding skilled employees, pupil to teacher ratio, among others. In a context of English skills, (HAYS & Oxford Economics, 2019), the global level of English is measured globally amongst the workers. In the case of Colombia, skills are measured as part of national competitiveness indexes (Consejo Privado de Competitividad, 2019).

Social Capital: The social networks of influence and support that people have.

Social Cohesion: The bonds or ´glue´ that bring people together and integrate them into a united society.

Social Inclusion: Involvement of all actors in tourism (indigenous community, local business, stakeholders, shareholders, and tourists).

Social Innovation: Usage of new social practices that aim to meet indigenous needs in a better way more suitable for resolving life-being of human, involvement in tourism planning, local and social development, or social cohesion.

Sociology of Tourism: Scientific discipline investigating how tourism correlates with societal structural settings and what functions it satisfies in today´s societies.

Sustainability: Involvement of three aspects: economic, environmental and social and the maintenance in synergy effects for regional development and planning process.

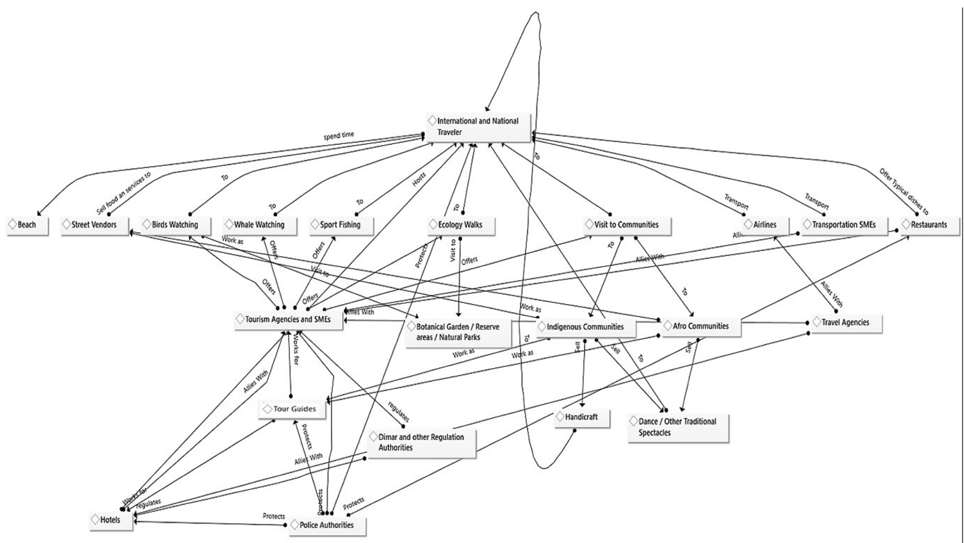
Triangulation: The use of variety of methods, and different types of data, to cross-check that the results obtained by another method are valid.

ENDNOTE

[1] Travelling is more or less permanent and becomes a fixed part of the lifestyle. Sometimes it is connected to a longer stay in the new destination that was originally visited only for touristic reasons.

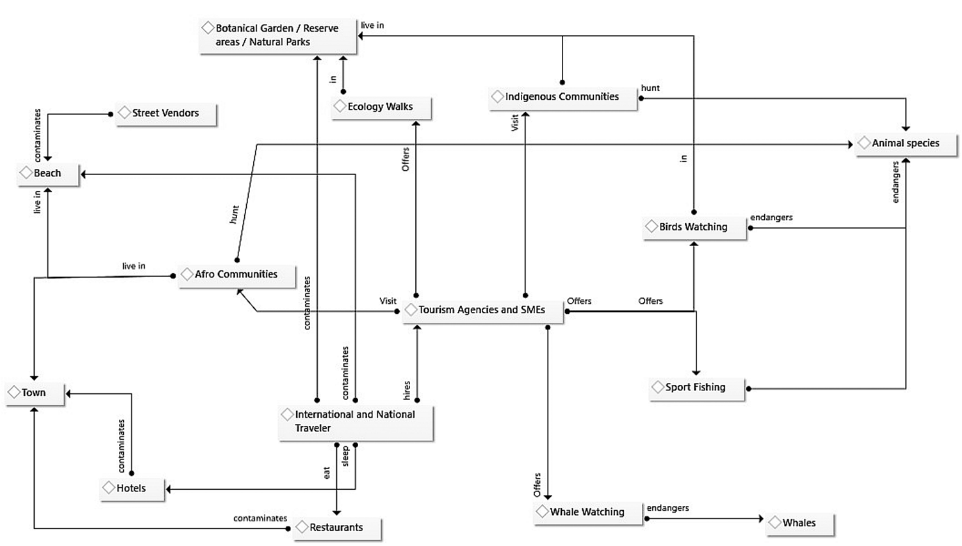
APPENDIX 1

Figure 3. Semantic network for relationships among actors
Source: Authors' elaboration in Atlas.ti, focused groups of actors in tourism process Bahía Solano, 2019



APPENDIX 2

Figure 4. Semantic network for relationships among actors and sustainability
Source: Authors' elaboration in Atlas.ti, focused groups of actors in tourism process Bahía Solano, 2019



Chapter 15
Impact of Tacit Knowledge on Tourist Loyalty:
Some Evidence From Rural Tourism

Carla Pereira
University of Beira Interior, Portugal

Helena Alves
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5192-2310
University of Beira Interior, Portugal

João J. Ferreira
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5928-2474
University of Beira Interior, Portugal

ABSTRACT

Given the prevailing competitive market conditions, establishing long-term relationships proves a source of sustainable competitive advantage. Tacit knowledge, as the only resource developed in the intellect, in the competences and the experiences built up by the human resources available, would seem appropriate to constructing competitive advantage. Within this framework, firm employees become marketing managers in terms of developing relationships given that every type of contact generates information that facilitates a relational-based philosophy. In rural tourism, with its own very specific characteristics, tacit knowledge may contribute towards fostering loyalty and may also help in determining the requisites clients are seeking. This chapter proposes a model highlighting the importance of tacit knowledge in developing loyalty in rural tourism lodgings across its cognitive, technical, and social dimensions. The results show that tacit knowledge does improve the performance of employees in engaging in affective bonds and better understanding the needs and expectations of clients.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch015

INTRODUCTION

Given the newly prevailing competitive market conditions, establishing long-term relationships with customers proves to be a source of sustainable competitive advantage to companies. Tacit knowledge (TK), as a difficult to imitate resource, gains in priority as a factor worth exploring given how this resource is essential to customer loyalty and long term relationships (Chiao et al., 2008). Within this framework, the TK generated by rural lodging employees when contacting with customers facilitates a relational based philosophy turning rural lodging employees into marketing managers (Grönroos, 1994; Gummesson, 1991; Palmer, 2001).

Knowledge thereby represents an important resource to rural lodgings (Day & Wensley, 1988; Droege & Hoobler, 2003; Lesser et al., 2000; Nonaka, 1991; Pathirage et al., 2007; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990; Spender, 1996; Tiwana, 2000; Wernerfelt, 1984), enabling innovations that effectively improve the end service.

Hence, TK, as the only resource developed in the intellect by the competences and experiences built up by the human resources available would seem particularly suitable to developing competitive advantages (Droege & Hoobler, 2003) given the difficulties inherent to its imitation, its rarity and hence its value (Droege & Hoobler, 2003; Lubit, 2001; Teece, 1998). TK unfurls across various different dimensions in keeping with how its origins may stem from a range of situations: cognitive skills (individual capacities obtained from experience and life); technical skills (the ability to perform particular tasks); social skills and interactive capabilities (the capacity to interact and communicate with third parties) (Leonard & Insch, 2005; Nonaka, 1991).

Therefore, rural lodgings should focus on managing this knowledge, guaranteeing it is properly stored and handled, conveyed and applied whenever appropriate and necessary (Bose & Sugumaran, 2003; Tzokas & Saren, 2004). This ensures customers experience a feeling of welcome on being recognised and treated as if part of the family and correspondingly feel willing to stay longer (Čater & Čater, 2009; Patterson & Smith, 2001; Ulaga & Eggert, 2006).

In rural tourism, with its own very specific characteristics, such as the personalised welcome and sense of family and domestic ambience (Salgado, 2010; Serrano & Molina, 2002; Silva, 2007), TK may contribute towards fostering loyalty. This resource may also help in determining the requisites customers are seeking to see satisfied and thus catering for them on an individualised basis, fostering value and differentiation (Antón et al., 2008; Cerro, 2009).

In this context, this chapter proposes a model highlighting the role of TK in developing loyalty in the rural lodgings sector across its cognitive, technical and social dimensions.

This chapter starts with a literature review on the concepts around tacit knowledge and its technical, social and cognitive dimensions. This subsequently characterises rural tourism activities and the enablers of loyalty identified by the empirical studies, in the majority related with tourism activities and according to which we set out our research hypotheses. Through recourse to a Structural Equation Model, we then describe the testing of the study model and its respective variable in order to return conclusions about the impact of TK on loyalty. Finally, we present the conclusions and final considerations about this chapter.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tacit Knowledge Concept

According to Polanyi (1966, p. 4), TK reflects how human knowledge and understanding is able to explicitly state and generally forms the foundations of scientific knowledge (objective/explicit). This derives from internal individual processes, such as experience, reflection, internalisation and individual talents, which are not as easy to manage or perceive as explicit knowledge (EK) (Davenport et al., 1998; Dawson, 2000; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Lueg, 2001; Mahroeian & Forozia, 2012). Explicit knowledge incorporates the individual knowledge transformed into organisational knowledge and thus available to others. Given its formalised and systematic structure, this gets communicated and shared more easily whether through product specifications, specific formulas or computer software programs (Nonaka, 1991).

TK, inherently personal and intellectual, proves more effective than explicit knowledge for sustainable competitive advantage (Droege & Hoobler, 2003) as such is not self-known in the sense that each individual knows more than they are able to express (Kikoski & Kikoski, 2004; Polanyi, 1966). As this derives from know-how unconsciously acquired by individuals when involved in a given situation, it is hard to express, formalize or share (Lubit, 2001).

Hence, TK corresponds to the knowledge that employees gain in learning how to do their work place tasks (Dixon, 2000; Lubit, 2001), that is, the know-how subconsciously acquired through the experience obtained from being involved in a particular situation (Lubit, 2001). Within this framework, Brown and Duguid (1998) differentiate between to this implicit knowledge in the minds of individuals and conveyed between different persons and know-how and the easily conveyed knowledge that is thereby more difficult to protect than knowing-what to do.

Thus, within a rural lodgings environment, TK contains the mental collective made up of the minds of all individuals and perceived as a unique set of beliefs and assumptions, values, principles and "ways of getting things done" that influence the way in which rural lodgings approach and react to their surrounding environments. Even while much only ever remains implicit, TK still generates a major impact on the perceptions and behaviours of participant members (Hubert, 1996; Nonaka & Konno, 1998).

Tacit Knowledge and its Dimensions

TK is deeply rooted in individual actions and the level of commitment to a specific context (professional, technological, market or the activities of a group or team) and breaks down into two components: 1) consisting of the technical abilities developed in conjunction with experience; and 2) consisting of the mental models, beliefs and enrooted perspectives, taken for granted and hence difficult to articulate, formalise, share or express (Dixon, 2000; Lubit, 2001; Nonaka, 1991).

However, Leonard and Insch (2005) propose a conception of TK ranging across three dimensions: cognitive, technical (Leonard & Insch, 2005; Nonaka, 1994) and social abilities (Leonard & Insch, 2005). The social dimension was subject to study by Leonard and Insch (2005) after having identified features underpinning this facet in the Wagner (1987) study approaching the ability to manage others. Nonaka (1994) also highlights how individuals play an essential role in fostering TK and across different levels of social interaction. He furthermore stresses the informal level as a source of nurturing the generation of knowledge and the development of new ideas.

The cognitive dimension incorporates that set of mental maps, beliefs, schemata and points of view enabling an individual to perceive and define the world (Nonaka, 1994). Leonard and Insch (2005) consider this store of knowledge as resulting from the experience and existence of individuals over the course of time. Within its scope, they include the aptitude for self-motivation as demonstrated by the ability to grasp the behaviours and states of spirit and know-how specific to the tasks necessary for an exemplary level of performance, together with the aptitude for the self-organisation of actions, that is, the ability to improve through perfecting processes over the course of time, including the means for determining the best method for carrying out a particular task.

The technical dimension spans know-how, the concrete knowledge associated to specific contexts, processes and practices commonly deployed to get things done and perfected through experience (Leonard & Insch, 2005; Nonaka, 1994). Hence, and according to Leonard and Insch (2005), despite the technical abilities designation put forward by Nonaka (1994) this contains cognitive factors that are not susceptible to separation. Within this framework, they group individual abilities (the individual ability to understand the steps necessary to effectively and efficiently carrying out a task) and institutional abilities (the conceptual ability to understand the relationship between a specific task and the organisational context).

The social dimension considers the need for interaction with others and with tasks enabling a better level of individual performance (Leonard & Insch, 2005). According to this author, individuals should know just whom they should turn to for advice and recommendations over just how to perform the tasks (task based social interaction). They should also be endowed with the abilities for any form of social interaction beyond work related interactions that boosts knowledge about the rural lodgings, the respective working position and the people with whom they are working with (general social interaction).

According to Kohli et al. (1998), employees who know the rural lodging's product or service portfolio well, the prices and its customers are more able to meet their own needs and desires. The holding of good social competences underpins the ability to develop better solutions to customer needs and problems. Grasping just what the customers see and understand, how they think and feel, ties in with the technical abilities enabling members of staff to take a learning friendly approach and for a higher level of performance in advising and orienting customers.

Rural Tourism Characteristics

The term tourism, in its broad meaning, embodies a set of services and resources consumed directly or indirectly by tourists. Tourism companies, in turn, are those dedicated to satisfying the needs and expectations of these tourists (Balanzá & Nadal, 2003). This sector of activity has driven regional development and when successful may bring about greater employment, higher levels of tourism revenue as well as income for the state and synergies for related activities and sectors (Chen & Tsai, 2007).

Depending on the definition adopted, rural tourism (RT) incorporates those tourism services provided in the countryside. However, given the sheer diversity and multifaceted nature of rural areas and RT, its rurality is the core and unique dimension to the RT package (Lane, 1994). Such activities stand out as a leading means of leveraging the resources existing in rural regions, a factor enabling the revitalisation of the host economy and society and an opportunity for development and entrepreneurship in these territories (Albacete-Sáez et al., 2007; Buhalis, 2000; IESE, 2008; Peña et al., 2012).

The entrepreneurs engaged in this activity include couples, families or extended families who base their way of running the business on market knowledge, competences and capital generally obtained in cities. However, they draw their inspiration from the romantic and health dimensions as well as the strength of the community and the crime free image of the countryside to develop their respective activities (Lane, 2009).

Rural tourists do not seek out massified packages, instead preferring more individualised tourism services, with personalised contacts, attributing a greater priority to tranquillity, contact with nature, with local people and their cultures (García, 2005; Loureiro et al., 2006; Serrano & Molina, 2002; Vareiro & Ribeiro, 2005). The quality of life in a small and tranquil community, with living nature and an attractive local culture, collectively represent the situations prevailing around the sites where these entrepreneurs commonly work and live (García, 2005; Serrano & Molina, 2002).

Thus, while we may consider RT as an activity taking place within the service sector, RT nevertheless displays its own characteristics inherent to the activity and the small scale of such businesses. The essential objective is to provide visitors with the opportunities to relive the practices, values and traditions of the culture and gastronomy of rural societies and simultaneously benefiting from the warmth of the welcome, personalised hosting and the family friendly and domestic ambience prevailing (Salgado, 2010; Serrano & Molina, 2002; Silva, 2007).

The tourist experience involves everything that the individual learns about and interrelates with including the atmosphere, physical aspects and interactions with other customers and employees (Lovelock, 1983; Prebensen & Foss, 2011). The rural tourism experience is understood as a holistic experience that includes the diversity of resources, interactions, services, people and environments offered by a destination that impacts on their experience (Kastenholz et al., 2012b; Kastenholz & Lima, 2011; Peña et al., 2012). This therefore proves of greater importance to the tourist than the tourism product or service (Berry et al., 1988; Brown & Swartz, 1989; Kastenholz et al., 2012a; Quan & Wang, 2004; Roberts & Hall, 2004). Given this, and in conjunction with all of the tangible facets stemming from the architecture, the surrounding environmental framework, the establishments and facilities, there is scope to incorporate other factors such as personalised service standards, staff friendliness, a sense of welcome, the service quality**,** the ambience and the image, whether of the product or the rural lodging, to ensure the RT supply chain undergoes expansion (García, 2005).

Emotions constitute another important aspect to this experience and hence learning about the personal interests of tourists becomes essential to attaining good service satisfaction performance standards (Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011; Peña et al., 2012; Prebensen & Foss, 2011).

Whenever interacting with consumers, the capacities of companies to comply and provide the services promised is put to the test and correspondingly designated as "moments of truth", which may greatly contribute towards building the relationship (Bitner, 1995). In rural lodgings, according to Vega et al. (1995), the tourist experiences a complete series of moments of truth, some performed by one or more members of staff (Reichel et al., 2000) and that range from requests for information and making the reservation through to bidding farewell and the departure. Many of these brief moments amount to an interaction between the tourist and the establishment but containing so many of such tourism experiences that we might conclude that this tourism sector represents one continuous moment of truth. Furthermore, the interactions ongoing enable the building up of friendships, fostering affective bonds with places and bringing about the tourist's return to the same rural lodging or another in the same place (Silva, 2007).

Analysis of the experiences lived out by tourists enables the exploration of just how customers participate in such experiences (Prebensen & Foss, 2011). The customisation, personalisation, genuineness and authenticity of the rural scenario furthermore ensures a better leveraging of the relational capacities (Hurst et al., 2009).

Hence, the relationships developed within the scope of RT services customer-employee interactions tend to acquire affective characteristics that boost the perceptions of relational benefits obtained by the customers (Bitner, 1995; Kim et al., 2010). Every tangible aspect related with the architecture of the rural lodgings has to be aligned with facets such as: personalised attention standards, friendly and welcoming staff, service quality, the atmosphere, the ambience and the image of both the product and the rural lodging in order to ensure the continued expansion of the RT sector (García, 2005).

Loyalty Enhancers

Relational marketing (RM) gets identified as a fundamental tool to fostering loyalty, high levels of competitiveness and boosting customer satisfaction through returning a performance that exceeds their expectations (Alrubaiee & Al-Nazer, 2010; Ndubisi, 2007; Parasuraman et al., 1991). The relational exchange encapsulates the continuous character of the transactional process and the existence of a social bond between the customer and the company. Cooperation is greatly to the fore and there is a certain underlying understanding as to the level of knowledge and grasping of the relationship (Morais et al., 2005), an ambience of trust fostered by their mutual involvement and the development of feelings of interdependence (Hikkerova & Sahut, 2010).

Some of the benefits customers expect fall within the scope of long term relationships (Gwinner et al., 1998; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999): the trust (the psychological benefits of feelings of security, trust and the resulting reduction in anxiety and risk), the social benefits (the emotional facet related to recognition, familiarity and friendship with members of staff) and the benefits of special treatment (perception of discounts, speed or additional services in which the customer perceives personal recognition and a special service that would not be available to other customers) (Bendapudi & Berry, 1997; Berry, 1995; Gwinner et al., 1998; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002).

Paying attention to these benefits through increasing the customer service level helps in reducing anxiety as customers grow accustomed to what they may rely on and thus feel more confident and develop a sense of generally affective commitment towards the company (Hoq et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2010; Lacey, 2007). Customers begin to feel they are in deficit and in order to repay the company they either recommend it or provide feedback and other important personal information essential to continuously improving the services (Morais et al., 2005).

Hence, companies may develop important behaviours of loyalty among their customers that are susceptible to evaluation. Positive mouth-to-ear publicity (recommendations to third parties), the probability of continuing the relationship (change in behaviours) and satisfaction with services are some of the most commonly referenced (Dwyer et al., 1987; Gwinner et al., 1998; Marzo-Navarro et al., 2004; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999).

Thus, TK directly related to actions may influence the entire service rendering process, generating positive emotions among tourists and differentiating individual functional performance levels (Somech & Bogler, 1999; Tschetter & Tschetter, 2010). Analysis into the experiences of tourists would enable insights into how they participate in these processes (Prebensen & Foss, 2011) and, in the case of RT, given its specific characteristics, take advantage of the scope for leveraging its relational capacities (Hurst et al., 2009). The affective dimension to customer-employee interactions (Bitner, 1995; Kim et al., 2010) may raise perceptions as to the relational benefits returned to tourists.

Therefore, individuals interacting and engaging with tourists, whether owners, managers or employees, represent the natural bond between the rural lodging and its customers (Hernandéz-Lobato et al., 2006;

Salgado, 2010). Therefore, it is important to the rural lodgings to learn as much as possible from each interaction because only in this way can they verify whether the services satisfy tourist expectations and needs (Patterson & Smith, 2001; Webber & Klimoski, 2004).

When customers perceive that employees are using TK, they are likely to believe that employees know their preferences through personal past experiences and thus obtaining a personalized service in further transactions (Guchait et al., 2011).

Cognitive, technical and social capacities may drive better performances involving the fostering of confidence given that such requires mutual openness, appearance, experience and expertise in personal contacts (Castellanos-Verdugo et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010; Doney & Cannon, 1997; Moorman et al., 1993), and, in the tourism sector, driving the creation of trust in the service rendered (Macintosh, 2007).

Thus, despite the lack of national or international research on RT, relating TK with any one of its relational dimensions, we may nevertheless expect TK does enable rural lodgings to turn in better results in terms of satisfying tourist needs and endowing visitors with greater trust in the services consumed. The creation of positive feelings and experiences reduces transactional risks with the tourists strengthening their bonds with the rural lodging. Hence, we arrive at our first hypothesis:

H1: Tacit knowledge generates a positive impact on trust.

For some authors, trust enhances commitment (Aurier & N'Goala, 2010; Carvalho, 2010; Čater & Čater, 2009; Čater & Čater, 2010; Dwyer et al., 1987; Morgan & Hunt, 1994) and may reasonably be expected to hold for the RT sector (Čater & Čater, 2010; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Wetzels et al., 1998). This position allows us to propose our second research hypothesis.

H2: Trust generates a positive impact on affective commitment.

Tourism sector quality has been identified as essential to loyalty (Jih et al., 2007; Venetis & Ghauri, 2004). In RT, evaluating quality directly incorporates services with tangible factors while also spanning affectivity, image, trust in the services provided and employee performance (Loureiro et al., 2006; Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011; Macintosh, 2007; Maestro et al., 2007).

In the majority of services, whoever provides the services actually becomes "the service" at the point of evaluation and with interactions representing a factor of reference taken into consideration by customers (Jamal & Adelowore, 2008; Loureiro & González, 2008; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000). Generally, quality is evaluated at each point of interaction and measured according to the services undergoing consumption (Zeithaml et al., 1990).

As RT services are provided by one or few individuals, this raises the risk of the customer evaluation or judgement being based on one or a few experiences and whether "liking" or "not liking" the employees (Reichel et al., 2000).

Through these interactions, employees obtain new knowledge about the tourist, through their requests and the feedback provided that enables them to provide better conditions to satisfy or even exceed the respective expectations. Hence, pleasure in the experience is necessary to fostering loyalty (Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011) and with the human input essential to quality of service perceptions (Chiou et al., 2002; Gremler & Gwinner, 2000; Ibáñez et al., 2006; Thai, 2008). Employee competence, knowledge and professionalism drive a greater capacity to respond to customer expectations and needs (Ibáñez et al., 2006; Thai, 2008).

Therefore, we would expect TK and its dimensions to enable better moments of interaction, a greater understanding of the customer and consequently raising perceptions of service quality. Thus, we arrive at the following hypothesis:

H3: Tacit knowledge generates a positive impact on service quality.

Loyalty stems from feelings of interdependence between customers and suppliers that mutually invest in resources (Bitner, 1995; Hikkerova & Sahut, 2010). Suppliers gain more stable, satisfying and strong relationships (Palmatier et al., 2009) and customers respond by recommending the service provider to third parties or offering up important feedback (Dwyer et al., 1987; Gwinner et al., 1998; Wong & Sohal, 2002).

Fostering feelings of connection with and affection for a rural lodging may be evaluated through customer intentions to return and by secondary behaviours such as references, opinions, suggestions for improvement and word-of-mouth recommendations (Jones & Sasser, 1995; Jones & Taylor, 2007; Webber & Klimoski, 2004; Zeithaml, 2000). This is the type of affective loyalty that requires nurturing among customers (Carvalho, 2010; Stum & Thiry, 1991).

In the tourism sector, behaviours such as recommending the destination to third parties or the intention to return to the rural lodging or its location prove synonymous with loyalty (Anuwichanont & Mechinda, 2011; Bosque & Martín, 2008; Bowen & Chen, 2001; Castellanos-Verdugo et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010; Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011; Tian-Cole et al., 2002). This loyalty gets strongly shaped by satisfaction, familiar and direct relationships, proximity and personalised attention as well as meeting the expectations prevailing (Alegre & Cladera, 2009; Cerro et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2010).

Correspondingly, the loyal tourist returns and recommends an RT destination and/or rural lodging out of an appreciation for its quality, good service and reception standards (Cerro, 2009).

Therefore, trust and commitment prove to be important factors in the promotion of loyalty, through fostering a less forced or induced attitude (Anuwichanont & Mechinda, 2011; Carvalho, 2010; Castellanos-Verdugo et al., 2009) in word-of-mouth recommendations, fostering the reputation and the image of tourist rural lodgings and destinations (Faullant et al., 2008; Loureiro et al., 2006). We correspondingly propose the following hypotheses:

H4: Trust generates a positive impact on tourist loyalty.
H5: Affective commitment generates a positive impact on tourist loyalty.

Quality of service is identified as a factor directly interrelating with loyalty behaviours (Auruskeviciene et al., 2010; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Čater & Čater, 2010) with this finding also confirmed for the tourism sector (Bigné et al., 2001; Campón-Cerro et al., 2017; Gould-Williams, 1999; Lee et al., 2004; Tian-Cole et al., 2002).

Where tourists consider the services and experiences exceed their expectations, they feel satisfied or even charmed and capable of feeling encouraged to enjoy good stays (Bowen & Chen, 2001; Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011) and either go on to recommend the RT lodgings or seek out its services in the future (Loureiro, 2010).

The mediating effect of satisfaction also proves essential to loyalty (Anuwichanont & Mechinda, 2011; Bosque & Martín, 2008; Bowen & Chen, 2001; Hernandéz-Lobato et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2004; Lee & Xue, 2020; Loureiro & González, 2008; Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011; Ryglová et al., 2018; Tian-

Cole et al., 2002). Given how satisfaction reflects in the affective judgement made, this runs prior to any cognitive judgement as to service quality (Lee et al., 2004; Tian-Cole et al., 2002) and higher quality levels may thus represent an important factor in fostering satisfaction and shaping future behavioural intentions (Arora & Stoner, 1996; Campón-Cerro et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2004).

Correspondingly, loyalty generating service standards involve the creation of value (good experiences) (González et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2004; Maestro et al., 2007).

Hence, we forecast a direct relationship between quality and loyalty as well as the mediating effect of satisfaction both taking place in the RT sector and hence put forward the following hypotheses:

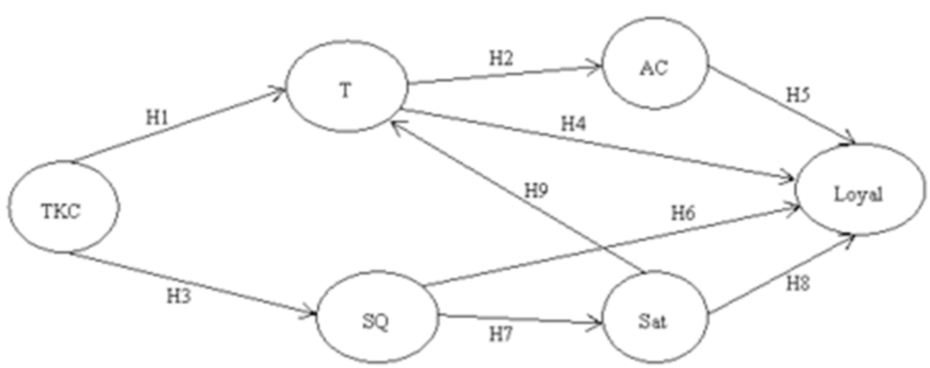
H6: Service quality generates a positive impact on tourist loyalty.
H7: Service quality generates a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.
H8: Satisfaction generates a positive impact on tourist loyalty.

Satisfaction also gains recognition as a driver of loyalty bringing about greater trust in the services received. Satisfaction enables, after several successful transactions, a feeling of trust over the meeting of their expectations, desires and needs (Ravald & Gronroos, 1996). Correspondingly, trust derives from a higher level of satisfaction, stemming from past moments (Dwyer et al., 1987; Ganesan, 1994; Moliner, 2009; Selnes, 1998). Hence, we may state that trust represents a mediating factor between satisfaction and loyalty (Loureiro et al., 2006). Hence, we arrive at our final hypothesis:

H9: Satisfaction generates a positive impact on trust.

Following this setting out of the research hypotheses, we propose the conceptual model for the relationships between TK, trust, affective commitment, quality of treatment and service, satisfaction and loyalty (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Conceptual model of the tacit knowledge impact on customer loyalty



Legend: TKC: Tacit Knowledge about Customers; T: Trust; AC: Affective Commitment; SQ: Service Quality; Sat: Satisfaction; Loyal: Loyalty.

METHODOLOGY

Sample Selection

In order to test the hypotheses, set out, we gathered data by surveying RT lodging customers. The universe studied corresponds to all individuals that have already consumed or were then consuming RT services on at least one occasion. Based on a list of 860 rural lodgings holding the NACE 55202 – Rural Tourism classification provided by the National Institute of Statistics, we requested support from the RT lodgings, through email and/or telephone, to apply our questionnaire translated from Portuguese into English and French to their customers. The rural lodgings that responded and agreed to participate in the study (76 rural lodgings) received an envelope containing an average of 15 questionnaires and return envelopes that resulted in 598 valid questionnaires, corresponding to rural lodging customers located throughout Portugal.

The questionnaire contained a set of affirmations evaluating the respondent's level of agreement and already applied in previous research projects on trust (Čater & Zabkar, 2009; Chenet et al., 2010; Loureiro & González, 2008; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), on commitment (Bansal et al., 2004; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), on service quality (Cronin et al., 2000; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Loureiro & González, 2008), on satisfaction (Cronin et al., 2000; Marzo-Navarro et al., 2004) and loyalty (Kim et al., 2010; Loureiro & González, 2008; Zeithaml et al., 1996). For TK, the affirmations derived from the research projects undertaken by Chenet et al. (2010) and Leonard and Insch (2005). The scales applied, despite their adaptation to apply to RT, retained the same number of scale items as already tested by previous studies and correspondingly without any perceived need for revalidation.

We applied a seven-point Likert type scale in order to enable the most appropriate Pearson correlations and hence ranging from 1 – "I completely disagree" to 7 – "I completely agree".

We then processed the data through structural equation modelling with recourse to AMOS version 19 software. This evaluated the significance of relationships by the maximum likelihood method that assumes the generation of data according to simple random sampling.

Constructs and Method

The research objectives involve the verification of the importance of TK to RT lodging loyalty levels resulting from the fostering of trust and the quality of treatment and service standards within a framework of commitment and satisfaction.

To this end, we proceeded to test the conceptual model and its respective hypotheses through recourse to structural equation modelling (SEM). The implementation of SEM requires prior analysis of certain assumptions (the existence of normal multi-variate distribution, the absence of both multicollinearity and outliers), which in this case indicated the need for some alterations to the initially presented model. Such modifications stem from the existence of variance inflation factors (VIF) of greater than 10 and with low levels of explanatory power for the latent variables (Standardized Regression Weights inferior to 0.7) (Hair et al., 2010) leading to a reduction in the number of variables subject to analysis in each construct to return a final total of 33 variables. Following these modifications, the model then reported "good" and "very good" adjustment indices.

Analysis of the model's measurements returned "good" and "very good" results in terms of the level of adjustment even while some variables displayed high levels of correlation. According to Chen et al.

(2005), the occurrence of high correlations between manifest variables may indicate the existence of a second order factor. Given the high correlations returned by the variables corresponding to the TK dimensions (technical, cognitive and social), we considered the scope for a higher order model with TK as the common factor to these variables. Given the set of measures returned results in accordance with the adjustment reference values for "good" and "very good", we may report that the second order model is representative for the data sample (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010; Kaplan, 2000; Reisinger & Turner, 1999).

In order to validate the scales analysed, we furthermore analysed the convergent and construct validity through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and the Construct Reliability (CR) calculations respectively (Table 1).

Table 1. Construct reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE)

Construct	CR	AVE
Tacit Knowledge about Customers (TKC)	0.98	0.93
Trust (T)	0.96	0.86
Service Quality (SQ)	0.93	0.76
Satisfaction (Sat)	0.98	0.90
Affective Commitment (AC)	0.97	0.89
Loyalty (Loyal)	0.95	0.83

The composite reliability displays CR values in excess of 0.7 and an appropriate level of convergence validity with AVE results above 0.5. Following refinements and calculations of the validity and robustness of the model, we report that the measurement model reflects reality and proves consistent with the empirical data (Hair et al., 2010; Reisinger & Turner, 1999).

This calculated the quality of the structural adjustment model based on the measurement model according to the same indices applied to the measurement model and the results once again return "good" and "very good" levels of adjustment: $\chi^2(469)=1087.18$, $\chi^2/df=2.32$, CFI=0.97, TLI=0.97 GFI=0.9, PCFI=0.86, PGFI=0.75 and RMSEA=0.047.

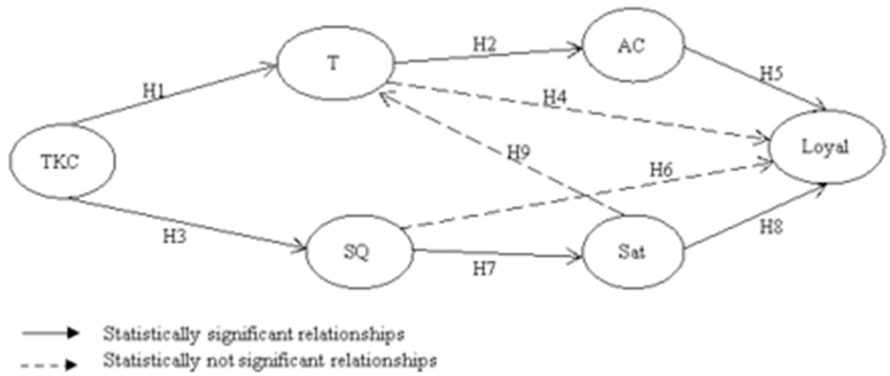
Figure 2 sets out the global structural model.

Table 2 details the significance of the structural coefficient, evaluated by the Z test run by the AMOS software, according to the critical ratio (Z) and p-value that consider the estimates for parameters returning statistically significant values of $p<0.001$ in a standardised format and accounting for the respective acceptance into or rejection from the final structural model.

The results returned demonstrate the positive impact of TK on loyalty through its positive effect on trust (H1). TK about customers, directly related with employee actions (Lueg, 2001; Nonaka & Konno, 1998; Sternberg et al., 1995), proves susceptible to raising the standard of service provision processes and generating positive emotions (Bitner, 1995; Kim et al., 2010), promoting trust both in the services and their providers on account of their cognitive, technical and social abilities.

Furthermore, the TK leveraged loyalty derives from the creation of trust that, through the mediating effect of affective commitment (H2 and H5 supported and H4 rejected), impacts on loyalty and thereby

Figure 2. Model of impact of tacit knowledge about customers on loyalty



corroborating the findings of other studies (Aurier & N'Goala, 2010; Carvalho, 2010; Čater & Čater, 2009; Čater & Čater, 2010; Dwyer et al., 1987; Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

This situation may stem from the fact that trust represents a belief designated by faith (Kumar, 1996), built up over the course of time based upon a set of interactions that enable individual knowledge and emotions (Dwyer et al., 1987; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Wang, 2009). Consequently, while trust can be strengthened, it may also be easily affected by less pleasant occurrences (Smeltzer, 1997). On the other hand, commitment represents a more effective bond strengthening a more behavioural dimension (Jones et al., 2010) able to positively contribute to tourist evaluations when encountering such less positive occurrences. In the highly human resource intensive RT sector, this aspect would seem important given the corresponding scope for potential shortcomings, therefore making the development of a more affective bond (commitment) essential.

Given that employees constitute the natural connection between the rural lodging and its tourist visitors, due to the familiar nature of the welcome service (Hernandéz-Lobato et al., 2006; OECD, 1994;

Table 2. Significance of structural coefficients

Hypothesis			Standard estimate	Stand. error	Z	p-value	Hypotheses
H1 TKC	→	T	0.80	0.044	24.43	***	Supported
H2 T	→	AC	0.68	0.051	16.54	***	Supported
H3 TKC	→	SQ	0.98	0.047	23.79	***	Supported
H4 T	→	Loyal	0.14	**0.165**	**1.56**	**0,114**	**Rejected**
H5 AC	→	Loyal	0.39	0.032	11.68	***	Supported
H6 SQ	→	Loyal	-0.34	**0.238**	**-1.73**	**0,085**	**Rejected**
H7 SQ	→	Sat	0.95	0.035	27.78	***	Supported
H8 Sat	→	Loyal	0.77	0.133	6.81	***	Supported
H9 Sat	→	T	0.177	0.098	**1.719**	**0,086**	**Rejected**

***p<0.001

Salgado, 2010) and the bridge towards fostering positive feelings and emotions (Bitner, 1995; Kim et al., 2010), the cognitive, technical and social capacities and skills of RT employees demonstrate how improvements in their performances may bring about better levels of trust.

As regards service quality, TK about customers positively influences the perceptions of quality (H3). We would note that as the interactions established in the RT sector are lower than those for the majority of services, then the evaluation may therefore result from a relative lack of experience and stems more from whether or not “liking” the employee(s) (Reichel et al., 2000). Employee TK may enable a greater capacity to grasp the prevailing customer needs and expectations (Thai, 2008).

Therefore, the competences and skills of employees, whether cognitive, technical or social in nature, would seem to nurture more positive evaluations of quality by tourists and thereby also confirming how the human factor is ever more important to good evaluation results (Gould-Williams, 1999; Ibáñez et al., 2006; Thai, 2008).

Loyalty reflects in the intention of returning to the rural lodging even if its prices rise and ranking it among the first choices even should employees change and coupled with the intent to defend the rural lodging in the face of third party criticism. This furthermore confirms the role played by affective loyalty (Hernandéz-Lobato et al., 2006; Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011).

Quality turns out to influence loyalty through the mediating effect of satisfaction (H6-rejected and H7 and H8 supported) similar to other tourism sector based research findings (González et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2004; Maestro et al., 2007). This thus seemingly demonstrates that the impact of quality on loyalty inherently requires the creation of additional value in order to bring about improvements to the level of satisfaction and, through this means, generate positive impacts on loyalty (Bowen & Chen, 2001) through the development of emotions (Bosque & Martín, 2008).

Trust does not prove an effective mediator in the promotion of loyalty (H9 rejected). Hence, at RT lodgings, even where customers do report having had good experiences (González et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2004; Maestro et al., 2007), this emerges as insufficient to strengthening the level of trust. Any negative occurrence may drive what Smeltzer (1997) terms “the destruction or swift loss of trust”. This result would seem to convey how other factors play in the building up of trust, which may incorporate the nature of the activity, both highly personalised and familiar. Such conditions require greater involvement, which may also result in a strengthening of the emotional bond, in order to build up this trust.

TK, across its cognitive and social dimensions and the interactions resulting, may strengthen emotional links and ties. The exchange of experiences and greater knowledge about tourists, held both by the member of staff and by the establishment, may also lead to the development of feelings of friendship between employees and tourists that, in conjunction with successful experiences, may strengthen the trust necessary to establishing a commitment towards the rural lodging and corresponding future loyalty.

Hence, according to the values returned by AVE (Table 2), ensuring tourist loyalty requires the need to establish and foster the affective commitment and satisfaction of tourists, encouraging trust and supplying quality services with TK susceptible to making significant contributions to this end.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

At the theoretical level, the findings of this research deepen existing knowledge on the construction of loyalty and interrelates this with the TK of RT employees. The results enable an insight into how TK may be effectively converted into a source of sustainable competitive advantage through promoting and enhancing loyalty.

As managerial implications, this enables RT lodgings to understand how TK about customers provides a critical input to satisfying and retaining customers. RT lodgings should correspondingly prioritise and value the knowledge held and obtained by their employees and understand its importance to their sustaining the functional performance.

Concerted efforts to retain and process the knowledge that employees obtain through moments of interaction with customers may generate meaningful improvements to future services and customise the orientation towards and communication with tourists. This also lessens the vulnerability of rural lodgings to the departure of members of staff with significantly high levels of churn among employees in this sector.

A good internal human resource policy and a good organisational climate may combine to enable employees to share whatever they know more easily. The rural lodging thereby guarantees that knowledge and information is shared with other employees and new members of staff on the departure of their predecessors. In this way, tourists see their requirements satisfied and their interests safeguarded in further visits. Furthermore, the rural lodging may benefit from increased and sustained improvements to its competitive advantage.

Despite these generalisations likely extending to other samples, the conclusions are valid only for the observed sample. Hence, the application of this study at the international level, or even in different sectors of activity at the national level, represent potential avenues for future research.

The concept of loyalty makes no distinction between loyalty to the rural lodging and loyalty to the employee. Evaluating whether the loyalty stemming from TK is attributed to the employee or the rural lodging and whether the loyalty developed as regards employees then gets transferred to the rural lodging also make up future lines for research.

This research study evaluated only the opinions of tourists as regards the importance of TK to the maintenance of relationships with rural lodgings. Gathering the opinions of RT business managers and owners and cross-referencing the results would demonstrate whether such perceptions coincide.

The measures enabling the operational application of TK, given their lack of any earlier operational application, may not have been the most appropriate to measuring the construct, and hence new and improved operational applications of this TK scale may provide better means of evaluating its influence over the development of long term relationships.

In RT, a highly personalised activity, in which tourists seek family-type, relaxed and pleasant environments, we conclude that the employee-held TK is essential to loyalty.

The value of TK, across its cognitive, technical and social dimensions, arises from its capacity to generate trust and emotional and affective bonds that turn into commitment. This fosters positive perceptions of service quality that in the RT case derive from the quality of the interactions established and evaluations of employees. Thus, through the input of additional value there is the strengthening of the emotional bond, which boosts satisfaction that in turn promotes a higher loyalty level in rural tourists. Hence, customers ponder the option of returning to the RT rural lodgings even should its prices rise as well as defending it against less favourable opinions.

However, this quality should also attain a level greater than that provided by the competition as otherwise this does not foster the higher satisfaction levels desired and the loyalty will not prove an effective bond even while the quality gains recognition. The satisfaction of expectations or even exceeding them may represent a means of guaranteeing the capacity to maintain the relationship with mutual benefits to each party.

Taking these aspects into consideration, tourists perceive the concerns of the company about their wellbeing and interests and, when feeling that the investment put into the relationship was worthwhile, remain in the relationship and may make return visits and promote the company. Hence, fostering a consumer based orientation and the development of internal marketing for greater motivation and commitment may constitute differentiating actions within the scope of services provided by RT establishments.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This research project took place following funding from the FCT – te Foundation for Science and Technology under the auspices of project "UIDB/04630/2020."

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Competitive Advantage: A resource, competence, or ability that a company has regarding its competition and that gives it a strategic superiority.

Loyalty: An intention and/or actions of free will towards another party.

Quality: Objective assessment of expectations and the situation experienced.

Rural Tourism: A tourism experience with activities in the agricultural or rural context.

Satisfaction: Subjective assessment of an experience.

Tacit Knowledge: The knowledge inside the heads of individual's and transferred only when they want.

Trust: The belief that parties act with mutual benefits in mind.

Chapter 16

New Training Contexts for Geoeducation and Tourism:
Action and Education Strategies in the Qualification of Estrela Geopark Communities in Portugal

Gonçalo Poeta Fernandes
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1278-0369
Instituto Politécnico da Guarda, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal

Emanuel Castro
Associação Geopark Estrela (AGE), Portugal

Hugo Gomes
Associação Geopark Estrela (AGE), Portugal

Magda Fernandes
Associação Geopark Estrela (AGE), Portugal

ABSTRACT

The development of non-formal educational strategies and the promotion of territory Serra da Estrela as a didactic resource constitute, at present, a stimulating action model for learning and qualification of human resources, promoting knowledge, and developing competence of value for sustainability. Knowledge of endogenous resources, heritage, and lifestyles enables the development of tourism initiatives to be promoted, recognizing its strategic value (economic and social) and spreading good protection practices. The Estrela Geopark, through the development of educational programs, aims to stimulate contact with the geoheritage of the Serra da Estrela territory in an outdoor learning approach, educating and sensitizing students from different cycles to the importance of geoconservation, heritage enhancement, and sustainability of tourism. In this context, the compression of history, evolution of the Earth and life, in the context of a natural mountain laboratory is promoted, providing knowledge and attitudes for the conservation of heritage and the valorization of the territory.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch016

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between tourism and the territory is symbiotic in that the resources of the territory can be transformed or become tourist attractions (Buhalis, 2010; Cunha, 2006). It should be noted that tourism practices and products to be developed and promoted in the current context will have to be increasingly supported by the difference, authenticity, culture, and values associated with the natural elements that make up the regions and cultural resources that host this tourism (Buhalis & Amarang-gana, 2015; Fernandes, 2015). At the same time the community must know and value the resources for tourism demand and practice. Training actions should be promoted to foster their conservation and support qualified tourism products and associated services. Training and promotion of geosciences is a fundamental sustainable strategy for the areas of great heritage value and the basis for enhancement as spaces for geo-education and tourism.

Estrela Geopark comprises a geographically defined territory, with well-known geological and geo-morphological resources associated with its own ecosystems and ways of life. The diversity of glacial vestiges, the wealth of its heritage, and the character of its landscape make a unique geography out of the Serra da Estrela, whose structured approach allows the creation of a strong brand with touristic, patrimonial, and cultural potential (Castro et al., 2017; Gomes et al, 2017). Heritage and landscape bring to this territory an eco-cultural dimension of great relevance that constitutes a living laboratory in which the resources, the ways of life of the population, and the biological and geological diversity blend into cultural landscapes. In this context, its classification as a UNESCO Global Geopark recognizes its heritage relevance and the existence of territorial valorisation strategies that enhance geoconservation, the well-being of communities, education, and tourism.

A geopark is a well-defined territory, with a relevant geological heritage, linked to a whole strategy of sustainable development that has its main pillars in geoconservation, education for sustainable develop-ment, and tourism. Geoparks as an innovation for the protection of natural and geological heritage play an important role in the development of geotourism and knowledge exchange. The global network of geoparks (GGN) states that a geopark should also enhance, promote, and preserve biodiversity, cultural heritage, scientific research, crafts, and gastronomy, among other aspects, and should seek to improve the population's living conditions, promoting in an integrated manner endogenous values and their tourist appropriation (Stueve et al., 2002).

Geo-education and geotourism have gained relevance in the projects of tourism development, above all in low-density territories; education is the basis of geotourism and a pillar for heritage sustainability and their local communities. Tourism is learning according to the didactic interpretation tools that are being offered. In this context, strategies, educational programmes, and pedagogical paths were developed that address tourism issues, with a view to promoting education for its sustainable development, in space and time. The educational programmes aim to empower communities in the areas of citizen science of knowledge, sensitivity and attitudes for the preservation and enhancement of ecocultural resources, and sustainable tourism practices, given the fragility that many of the resources present. In this context, pedagogical paths and programmes have been structured for the different levels of education, which aim to stimulate curiosity and interest in the geosciences, contributing to the conservation and enhancement of the natural and cultural heritage of Estrela.

This chapter seeks to describe the methodologies and strategies for the preservation of environmental values, developed in an engaging and critical manner, based on a participatory scientific approach and greater responsibility for intervention in the protection of ecosystems. Means of disseminating knowledge, strengthening geoconservation attitudes, and enhancing resources are identified. This systematizes the logic of action and education practices for sustainable tourism and responsibility behaviours and the sense of belonging with the territory and its values. Non-formal education and outdoor activities, and how each can contribute to the development and interrelation with the communities, in particular, promote new training contexts and contribute to the dissemination of geoconservation strategies and good practices. The practices developed allow the dissemination of geodiversity, biodiversity, and mountain lifestyles, stimulating interest in the discovery and knowledge of the mountain, attitudes, and touristic practices with concern for preservation and enhancing the sustainability of its resources.

The results presented and the support structures produced, result from the work developed in the territory with the school groups, the training promoted in basic and higher education and the relationship established between the Geopark, and local actors (education, tourism, governance, among others). The strategies and forms of its action were in the genesis of the classification of this territory with UNESCO World Geopark. Good practices of geoeducation, dissemination of the geological heritage and effective articulation with the tourist agents of the territory are presented, in favor of their learning and training for tourist development.

Thus, the chapter addresses, in a first part, the contexts of non-formal learning and non-formal education, taking the territory as a didactic resource and identifying actors and mechanisms of knowledge transfer. It then promotes an appreciation of geoparks and geoeducation and their contributions to the enhancement of tourism and geological heritage. The Estrela Geopark, center of interest of this chapter, is framed, characterizing its educational programs, strategies for tourism development and the promotion of skills that enable and enhance the ecocultural resources and their allocation to tourism.

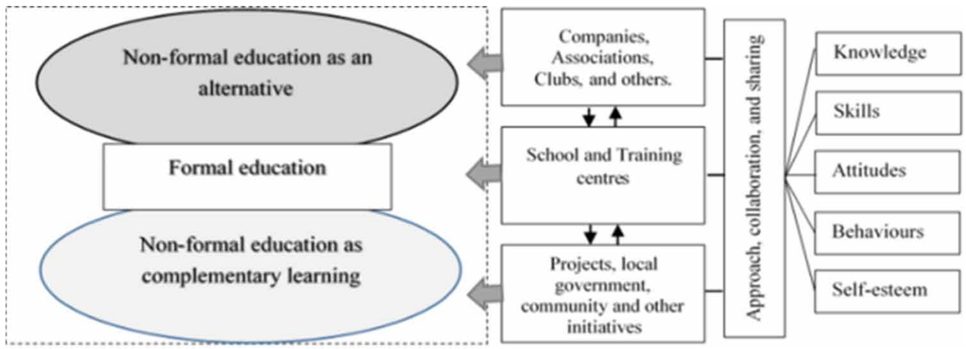
EDUCATION AND NEW LEARNING CONTEXTS. THE TERRITORY AS A DIDACTIC RESOURCE

There are many theories concerning how people learn, absorb information, and respond critically to knowledge. Over time, the perception of ways to learn and to spread and apply knowledge varies according to sociocultural contexts and the objectives and means associated with learning. The outdoor environment provides opportunities for different types of skills to be learnt. The learning outcomes derived from outdoor education will differ for different outdoor learning approaches and depend on the objectives of the educator and the subjects or skills being taught (O'Brien & Murray, 2006, 2007).

Nowadays the space-time of regular classes does not favour forms of communication of all / as with all / the (processing is mainly on teacher direction students), or the creation of new intervention variables and more individualized relationships, less formal methodologies, and more exciting generators of knowledge built on cooperation devices. Thus, we are facing a growing number of mechanisms that seek to add new partners and experiences to learning, in a procedure complementary to traditional teaching formats, but enriching contexts and attracting greater numbers of actors to the process of building knowledge and the training of skills. In this context, it is important to clarify non-formal learning and formal education (Figure 1).

- **Non-Formal Learning:** learner-centred and practice-based learning processes which emphasise intrinsic motivation, the usefulness of knowledge, and critical thinking (rather than objective knowledge and memorizing) and aim at identity growth, social change, and integration into

Figure 1. Training and education and the contributions of non-formal education in the construction of learning
(Source: Authors elaboration)



society (Harring et al., 2016). Non-formal learning is also connected to an institution (i.e. an organisation or association with a specific interest such as culture or sports) within the non-formal education system (Norqvist et al., 2016). It can come from sports and cultural work, in working life, and in civil society activities like in non-governmental organisations, or in partnership with a variety of actors like is often the case in community work and social projects. Learning is part of a non-formal education system, and therefore we consider the learning perspective alongside a perspective of the (education) system. Non-formal learning serves not as a marginal and secondary support element to formal education but as a powerful learning approach ready for broader challenges.

- **Non-Formal Education**, Education can be seen as a context or setting, but the learning itself is a (lifelong) process (Smith, 2016). Non-formal education constitutes an addition, alternative, and/or complement to formal education within the process of the lifelong learning of individuals. It is often provided to guarantee the right of access to education for all. It caters to people of all ages but does not necessarily apply a continuous pathway or structure; it may be short in duration and/or low in intensity, and it is typically provided in the form of short courses, workshops, or seminars (UNESCO, 2011). Non-formal education refers to planned, structured programmes and processes of personal and social education designed to improve a range of skills and competences, outside the formal educational curriculum.

Formal, non-formal, and informal education are complementary and mutually reinforcing elements of a lifelong learning process. Colley, Hodkinson, and Malcolm (2003) have studied various learning contexts and processes and found that a typically formal learning process also includes significant elements of non-formal and informal learning. At the same time, non-formal learning projects include characteristics of formal education. Non-formal learning takes place outside formal learning environments but within some kind of organisational framework (Table 1).

In this situation, outdoor education and other non-formal learning fields have gained the recognition and support of international organisations of the achievements and the potentiality of non-formal learning. At the same time, it is vital for the practitioners and researchers within the non-formal learning community to involve themselves in continuous development and self-reflection of their own educational

Table 1. Systematization of the main aspects of formal and non-formal education

Education	formal	non-formal
place	Usually at school	Usually out of school
purposes	Long-term & general credential-based	Short-term & specific Non-credential-based
timing	long cycle / preparatory / full-time	short cycle / recurrent / part-time
content	standardized / input centred academic entry requirements determine clientele	individualized / output centred practical clientele determine entry requirements
delivery system	institution-based, isolated from environment rigidly structured, teacher-centred and resource intensive	environment-based, community related, flexible, learner-centred and resource saving
control	Teacher-led Compulsory and external / hierarchical	Guided or teacher-led Usually voluntary and self-governing / democratic

(Source: Adapted from Fordham, 1993; Stocklmayer, Rennie, & Gilbert, 2010)

thinking and methodological practices (Castelani, 2005). Outdoor education is on the rise in Europe and beyond, and there is an emerging trend of integrating outdoor learning activities in formal education and bringing the outdoors inside. Not only does outdoor education help students become in tune with their surroundings and gain an appreciation for the natural world, but it also plays an important part in bringing what students learn in the classroom into real life through application and observation; in this it highly contributes to their personal and social development (Festeu & Humberstone, 2006). Non-formal education, as an intentional, systematic, structured and specific educational practice, also favours the development of personal and social skills which the school itself has difficulty developing. Thus, non-formal education carried out outside the classroom, namely through study visits, presents several advantages for the education and training of individuals, since it takes into consideration previous knowledge, promotes experimentation and fosters attitudes and social, civic and environmental responsibilities.

Specifically, fieldwork can have a positive impact on long-term memory due to the memorable nature of the fieldwork setting (Tuan Soh & Meerah, 2013). Effective fieldwork, and residential experience in particular, can lead to individual growth and improvements in social skills. More importantly, there can be a reinforcement between the affective and the cognitive, with each influencing the other and providing a bridge to higher-order learning (Rickinson, 2005).

According to the OECD (2010), recognition of non-formal and informal learning is high on policy agendas:

- Recognition of non-formal and informal learning makes this human capital more visible and more valuable to society at large.
- Recognition can allow people to complete formal education more quickly, efficiently, and cheaply by not having to enrol in courses for which they have already mastered the content.
- Recognition of non-formal and informal learning can also help employers and workers to get a good job match and help displaced workers to inform future employers about their skills.
- Recognition of economic benefits can be seen in the reduction of the direct and opportunity costs of formal learning, allowing human capital to be used more productively.

- Recognition of social benefits points out the improved equity and strengthened access to both further education and the labour market, for disadvantaged groups, disaffected youth, and older workers.
- Recognition of psychological benefits indicates that individuals are made aware of their capabilities, validating their worth.

Promotion of high and accurate knowledge requires the training of tourists in this field. In fact, with increasing education, not only is a more significant relationship between the two factors of environmental behaviour and environmental knowledge achieved, but a more accurate way of exploitation is also attained (Mokhtari et al., 2019). To promote it, deep reorientation of the educational programmes is required, at all levels, including universities, so as to integrate a clear focus on the development of knowledge, skills (critical and creative thinking, communication, conflict management, problem-solving strategies, project assessment), perspectives, and values related to sustainability. Formal and informal geo-education can only be promoted to any significant extent if there is proper geoconservation action plan to identify, protect, and manage geosites with a high educational value (Henriques et al., 2011).

UNESCO Global Geoparks provide an opportunity for education through promotion of natural and cultural heritage, in particular education that is geologically and geomorphologically focused on the knowledge of the history of our planet, as well as the influence of abiotic resources on human development (Miśkiewicz, 2016).

GEOPARKS AND GEO-EDUCATION: CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE SUSTAINABILITY OF TOURISM ACTIVITY

Non-formal education is a very relevant aspect in the perspective of sustainability, in particular in the dissemination of geosciences and geoconservation, as in a process of tourist valuation, making known the geotouristic resources, their heritage value, and the importance of preserving their ecocultural and economic assets. In the context of the sustainable development of the territory and based on the principle of conservation of its natural and cultural heritage, the UNESCO Global Geoparks intend to implement projects for the maintenance and enhancement of natural spaces, to promote science, to increase the well-being of their communities, and to promote tourism (Harner, 2001; Zouros, 2004). Thus, geoparks must protect the geological heritage for future generations (conservation); educate and teach the general public about themes related to geological landscapes and environmental matters (education); promote research facilities in geosciences (science); and ensure sustainable development (tourism) (Eder & Patzak, 2004).

Geotourism is one of the main areas promoted by UNESCO Global Geoparks, with an emphasis on nature tourism and cultural tourism (Brilha, 2004; Catana & Alves, 2008). The organisation of different actions with a focus on natural and cultural heritage aims to stimulate socio-economic activities through the creation and promotion of projects related to the tourism sector, to disseminate and promote visits and touristic circuits in the territory. Geo-education and geotourism have gained relevance in the projects of tourism development, above all in low-density territories. This new paradigm of “looking” at the territory has allowed the construction of a new narrative about the valorisation of endogenous resources, the landscape, and the policies of territorial tourism development (Frey et al., 2016). Education and science play a key role in the conservation and maintenance of geological and cultural diversity, stimulating research in the territory and actively contributing to the existence of a network of initiatives (publications, information exchange, conferences, community projects, etc.) in a holistic view. Education is the basis of geotourism and a pillar for the sustainability of the territory's heritage and its local communities. The visitors develop attitudes according to the didactic and scientific information and interpretation tools that are available. In this way, geotourism assumes a fundamental role in sustainable local development, while leisure activities may involve environmental education (Farsani et al., 2011; Hose, 2000, 2005). Geoscience education can only be successful if direct contact with geodiversity is allowed. This premise is valid in relation to formal educational activities, on a school scope, and to non-formal educational activities aimed at the general public. In this sense, field trips allow geodiversity to have an educational value of great relevance (Brilha, 2005).

The dissemination of heritage values has an educational value in itself and constitutes a relevant contribution to teaching, facilitating teaching activity, and the development of fieldwork (Brilha, 2005, Fernandes et al., 2016). The development of educational promotion strategies, using the region's heritage resources, in an integrated approach and designed in coordination with the programmatic references of the different teaching cycles, constitutes stimulating educational resources for the teaching process outside the classroom, generating experiences and *in situ* learning. In this collaborative context, the articulation of schools in a synergistic connection with the Estrela Geopark is encouraged, in the construction of active and experimental models, generators of transversal learning, and valorisation of the territory (Eder & Patzak, 2004; Fernandes et al., 2017; Gomes et al., 2018).

Education is the basis of geotourism and a pillar for heritage sustainability and local communities. Tourists are learning according to the didactic interpretation tools that are being offered. The more explicit the phenomena are and the more appealing the interpretation, the more efficient the dissemination of geology becomes. On the other hand, a citizen who may have had the possibility of having studied geosciences is more conscious and interested in the practice of geotourism. Furthermore, geotourism allows for the promotion of geo-heritage through the sensitisation and the promotion of geology that becomes essential for a concerted geoconservation strategy.

The relationships among geoconservation, science, and tourism must be established in different ways, enabling an integrated approach to the territory, in the natural and human dimensions and their interactions, promoting knowledge, raising awareness of heritage values, and building attitudes and tourist practices that value the destination and enable their sustainable use. UNESCO Global Geoparks wants to motivate local residents to realize the uniqueness of their place (Čtveráková et al., 2016). This scientific knowledge, combined with principles of preservation and sustainable uses, leverages value for the territory, promoting a deeper knowledge of its physical and natural history, as well as its functional and heritage relevance, promoting perceptions and tourist practices that promote its sustainability (Fernandes et al., 2017; Hose, 2005).

In order for a geopark to achieve its objectives, activities related to geotourism and geo-education must be developed, not just geoconservation. In addition, geo-education, geoconservation, and geotourism must be developed considering that the uses of the territory presuppose a permanent and collective construction with the community, promoting economic and social well-being (Novaes & Pena, 2016). The learning around these concepts should be part of UNESCO Global Geoparks' value strategy, allowing the dissemination of knowledge, science, and good practices that generate sustainability.

GEO-EDUCATION, GEOCONSERVATION, AND GEOTOURISM: CHALLENGES FOR THE VALORISATION OF ECO-CULTURAL RESOURCES AND SUSTAINABILITY

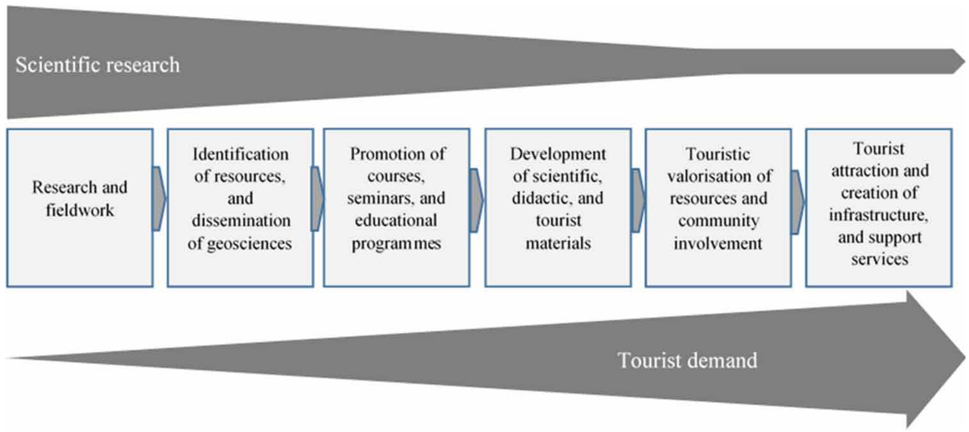
The territory results from the interaction between man and the environment, which produces different ways of organisation and anthropogenic relationships with nature and culture, transforming these assets in terms of their leisure supply, entertainment, and knowledge to visitors and socio-economic inclusion of local people in related activities with tourism (Berman, 2008; Eder & Patzak, 2004). Geo-heritage plays an educational role in society so as to raise the awareness about the extent of the influence of geological forms and processes on our history (Miśkiewicz, 2016)

Geoconservation is a management strategy for geo-heritage sites based on the high value of geological resources have for science and tourism, requiring careful action in its conservation in the face of different human pressures (Gray, 2005). Geoconservation is currently defined as "the act of protecting geosites and geomorphosites from damage, deterioration or loss through the implementation of protection and management measures" (Hose, 2012, p. 16). In order to achieve geoconservation and the valorisation of territories that have georecourses, it is essential to promote education and public awareness about the value of geosites, through their promotion and interpretation via geotourism (Burek & Prosser, 2008; Hose, 1995, 2008, 2012; Hose & Vasiljevic, 2012). Geoconservation is more focused on the management of those geological elements with exceptional scientific, educational, touristic, or cultural value in the geological heritage represented by geosites (Henriques et al., 2011). Inventory and evaluation procedures play a decisive role in the implementation of subsequent conservation, and in the valuing and monitoring of the geo-heritage. It should be noted that geo-education cannot be interpreted only as teaching concepts related to Earth Sciences/Geosciences, but rather as a set of knowledge and knowledge, both school and non-school, both for children and young people and adults, in order to prepare them to interpret and act in their territory, in search of better living conditions and maintenance of their collective heritage (Figueiró et al., 2019)

The concept of geotourism has known different interpretations and approaches, depending on scientific areas and geographic contexts, currently having a less strict dimension with geology and a more extensive relationship with geographical aspects approached in a relational way with the geomorphology of places. In this context, Hose (2012) summarised and redefined geotourism as "the provision of interpretative and services facilities for geosites and their encompassing topography, together with their associated *in situ* and *ex situ* artefacts, to build constituency for their conservation by generating appreciation, learning and research by and for current and future generations. Geotourism can promote geoconservation and an understanding of earth sciences through appreciation and learning. The interpretation and understanding of the landscape provided by geo-education triggers geoconservation, since the tourism and pedagogical activities in question start from the premises of sustainability and the need for conservation of geological heritage. Geotourism has developed methods of geo-education to prepare geosites available for visiting, using interpretation for a wide range of recipients (Dowling & Newsome, 2006; Hose, 2012).

The social fruition of the geological heritage is mainly achieved in national parks and similar structures (natural parks, natural monuments, and natural reserves, depending on the legal framework) where it is supported through informative and interpretative actions, namely interpretative panels, brochures, leaflets, field guidebooks, websites, museums, and interpretative centres (Henriques et al., 2011). Geoconservation plays an important role in science, education, and geotourism, promoting an entire process of inventorying, cataloguing, and sharing that promotes the tourist qualifications of the territories and

Figure 2. Development of the geotourism destination and its relationship with knowledge
(Source: Authors elaboration)



their enjoyment, as a tourist space for interpretation and learning (Figure 2). One of the important issues that has attracted many researchers in the field of geotourism in recent years is the sustainability issue and how tourists view the exploitation and conservation of endogenous resources (Dowling, 2011)

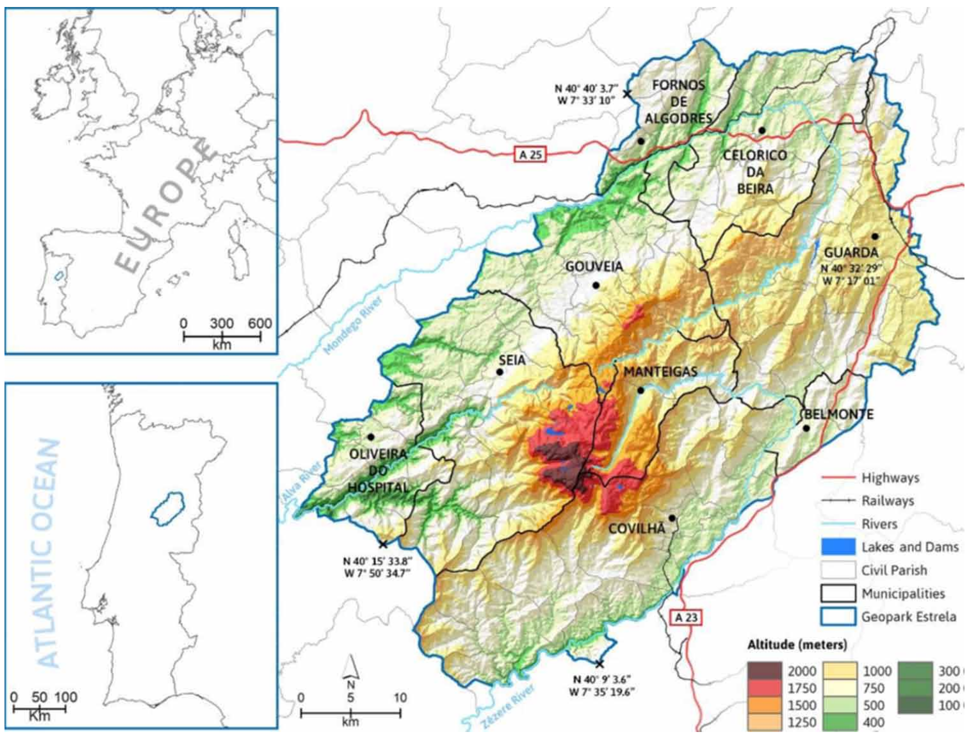
Mokhtari et al. (2019) observed that there is a positive and significant relationship between the tourists' education level and positive environmental reactions to geotourism resources. In this context, there is also a relationship between environmental behaviours and geotourism knowledge. An educational strategy is necessary to be set up in partnership with schools, universities, and local councils, in order to develop training packages and courses for local teaching staff and students, to organise events for public awareness in natural and cultural heritage. Geo-education has to develop its own structure and tools based on results of scientific research. It has to be considered in a broader frame as part of education for nature conservation and ultimately an important part of education for sustainable development.

ESTRELA GEOPARK EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES AND FORMATS FOR INTERACTION WITH THE COMMUNITY

Estrela Geopark has the mission of contributing to the protection, valorisation, and dynamization of the natural and cultural heritage, with special emphasis on geological heritage, with a view to deepening and disseminating scientific knowledge and to promoting tourism and sustainable development of the Serra da Estrela. On the whole, the geopark seeks the development of an integrated development strategy which will enhance heritage; foster geoconservation, education, and tourism; and support the construction of development strategies for the good of the community.

Estrela Geopark emphasises the development of a collective strategy, reconciling environmental, social, and economic responsibilities, which articulates for the first time all municipalities of Serra da Estrela which are engaged in value action, conservation, and territorial promotion. The Estrela Geopark consists of nine municipalities (Guarda, Seia, Gouveia, Celorico da Beira, Fornos de Algodres, Manteigas, Belmonte, Covilhã, and Oliveira do Hospital) with a total area of 2216 Km^2 and about 160.000 residents. It is coordinated by the Associação Geopark Estrela (AGE), which has as its founding partners, besides the nine municipalities, the Polytechnic of Guarda and the University of Beira Interior, and it intends to be extended to other local agents such as educational institutions, local associations, clubs, and the different stakeholders of Serra da Estrela.

Figure 3. Location of the Estrela Geopark and its altimetry
(Source: Authors elaboration)



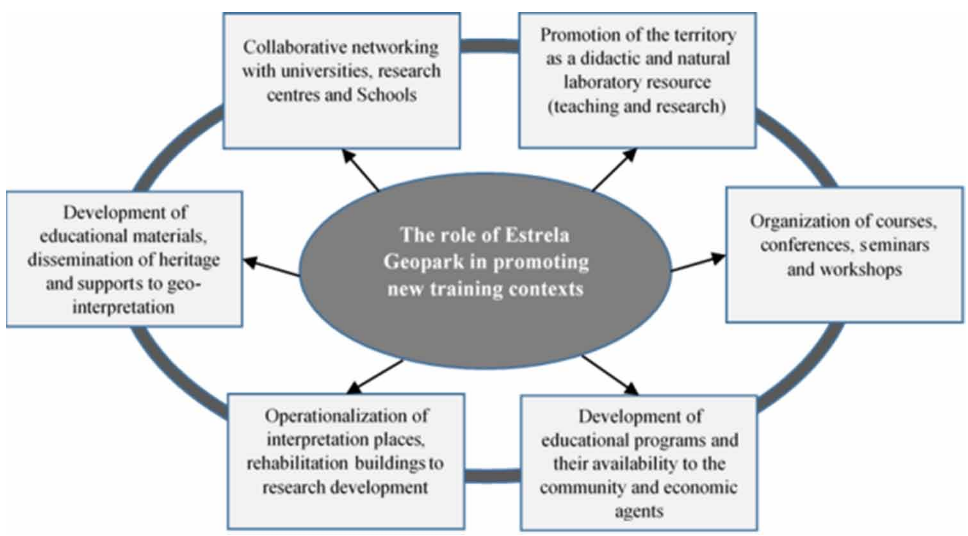
The educational programmes aim to empower communities in the areas of citizen science of knowledge, sensitivity and attitudes for the preservation and enhancement of ecocultural resources, and sustainable tourism practices, given the fragility that many of the resources present. In this context, pedagogical paths and programmes were structured for the different levels of education, which aim to stimulate curiosity and interest in the geosciences, contributing to the conservation and enhancement of the natural and cultural heritage of Estrela. The practices developed allow the dissemination of information about geodiversity, biodiversity, and mountain lifestyles, stimulating interest in the discovery and knowledge of the geopark's territory. Programmes promote tourism attitudes and practices with protection and preservation concerns, enhanced resource preservation, and their sustainability. Methods for the logical dissemination of knowledge, strengthening geoconservation attitudes, development of resources are identified, and guidance in analysing the functions and effects of their use on the environment and community. The logic of action, education practices, and geoconservation are systematized for sustainable tourism and for responsible behaviour and a sense of belonging with the territory and its values.

Geotourism seeks to attract the public and generate socio-economic benefits, based on the creation of a tourism infrastructure to support some elements of the geological heritage present in a region. To do this, it must be planned and must be locally beneficial in socio-environmental and economic terms (Dowling, 2009).

Geoparks being UNESCO territories, whose education is one of the vertices of its vision, non-formal education, in particular, turns these spaces into real living laboratories. This Education is promoted through activities with a well-defined objective, based on the programmatic contents addressed in formal education, thus constituting a complement to what is taught in schools and other institutions of formal education (Cascais & Terán, 2014)

The richness of its heritage, the diversity of glacial evidences, biodiversity, and its ways of life make Serra da Estrela a unique geography whose structured approach will allow the creation of a strong perception and identity with tourists in terms of the area's heritage and cultural potential. In the context of the sustainable development of the Serra da Estrela territory and based on the principle of conservation of the natural and cultural heritage, the Estrela Geopark intends to implement projects for the enhancement of natural spaces, developing a Science and Education Network for Sustainability. Thus, environmental education projects are promoted, strengthening relations with the community, improving tourism, and promoting actions that increase the well-being of local communities. In general terms, the Estrela Geopark takes a collaborative position and supports the promotion of knowledge and education, encompassing different processes and actions, supported in the territories as didactic resources and in the development of materials and programmes that allow structured knowledge of the territory's history, georesources, geoconservation practices, and the promotion of sustainable tourism strategies (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Systematization of the role of Estrela Geopark in promoting new training contexts
(Source: Authors elaboration)



The Estrela Geopark seeks, through the development of educational programmes, to stimulate direct contact with the geo-heritage of Serra da Estrela, educating and sensitizing students to the importance of its conservation, promoting knowledge of history and evolution of the planet earth. These practices promote, in addition to science, responsible attitudes towards the environment, enhancing a perception of value for tourist activities, present and future, as citizens and future professionals.

The educational programmes of Estrela Geopark (Table 2), structured in pedagogical routes, were developed based on the curricular programmes and goals of the Ministry of Education, so they intend to assist teachers in the teaching of the geosciences and constitute an important resource in the operationalization of curricular programmes, in a logic of outdoor learning.

Table 2. Pedagogical routes of Estrela Geopark according to levels of education

General goals	Pedagogical Routes (PP)
• Encourage and promote direct contact with the geological heritage, integrating biodiversity and culture; • Raising awareness of the protection and conservation of the natural and cultural heritage, contributing to education for sustainability; • Foster scientific literacy; • Generate learning attitudes of environmental appreciation.	**1st Cycle** PP1 "Discovering Zêzere and its relationship with human activity" PP2 "Discovering Alva and its surroundings" PP3 "Discovering Mondego and its ways of life" **2nd Cycle** PP1 "The Space and Time of the Estrela Geopark" PP2 "Places that tell us stories" PP3 "Granite and the human landscape" PP4 "The first communities in the Estrela Geopark" PP5 "The Mountain: experiences and traditions" PP6 "The Estrela Water Castle" PP7 "Between Açor and Estrela mountains" PP8 "Pastoralism and wool in the identity of Estrela" **3rd Cycle** PP1 "Estrela Geodynamics" PP2 "Rocks and Biodiversity: what relationship?" PP3 "Man and his geography" PP4 "Natural resources, population and population"
	Secondary education PP1 "The geological evolution of the Estrela Mountain" PP2 "Estrela Landscape diversity" PP3 "Geology and human occupation" PP4 "The Water in the Estrela" PP5 | PP5 | 2 days "From the Rocks to life in Serra da Estrela" PP6 | 2 days "Tourism and space consumption" PP7 | 2 days "The geography of Estrela: relief and human occupation PP8 "The marks of the last glaciation" PP9 "The Zêzere Glacier Valley" PP10 | 2 days "A trip through the Serra da Estrela glacial PP11 | 2 days "Geodiversity in Serra da Estrela"

(Source: Associação Geopark Estrela - AGE, 2018)

The different pedagogical routes allow, in an integrated approach to the territory and guided by the learning references established by the Ministry of Education, for the different study cycles to establish a direct link with science, with the local communities, and with the resources for tourism and associated practices. In this context, training processes are articulated among science, geoconservation, and tourism in an engaging way, in a logic of outdoor learning, so that participants experience raised awareness about heritage values, present activities, environmental concerns, and the geoconservation of Serra da Estrela. Public disclosure of the geosciences only benefits when direct and indirect relationships are established, whether with biodiversity, culture, or other aspects of daily life.

In the approach to tourism and concerns with its sustainability, different interpretations are established, with transversal character and levels of conceptualization, according to the different cycles, in a process of coherence with the curricular goals and looking for an evolutionary systematization of the issues related to resources and tourist infrastructure, leisure, and heritage. At the level of basic education students, management and sustainability of resources, impacts of tourism, and sustainable development are addressed. For secondary education, analyses and reflections on tourism and spatial planning, environmental policies, and their relationship with tourism are promoted, as well as new opportunities for the rural world (Table 3).

Table 3. Structuring of tourist content in pedagogical routes according to the different levels of education

1st and 2nd cycle of Basic Education	3rd Cycle of Basic Education	Secondary education
Tourism and local environment	**Tourism and sustainability**	**Tourism and land use planning**
- Identify tourist attraction factors (beaches, natural parks, spas, monuments); - Recognize tourist infrastructure and equipment in the region (hotels, campsites, restaurants); - Discuss advantages and disadvantages of tourism for development; - Reflect on leisure and tourism activities in the Serra da Estrela region; - Promote the preservation of heritage and the importance of protected areas.	- Sustainable resource management; - Natural resources and uses. - Classification and forms of exploitation; - Nature protection and conservation (Protected Areas); - Main tourist products and associated practices; - Main impacts of tourism; - Sustainable development in tourism and development.	- Environmental enhancement and protected areas; - New opportunities for rural areas; - Cultural heritage and ecocultural value of landscapes; - Tourism and territorial enhancement; - Environmental policies and tourism. - Tourism and territorial cohesion in mountain areas

(Source: Authors elaboration)

In terms of education and sustainability in tourism, the Estrela Geopark, with the development of these pedagogical routes, promotes:

1. An approach to local communities and territorial enhancement in connection with municipalities;
2. The development of protocols with all the schools in the dissemination of Estrela Geopark;
3. The creation of didactic materials to support visits and definition of routes;
4. Development of interpretive panels for visitors to Estrela Geopark;
5. Promotion of congresses and training courses aimed at teachers, educators, and researchers;
6. Development of the Education and Science Network for Sustainability in conjunction with higher education institutions, research centres, and the school community;
7. Technical monitoring of tourist and study visits and awareness of sustainable practices.

These activities, adapted to different groups and ages, include recreational actions dedicated to geodiversity (educational games, photography, contests) and more formal initiatives such as field classes, workshops, seminars, and/or laboratory activities that promote multidisciplinarity (Table 4). In this way, aspects of biodiversity, culture, and ways of life in the region are integrated, promoting a broad and rigorous knowledge of Serra da Estrela and raising awareness of sustainable tourist appropriation of its resources. The most efficient way to achieve geoconservation is to increase public awareness about the value of geo-heritage sites (scientific, aesthetic, educational, tourism, economic, intrinsic) through promotion and interpretation via geotourism (Burek & Prosser, 2008; Hose, 1995, 2008, 2012; Hose & Vasiljevic, 2012).

Scientific research, courses, and use of the geosciences in activities for groups and finally geotourism are activities that require a decreasing amount of scientific transfer but, conversely, provide more economic benefits and possibilities for development and well-being for the communities (Meléndez et al., 2011). The arrival of tourists can, in effect, promote the construction of access infrastructures, hotels, restaurants, tourist facilities, marketing products, and souvenir trade.

In a process of collaboration and stimulation of entrepreneurial actions for the enhancement of the Serra da Estrela destination, the Estrela Geopark operates to integrate the interactive processes between local governance and territory management; population and economic activities, schools and the scientific community, and nature conservation and local ways of life. It seeks to contribute to a transversal qualification of the territory and its communities, with the effective participation of municipalities in the development of strategies and promotion of heritage resources, in a close relationship with nature conservation plans, policies and an involvement of the communities.

Estrela Geopark has promoted synergistic conjugations between nature and mountain lifestyles, conservation and economic activities and governance and the academic community, generating collaborative networks and building a territory of science, education and tourism (Fig. 5). Study interests are established or renewed on the territory, its resources and current dynamics, from a perspective of applied research and knowledge transfer to society. They constitute cooperative approaches that foster self-esteem and a qualified image of the territory and the various resources it holds. These combinations have received leverage, stimulus and financial support from management/governance entities in the realization of events, dissemination of local products and the enhancement of tourism. The growing participation of entities responsible for nature protection and biodiversity conservation is developed through the elaboration of interpretative panels, placement of signs, support for training actions and collaborations in tourism projects and valorisation of natural resources (geological, water, forest), promoting their approximation to local communities. The economic activities recognize the role of the geopark and are part of a network of partners that benefit from the various initiatives promoted, recognize the stimulus given to tourism and the international valorisation of the destination Serra da Estrela by UNESCO classification. The link with the academy emphasizes the role of research and training, with courses, integration in school projects, development of applied master theses. The promotion of informal learning contexts and their relevance in the qualification of different publics and generating territorial valorisation, with emphasis on training in the area of tourism, should be highlighted. A network of 36 local partners has been established. Educational and indoor and outdoor training projects were developed with 37 schools/groupings of basic and secondary education and 4 institutions of higher education. By the end of 2019, 97 training courses had been held involving a total of 5384 participants.

The routes that make up the Estrela Geopark educational programmes allow participants to get in direct contact with the natural environment, where they can get to know the geosites, understand the geological history of the territories, interpret the landscape and ways of life, and experience walks and leisure activities.

The current dynamic, due to the involvement of the actors, their availability and recognition of the value of cooperative work, constitutes a process of rapprochement and the creation of collaborative networks, which translates into an increase in territorial, educational and organisational skills, promoting connections and synergies. In the field of tourism, they provide an in-depth knowledge of the resources and associated tourist products, an increasing participation of communities in the valuation and geocon-

Table 4. Systematization of activities, goals, and results of the education and awareness process for geoconservation and geotourism

Activities	*Goals*	*Results*
a) Approach to local communities and territorial enhancement in connection with municipalities	- Promote a collective development strategy; - Create synergistic connections between the territory and the communities -Promote events of territorial promotion and valorisation of endogenous resources.	- Construction of a collective strategy for valuing geo-resources and promoting the territory by the 9 municipalities, materialized in the UNESCO Global Geopark application and in the AGE's activities plan; - Development of collective development strategies supported by commune projects; - Promotion of local products and tourism through the diverse "Mountain Markets" and attendance at fairs and events related to tourism; - Promotion of entrepreneurship and territorial innovation through thematic seminars developed in the municipalities;
b) Development of protocols with groups of schools and professional schools in the dissemination of Estrela Geopark and geosciences	- Foster the connection of school communities with the actions of Geoparak (educational, scientific and touristic); - Promote the territori as a learning resource; - Stimulate the teaching of geosciences and the construction of projects;	- Creation of educational plans / projects with schools and school groups; - Implementation of the "mother earth" contests for good practices in geoconservation and biodiversity; - Dissemination of geoscience and geo-education through educational programs, interpretive paths and guided study visits.
c) Creation of didactic materials to support visits and definition of routes	- Promote the dissemination of the geopark and its resources; - Create information materials in different formats about the geopark and its heritage; - Stimulate visitation, knowledge of resources and good practices in geoconservation and geotourism.	- Creation of promotional videos about the territory and its endogenous resources; - Development of didactic leaflets; - Participation in technical, didactic and scientific events; - Lectures at Schools and Universities; - Dissemination of studies in national and international journals.
d) Development of interpretive panels for visitors	- Promote informative supports for the visit and interpretation of the Estrela Geopark territory; - Promote geosciences and ecocultural resources in the territory	- Placement of 24 panels to interpret the geossites and landscapes of the territory; - Geopark interpretive and dissemination leaflets with scientific illustrations; - Brochures on tourist routes and formats.
e) Promotion of congresses and training courses aimed at teachers, educators and researchers	- Encourage research and development of applied studies; - Promote thematic courses, seminars and workshops; - Stimulate the knowledge and appreciation of resources to be allocated to tourism.	- Organization of international scientific congresses: 3MG; - Promotion of thematic workshops (1 per municipality); - Development of workshops and seminars on tourism and sustainability, communication, …
f) Development of an Education and Science network in conjunction with higher education institutions, research centres and the school community	- Promotes projects to qualify the territory and protect ecosystems and late life styles - Develop scientific collaboration partnerships with IEs and CR&D; - Encourage studies on the territory, development of good geoconservation practices.	- Establishment of a Research Network applied to the territory; - Promotion of research with schools; - Allocation of R&D scholarships; - Opening of the Torre Interpretation Centre and the Penhas Douradas Meteorological Observatory
g) Technical monitoring of tourist and study visits and awareness of sustainable practices	- Promote a guided interpretation of the landscape and geo-resources; - Promote the territory as a natural laboratory and didactic resource; - Raising awareness of sustainable tourism practices; - Foster initiatives for new tourism products and services.	- Programming and monitoring visits with interpretation guided by AGE technicians; - Promotion of geosciences in the process of outdoor learning; - Disclosure of tourist resources and associated good practices; - Stimulate investment in tourism by promoting seminars and workshops

(Source: Authors elaboration)

Figure 5. Conceptual structure of collaborative actions and the process of valuing the territory and qualifying communities
(Source: Authors elaboration)

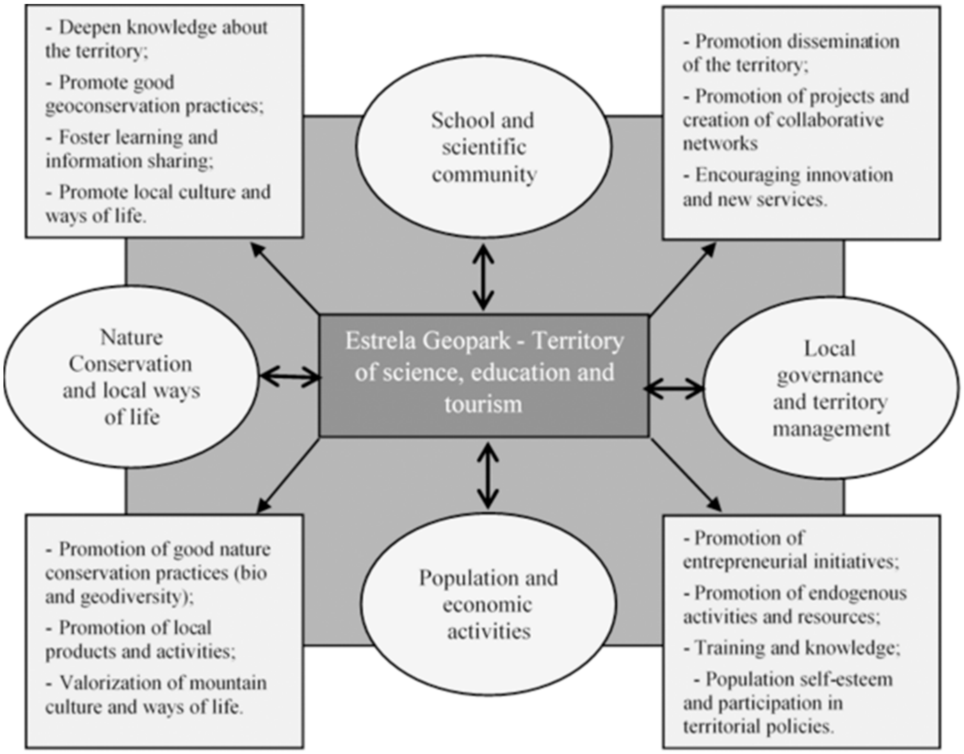


Figure 6. Outdoor learning activities, with schools from the local community and gathering of groups in formation in the area of geotourism
(Source: AGE – Associação Geopark estrela)

servation, and an increase of capacities and qualifications on the development of sustainable tourism and entrepreneurship activities.

Geo-heritage may also play an educational role in society so as to raise awareness about the extent of the influence of geological forms and processes on our history. The strategies promoted in a diversified way allow the construction of collaborative networks, which support collective strategies for the preservation, education, and promotion of tourism.

CONCLUSION

The Estrela Geopark fosters the development of an integrated development strategy, coupled with geoconservation, education, and tourism, supporting the construction of value and sustainability strategies for the well-being of the community. The implementation of a strategy of this nature, supported by scientific criteria and the creation of a Science and Education Network for Sustainability in conjunction with the Estrela Geopark, allows for a deeper knowledge of the territory transversally, enhancing the connection between sources of knowledge and the communities. The active articulation with the municipalities and the schools allows the monitoring of interventions, to adapt joint strategies and to promote sustainability initiatives in the appropriation of this mountain territory as well as sustainable development. The improvement of living conditions, and the generation of employment, are social-economic benefits for the inhabitants of this region; therefore, such initiatives are undertaken willingly. Education is essential to stimulate the sense of belonging, in relation to the territory and the natural and cultural heritage that it contains, thus contributing to its conservation. In this way, geotourism assumes a fundamental role in sustainable local development, whereas leisure activities can involve environmental education. Estrela Geopark also promotes cultural heritage; therefore, it provides us with a possibility to combine knowledge of nature sciences, the humanities, and the social sciences as part of geo-heritage.

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Chapter 17
Overtourism in Coastal Territories in the Perspective of Cruise Tourism:
The Role of Human Capital

Mónica Morais de Brito
University of Évora, Portugal & CEGOT, Portugal

ABSTRACT

This chapter aims to highlight the role of human capital linked to tourism in its multiple dimensions—host community, tourism professionals, and visitors—in resolving or reducing the negative impacts of excess tourist demand in certain coastal territories, where cruise tourism is responsible for the annual arrival of thousands of visitors. Taking Lisbon as a case study, the author analyzes the relationship between quantity between residents and visitors arriving in the territories on cruise ships, the geographical position of the main tourist attractions in order to assess the degree of concentration of visitors, and evidence relating to reciprocal behaviour and attitudes between visitors and visitors, based on the Doxey Irritability Index.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an activity made by people and oriented to people. The quality of the touristic experience is strongly conditioned by how host communities welcome visitors and by the generosity they show when sharing local tangible and intangible heritage. The tourists' profile has been changing over time and today they are increasingly privileging experiences of proximity to local communities, experiences marked by the authenticity, genuineness and uniqueness of strongly preserved cultures and identities. The uniqueness and quality of these relationships are also related to their scale. When in the so called "invaded" territories there is an unbalanced relationship between residents and visitors' antibodies can be generated in hosting communities compromising the quality of the touristic experience for both. This process tends to be accentuated when visitors assume behaviours that conflict with local habits and culture.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch017

The increasing numbers of tourism on a global scale and the perspective that this trend will remains in the near future, or even accentuate, clash with the interests of both parties involved in this relationship – tourists and host people - as they do not allow both to take advantages of their positive impacts. Instead of that, this fact can enhance its harmful effects, namely at the environmental and sociocultural levels. This will surely be one of the great challenges of the future of tourism: managing a growing demand for tourist destinations and enabling quality experiences that are compatible with the tourist profile and his expectations. In short, it is crucial to ensure sustainable tourism development by managing the human capital of tourism, bearing in mind that host populations are increasingly the main tourism resource in a territory and the tourism professionals are the front line in welcoming and well dealing with tourists. It is also important do not forget that visitors, in their quantitative but mainly behavioural dimensions, are fundamental premises for the healthy perpetuation of this relationship.

Overtourism is a direct consequence of uncontrolled and sometimes too fast tourism development that is not ruled by the values of sustainability. The unreasonable ambition of the territories and their managers blinds them to the potential for self-destruction that tourism has inside itself. The disrespect for the carrying capacity of tourism destinations, in its multiple dimensions, can culminate in extreme situations that jeopardize the quality of life of the host communities, the quality of the touristic experience of the visitors and the preservation and continuity of the cultural and natural resources. In coastal territories, where natural and infrastructural conditions permit Cruise Tourism, its impact, combined with that of all other tourism products, easily leads to overtourism situations.

Although the European Union's Blue Growth Strategy identifies maritime and coastal tourism - in which cruise tourism fits - as a product with high potential for sustainable employment and growth, playing a key role in building an intelligent and inclusive Europe, countless examples highlight the darker side of some destinations' success. Cities like Venice, Dubrovnik, Barcelona, or Lisbon, are port of call for big cruises, which means tourist demand situations that strongly threats the sustainability of these destinations and generates feelings of dislike expressed publicly and ostensibly. These situations often force governments to implement legal measures to deal with such an uncontrolled demand of these territories by the tourism sector. With the technical and technological developments applied to passenger ships, some of them currently present themselves as real floating cities, carrying over than 5,000 tourists. One of the best examples is Royal Caribbean's Symphony of the Seas, which has capacity to receive 5,518 passengers and ranks number one in the world's largest cruises that visit territories in a time and space-focused manner.

Host communities, tourism professionals and visitors are a key trilogy in preventing overtourism or mitigating its damage, especially in those cases where tourism demand far exceeds the sustainability of the receiving territories. The management of human capital for sustainable tourism involves a behavioural component regarding attitude and interpersonal relationships, but also includes knowledge and innovation, two other inseparable factors of human capital within the tourism constellation. In the particular case of Cruise Tourism, local communities should be prepared to be 'invaded' by a very large number of visitors who travel for a relatively short time in a confined space. In cases such as Barcelona and Lisbon we are talking about cities that have numerous tourist attractions deconcentrated in space and in which through a good articulation between the territory managers and the local tour operators can be ensured a controlled dispersion of visitors in time and space. However, in other cases like Venice or Dubrovnik the size of the cities and the concentration of attractions inevitably lead to the concentration of tourists with the consequences that this entails.

The aim of this paper is to analyse the state of the art of overtourism in coastal territories, where cruise tourism is in high demand, and to study in particular the case of Lisbon, assessing the size and impact of this tourism product. We also aim to analysing the role of human capital in the prevention and management of overtourism by analysing the policies and practices recommended for this destination.

Based on the case study methodology, we analyse the quantitative relationship between visitors and residents, particularly using information on cruise tourists; we also signalling the geographical position of tourist attractions in order to assess the concentration/dispersion of visitors; we analyse the evidence of overtourism in some places of Lisbon by using available information; and, finally, we make an analysis of the policies and practices in Lisbon concerning the management of human capital involved in tourism: host community, tourism professionals and visitors.

The whole work is developed on the premise that overtourism is a phenomenon whose main causes and consequences are related to the human capital of tourism, its management, but especially the imbalance between its different dimensions. Despite the size of the territories, their heritage characteristics and their infrastructural conditions may be important factors on this purpose, people is the main actors in both their occurrence and their resolution. On the other hand, local populations and their displeasure are the main indicators of overtourism in a given destination; it is the behaviour of the visitors that contributes to catalyse or mitigate quantitative imbalances; it is tourism professionals who directly or indirectly forces policies and practices that prevent it, mitigate it, or manage damage when the preventive logic does not override the reactive logic.

BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE: CONCEPTS AND REALITY

The Tourism and the Overtourism and (Now) the Under Tourism

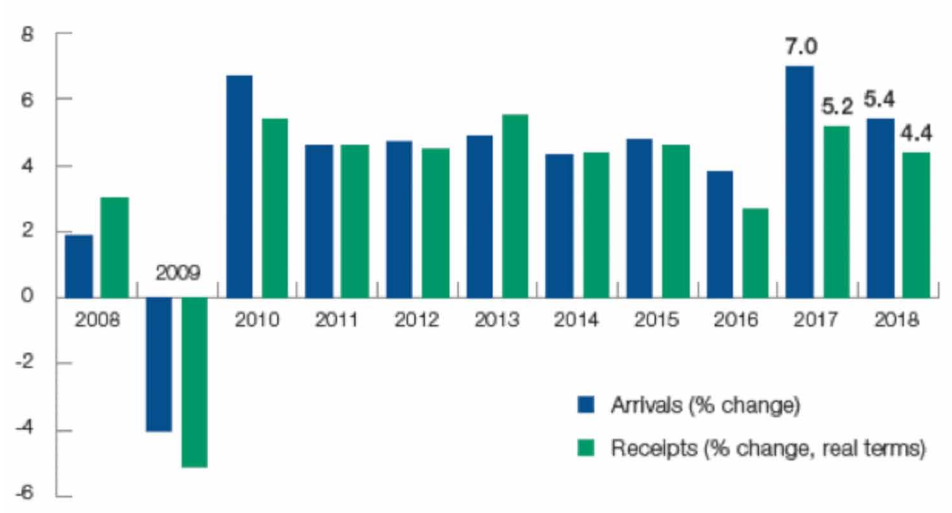
On a global scale, the dominant note in tourism is growth. As in other places in the terrestrial globe, this fact is a reality in Lisbon, both in the number of visitors and in the revenue generated. At the global level, we have seen a significant and progressive increase in Tourism. According to the WTO projections until 2030 (Figure 2) this is a behaviour that will tend to be maintained, although occasionally marked by negative variations, such as the one that occurred in 2009, resulting from the economic crisis triggered in the USA in 2007 (Figure 1) and as the one that is currently felt as a result of the epidemic caused by the new coronavirus (COVID-19).

Currently, and according to the UNWTO (2018), Tourism generates, worldwide, one in ten jobs and is the third export sector, being only supplanted by the chemical and the oil industries, but overtaking already the automotive industry and the food industry (UNWTO, 2019).

Tourist territories, or those with a tourist vocation, perceive this sector and its behaviour as an opportunity to develop the economy and promote the quality of life of its population, and for this reason, its leaders have been defining policies and promoting practices, namely in terms of promotion and marketing, with a view to stimulating continuous growth, preferably more and more accentuated, but at the risk of obesity killing the "golden goose".

This unbalanced growth, regardless of the destinations' carrying capacity, in its multiple dimensions (biophysical, social, psychological and response capacity), results in numerous negative impacts, namely of an environmental and social nature, generating antibodies in the receiving communities against the "invaders" and compromising the quality of the tourist experience of visitors and the quality of life of

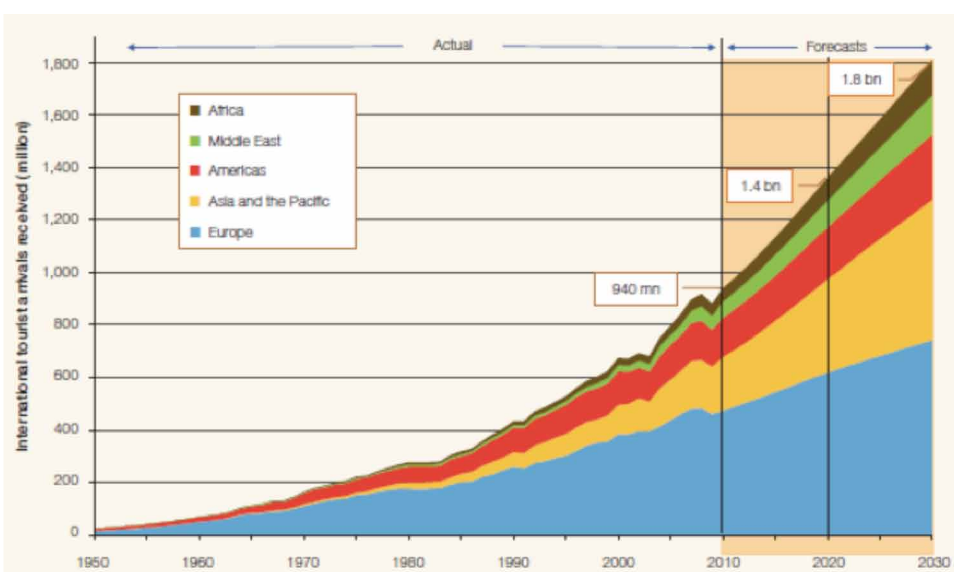
Figure 1. International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts - % change (UNWTO,2019)
Source: UNWTO, 2019:3



the host community. Thus, the social phenomenon called overtourism appears, especially in destinations that stand out exceptionally for the quality and differentiation of their offer, whether natural or cultural (Sarantakou & Terkenli, 2019).

The concept of overtourism is defined by Milano *et al.* (2018) as an excessive growth of visitors that leads to a massive agglomeration of people in a given area, where residents begin to suffer the consequences of tourism spikes whether temporary or seasonal. These spikes mean that residents are

Figure 2. Tourism towards 2030: actual trends and forecast 1960-2030 (UNWTO, 2016)
Source: UNWTO, 2016:14



forced to change their lifestyle. Goodwin (2017) adds that overtourism has a double perspective: that of residents, when they perceive that there is an excessive number of visitors; and that of visitors when they feel uncomfortable with their pairs, when they perceive the tangible and intangible deterioration of the territories, and feel a more or less manifest lack of hospitality in the residents.

According to De Marchi & Manente (2019), although the term overtourism is relatively new, the phenomenon itself has been a target of concern and research for many years. Studies have explored the pressure of tourism on cities and local communities since the 1970s of the 20th century, referred by Boissevain (1977) and Williams (1979) and on the saturation of destinations and the carrying capacity since the 80s of the same century, as pointed out by Butler (1980), UNWTO (1983) and Costa (1988). However, it is only more recently that some areas have assumed a worrying dimension, above all because of the clear manifestations of antagonism of the local populations.

It is a global and quite complex problem, despite the simplistic view of some, namely government officials, who insist on a biased blindness on its impacts on the quality of life of the local population, on the environment and, also, on the continuity of the tourism itself which, as mentioned in Brito & Silva (2005), is an activity that is characterized by a strong potential for self-destruction. Due to less responsible tourism, protests and social movements began to emerge in Southern Europe, which led to the creation of some organizations against Tourism, such as the Assembly of Neighborhood for Sustainable Tourism (ABTS) and the Network of Southern European Cities (SET), which aim to fight overtourism and the impact it has on local residents (Milano *et al*., 2018).

Currently, overtourism is understood as an urban phenomenon, although it is known that many natural areas are facing an increasing number of tourists. This is because the main indicator of overtourism is the displeasure expressed by the local population, consequently where there are no people supported by political interests to speak out against the situation, the problem remains unrecognized (Goodwin, 2017).

According to Capocchi *et al.* (2019), and although its definition is in an embryonic state and there is not exactly a pattern that characterizes the phenomenon, overtourism stems from the growth that tourism has had in recent decades, and is related to the concentration of people flows in various tourist destinations, with the governance model of the tourist phenomenon and, in particular, with the combination of these two premises. With regard to growth, in addition to the greatness of the numbers, the massification of tourist destinations and the "imitation effect" that leads the emerging economies to adopt the behaviours of Western economies must be taken into account. The growth and massification of tourist flows determined the concentration of arrivals in some tourist destinations, causing concentrations that raise issues in terms of carrying capacity and environmental sustainability. Last but not least, the issue of governance is considered in relation to the resources of the territories and relations with carriers and technologies.

With regard, in particular, to the issue of governance, governments, when face negative impacts of the growth of tourism, try to convey an image of impotence and weakness, even though the management of infrastructures (construction of public and private licensing), that is of their competence, is one of the solutions to reduce demand flows. The economic benefits associated with the taxation (taxes, fees ...) of activities linked to tourism, make the problems arising from overtourism secondary, with a great public effort to attract an increasing number of international visitors (Goodwin, 2017).

Reactions to overtourism vary according to its intensity, but also with the host communities' permeability to their impacts and the attitude of the governments. Table 1 identifies three distinct levels of reaction. It is clear that there is a set of destinations where the population has already publicly expressed its antagonism towards visitors. On the other hand, there are governments that have already taken measures to solve the problem or at least mitigate it, but in most destinations, although the problem is already identified, there is still passivity from the government and local communities. Portugal, and consequently Lisbon, falls within this group, as if there are manifestations of overtourism they occur in the capital city and, eventually, in the city of Porto.

Table 1. overtourism management strategies (Goodwin, 2017:14)

Public Protests	Government taking action	Issue raised
• Barcelona • Venice • San Sebastian • Berlin • Palma, Mallorca • Iceland	• Iceland • Seoul • Cinque Terre • Dubrovnik • Amsterdam	• Scotland: Edinburgh, Orkney & Skye • Italy: Florence Palermo Capri • Ireland • Balearics • England • Halong Bay • Rio de Janeiro • Peru • Portugal • USA • Cuba • China • Everest • Prague • Croatia • Crete

The intensity of the reactions to overtourism, namely by the host communities, leads us to the Irridex Model, developed by Doxey (1975) and revisited by other authors, more and more frequently, since it has never been as current as today. In seeking to analyse the relationships between host people and visitors in locations with a large flow of tourists from the Developed World, Doxey conceived a model to measure host communities' irritation towards visitors. This model seeks more specifically to identify and explain the cumulative effects of tourism development on social relations and the evolution of changing attitudes of the local population of a destination towards tourists.

This author identifies four behavioural phases of the population of a tourist destination in relation to its visitors. At first, the population receives tourists and investors with enthusiasm and euphoria. In this phase tourism is viewed with optimism. Then, the community begins to feel the pressure of demand to improve and diversify the offer, and the contact between residents and visitors becomes more formal. Residents have a more apathetic attitude and tourism is seen only as a business to get money. From the moment that the tourist flow increases to the point of causing changes in the community such as congestion or price increases, the tolerance of the host community decreases and evidence of irritation begins to be noticed. In an extreme situation, when the costs exceed the benefits, in its multiple dimensions, clear manifestations of antagonism begin to appear, contributing to denigrate the image of the destination and, consequently, to put visitors away. These four levels (euphoria, apathy, irritation and antagonism), which are conditioned by the characteristics of the host communities and visitors, with regard to race, culture, nationality, religion, among others, translate into "levels of irritation" the reactions that tourism triggers the populations of the territories visited (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Aires, 2011).

Therefore, at this moment, no territory is protected from excess demand, not least because the tourist profile is constantly changing and, consequently, the demand trends as well. If we analyse international demand from the perspective of large tourist regions, the relative loss of prominence of the regions traditionally most sought after to the detriment of the others is noticeable. The most exotic destinations, at an early stage of their life cycle, with a higher degree of preservation and less tourist development and, therefore, providing more exclusive and differentiated experiences, are the ones that are currently most valued, to the detriment of the most widespread, accessible to almost everyone and, consequently, less sought after, even though they are widely visited, because they are also more accessible, both in terms of accessibility and costs.

However, the greatest evidence of overtourism occurs in mature destinations, which are in advanced stages of the Life Cycle of the Tourist Destination, according to the model developed by Butler (1980), which remains a very current reference in the analysis and evaluation of destinations tourism, namely from the perspective of assessing their impacts on the various dimensions of tourist territories or with a tourist vocation. This model follows a basic asymptotic curve, inspired by the product cycle concept, in which sales occur slowly at the beginning, show a rapid growth rate, stabilize and then decline. In the case of tourist destinations, in a first phase, visitors arrive in a small number, conditioned by the poor accessibility, infrastructure and equipment and by the local culture (exploration phase). With the increase in accommodation and other services, demand tends to grow (involvement phase). Promotion and marketing, and increased supply, contribute to the rapid growth of the destination's popularity (development phase). However, the rate of growth in the number of visitors may decrease as the carrying capacity is reached (consolidation phase). As the attractiveness of the territory decreases in relation to other destinations, due to excessive use and its impacts, the number of visitors may decrease (stagnation), after which the destination may decline or rejuvenate according to the competence of the government to innovate. and reinventing fate (Butler, 1980). It is at the stages of consolidation and stagnation when a critical level is reached in relation to the different dimensions of the carrying capacity (biophysical, social, psychological and response capacity) that we are faced with a situation of overtourism, manifested, namely, through the antagonism of populations and environmental impacts, among others.

Milano (2017, *apud* Serafin *et al.*, 2018: 375) pragmatically defines the impacts of overtourism, blaming it for problems such as: "the loss of feeling of belonging and sense of place of the locals; the increase in congestion and privatization of public spaces; property speculation; the decline in the purchasing power parity of residents *versus* tourists; and the dismantling of sociocultural connectivity (...)". These factors contaminate the relationship between the hosts and the visitors, decreasing their predisposition to hospitality and perceiving tourism as a negative force, which, while generating revenue for some, compromises the quality of life for all.

Overtourism can also refer to a situation of excessive dependence on tourism by the territories. While not denying the importance of this sector on a global scale, as previously mentioned, namely in terms of job creation, the danger associated with an economy strongly dependent on a single sector, whatever it may be, is not to be overlooked. This is an extremely important issue today, when the world is in a crisis of which the end or all the consequences are not yet known

The pandemic originating from the new Coronavirus, which started in China in December 2019, and which quickly reached practically all countries of the world, infecting millions of people and causing the death of many thousands, came to show the weaknesses of the capitalism, but also the extreme exposure of tourism to natural and anthropic disasters. In the past, other crises, such as the September 11th of 2001 terrorist attacks in the USA, the tsunami that hit Southeast Asia in December 2004, the

"Arab Spring" in the Middle East and North Africa from 2010, have warned for this situation, through its impacts. However, these were catastrophes, more or less localized, which contributed to redirect tourist flows, but which did not have a major impact on the number of international trips, although the growth rates may have been lower. What we are currently experiencing is an unprecedented situation, also with regard to tourism, in which international and domestic demand has practically ceased to exist, in which there is no forecast for its recovery, and in which economic and social impacts will be deferred. in time, and from which the world will take time to recover.

Tourist destinations, some of which were confronted with the challenges arising from overtourism, are nowadays faced with the consequences of "undertourism". A completely new situation, as tourism has been showing increasing global behaviour for many decades, albeit mixed by some (small) negative inflections, in which the role of human capital linked to tourism is fundamental in the course of the crisis, but especially when it ends, when tourist territories have to reinvent themselves to recover their demand, but above all to rethink their offer based on the learning that these events will bring to global society and also to tourism.

In short, several social, cultural and economic changes have, over time, encouraged and fostered the growth of tourism, in a model in which concerns with planning, spatial planning and sustainability were mainly part of the theoretical discourse, and in which tourist flows were dictated by wills and fashions, without any orientation that would push tourism demand balance. Some territories, especially the urban ones, which, due to their characteristics, have received increasing attention from an increasing number of tourists, are today faced with the unpleasantness of an excess that they can hardly control.

But today, perhaps, we are about to face a new and unexpected challenge, that of moving from overtourism to "under tourism" with its unpredictable consequences in terms of economic and social impact, namely with regard to employment, but also with regard to a necessary change of mentality and the very conception of tourism development.

The Overtourism Associated with Cruise Tourism

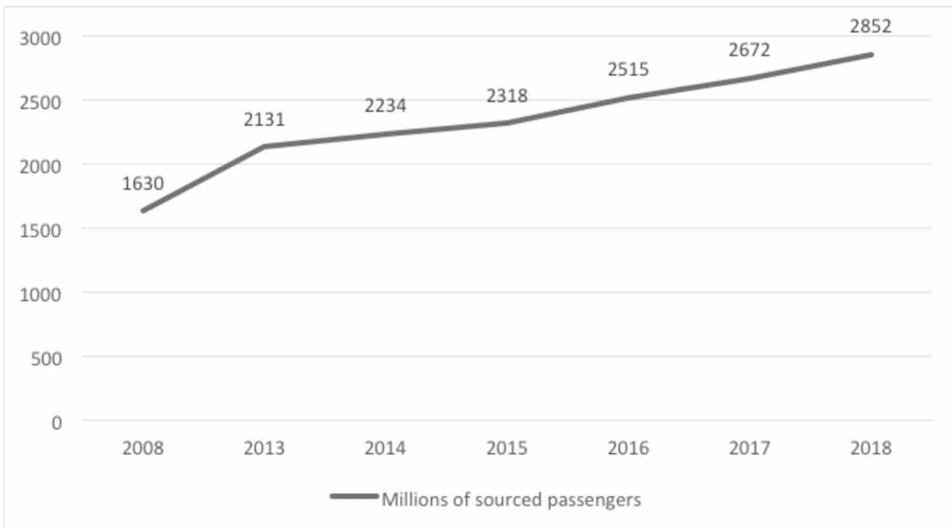
The concept of "cruises" was invented in 1844 by the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company (P&O), the first shipping company that organized boat trip between England and Egypt. Then, in the 1870's, transatlantic lines were created between Europe and the Unites States (the British P&O, the White Star Line, the French Transat and the American Cunard). Cruises were then symbol of luxury and prestige. Modern maritime cruising was only known during the 60's, with the development of air traffic, therefore, cruises became more affordable.

According to Peručić & Puh (2012: 214) "cruise tourism has become a mass phenomenon and increasingly more passengers worldwide are choosing this form of vacation. In comparison with international tourism, the world cruise industry is showing pronounced dynamic growth. Characterized by a constant evolution, the demand for cruises is growing day by day, making cruise tourism a mass tourism".

The growth and prominence of Cruise Tourism "brings many benefits to home ports, ports of call and coastal regions". Positive impacts of cruise industry on visited ports have been noticed. Significant economic impact in port regions, cities and countries, positive promotion of ports/cities, significant number of jobs generated by the cruise industry, cruising is an important vehicle for sampling destination areas to which passengers may return on a land-based vacation However, they also analysed negative impacts of cruise industry on visited ports. Overcrowded ports and tourist attractions that can have negative influences on land-based tourism and the quality of life of the local inhabitants, environmental impact on port regions and on a more general basis on Europe as a whole, growth has led to capacity issues in ports, surrounding port regions, and tourist attractions (Peručić & Puh, 2012:15).

According to the CLIA - Cruise Line International Association (2019:5), international demand for this product has increased 74.9% in a decade, from 1 630 million to 2 852 million passengers (Figure 3), which reflects the growing trend of this product tourism, but also, in absolute numbers, its representativeness on a global scale.

Figure 3. International Demand for Cruises, 2008 to 2018 (CLIA, 2019)



In fact, the idea that Cruise Tourism is a mass tourism product is endorsed by several authors such as Cooper *et al.* (2011). The largest cruise ships in the world have a capacity for more than six thousand passengers (such as the aforementioned “Symphony of the Seas”), which means that their scale at certain destinations represents a strong increase in demand in a short period of time whose impacts are enhanced by the geographic concentration of visitors. When, in certain ports, several ships moor simultaneously, this means an avalanche of visitors, more specifically of excursionists, whose negative impacts tend to largely outweigh the positive ones. We are dealing with organized groups, which carry out pre-defined circuits and whose consumption is directed by tour operators, with no equitable distribution by the community. There is no overnight stay, so even in destinations where there is a tourist tax it is paid. Eventually, there will be consumption of meals and some local products as souvenirs, and impulse buying may be a factor in favour of local merchants. In an objective way, this tourist product has a positive impact on the port authorities, to which they pay the fees for mooring the ships, the local operators articulated with the main operator and who make tourist visits on land possible, and eventually some (few) commercial establishments, the negative impacts on pollution, on the quality of life of local populations, among others, are significantly higher.

The Capital Human in Tourism: What is Role to Management the Overtourism

Let us emphasize again the idea that Tourism is an activity made by people and for people. This premise turns human capital into the main determining factor in the competitiveness of tourist destinations, whatever their level of development and the quantitative relationship between supply and demand. However, in destinations that face excessive demand and its negative impacts, this dimension assumes particular importance, namely in terms of management and mitigation.

According to Brito (2015:44), the analysis of human capital from the perspective of Tourism "leads us to three distinct dimensions: the receiving community, as host, tourism professionals and tourists, as consumers, but also a carrier of values and attitudes. Whatever the approach taken, tourism and human capital are in a circular relationship, as sustainable tourism development requires qualified human resources, with appropriate behavioural and technical skills, populations available to play the role of hostesses and tourists with a positive and sustainable attitude. Only by fulfilling these requirements, the sector will contribute to the creation of jobs and wealth, still playing a more decisive role in the economic and social development of regions with a tourist vocation, and, consequently, for the quality of life of people".

In a context of overtourism, host communities are the voice of displeasure against excess demand, emphasizing their negative impacts and conveying to oblivion all their contribution to the development of the territory, in a more or less radical attitude expressed through antagonism more or less manifest through words and actions. Visitors, due to the quantity, but also their attitudes and behaviours, are the cause of overtourism, being decisive in the reactions they provoke in the host communities. Tourism professionals are the front line that, in practice, although in solidarity with the local populations, to which they often belong, they feel contractually obliged to provide a quality service, also in defence of their interests that relate to the maintenance of their jobs.

The World Code of Ethics for Tourism, recognizing the importance of human capital in tourism and its development model, addresses, among other issues, the role that must be assumed by different stakeholders in order to contribute to the sustainability of tourist destinations, which can include the concern with situations of overtourism and contributing to its management. According to this document (art. 1, n.º 6), the responsible tourist is one who is concerned with the trip in order to find out about the characteristics of the country he is going to visit in terms of geographical characteristics, climate, sanitary and public health conditions, the existing fauna and flora, the form of social organization, religion and social practices, in order not to degrade the environment, but also to respect the indigenous and to minimize the risk to oneself. The role of tourist agents in asserting the responsible tourist is crucial, as it is up to him to provide the necessary information about the destination, including the host population, so that the tourist can adapt his posture and behaviour to the receiving environment (art. 6, paragraph 1). On the other hand, tourist agents must ensure that tourists are hospitable, for their safety (art. 1, n.º 3), and promote themselves, respect and environmental and cultural preservation (art. 6, paragraph 2). Local communities, for their part, must respect the tourists' ways of life, their cultural traits, tastes and expectations for welcoming hospitality (art. 1, n.º 3). The members of the receiving communities are one of the actors involved in the responsible and sustainable practice of tourism, so they must actively intervene in the defence of the quality of the tourism offer, both in the planning process and in the quality of the services provided.

The promotion and development of sustainable tourism is the only way to avoid situations of overtourism in certain territories, implying the existence of actors (visitors, visited people and tourism professionals) who see sustainability as the benchmark for their posture as active elements of the process. In the sustainability project for tourism, the fact that tourism activity and tourist behaviour are particularly permeable to psychological and social influences, to personal sensitivity and to short-term reactions must be continually considered, which is why it influences and convinces consumers to developing a sustainable mentality constitutes the appropriate approach to obtain sustainable consumption patterns and to propitiate changes in the product offer (European Commission, 2003). Ruschmann (1999) also highlights in his definition of sustainable tourism the fact that this presupposes the existence of more responsible and attentive tourists or visitors, who interact in a balanced way with the receiving communities, in the social, environmental and cultural field. Therefore, stimulating sustainable consumer thinking is a way to induce changes in the way in which tourism products are used. However, there is a time lag between the process of changing mentalities, which takes place over the long term, and the urgent need for sustainability in the tourism sector, especially in territories where there is unquestionable evidence of excess tourist demand.

The management of the people involved in Tourism is, therefore, essential to avoid overtourism, namely by limiting the number of visitors, but also, in existing situations, to manage its impacts without compromising the quality of life of residents and the image of the destinations. The host communities have a fundamental role, namely in managing their reactions and in communicating in a timely and assertive manner to government officials the discomfort regarding excess demand; visitors in assuming behaviours and attitudes that trigger antibodies in the host communities, and in their dispersion by attractions in order to avoid strong concentrations in certain points; tourism professionals mediating the relationship and managing conflicts and even encouraging internalization by each of the actors in the process.

THE CASE STUDY: LISBON

Cities, due to their characteristics, seem to be more prone to situations of overtourism, as they have a concentration of residents and economic activities in a geographic space of relatively small dimensions, which implies a more sustainable management in the compatibility between their tourist function and the its residential function.

Lisbon is a city that overflows with life, dynamism, culture and great open spaces to the community. Its geographical location bordering the Tagus estuary of overwhelming beauty, its mild climate, with more than 3300 hours of sunshine a year (almost nine hours a day), its cultural agenda, its gastronomy, and so many other irresistible attractions, they are more than valid reasons for a visit of a day, a week or a month ... Tour operators know this well, so they bet on this city as an important stopover for cruise ships. This has made Lisbon an increasingly sought after tourist destination, the result of a strong commitment to its international promotion, but also because it has been awarded, in recent years, several international awards, which have attracted more and more people from all over the world. According to a study by the American Platform Electronic System for Travel Authorization (ESTA), from the US Department of Homeland Security (https://esta.cbp.dhs.gov) Lisbon receives 129 tourists per 100 inhabitants.

Access to this territory is made by land, air and sea (river) and although this last route is not the main access route to Lisbon, it has been gaining prominence, either because Cruise Tourism, on a global scale, has been a product in growth, either because Portuguese public investment has favoured the construction and requalification of infrastructures at this level, namely in the new Lisbon Cruise Terminal, opened in 2017, and which represented an investment of more than €70 million, of which 53 million were public.

The European Parliament's Transport and Tourism Commission - ordered a study dedicated to analysing the impacts and possible responses of public policies to overtourism in the European Union, entitled "Research for TRAN Committee - Overtourism: impact and possible policy responses". Using the case study methodology, it analyses indicators related to overtourism, debates some management approaches applied in different destinations and assesses the political responses, concluding that a common set of indicators cannot be defined, due to the complex causes and effects of overtourism. The need to avoid excessive tourism requires the development of tailor-made policies, which result from cooperation between stakeholders and policy makers. Lisbon is one of the tourist destinations included in this study, being recognized for its inability to conciliate, in a harmonious way, the space, infrastructure and services between residents and visitors, which translates, among other impacts, into the exodus of residents, due to its progressive loss of purchasing power and gentrification (Peeters *et al.*, 2018).

The growth of tourism in Lisbon has contributed to expelling residents from many of its historic areas, due to real estate speculation aimed at transforming old residential properties into local accommodation (AL) (Ribeiro, 2017). Foreign tourists, with their different customs and ways of life and their understandable curiosity, invade the historic neighbourhoods and alter the routine of the local inhabitants, interfering in the local culture, with great socio-cultural impacts, resulting from the strong tourist demand (Almeida *et al.*, 2018) and generators of antagonistic behaviours by residents, with clear manifestations of "turismophobia" (Martins, 2018).

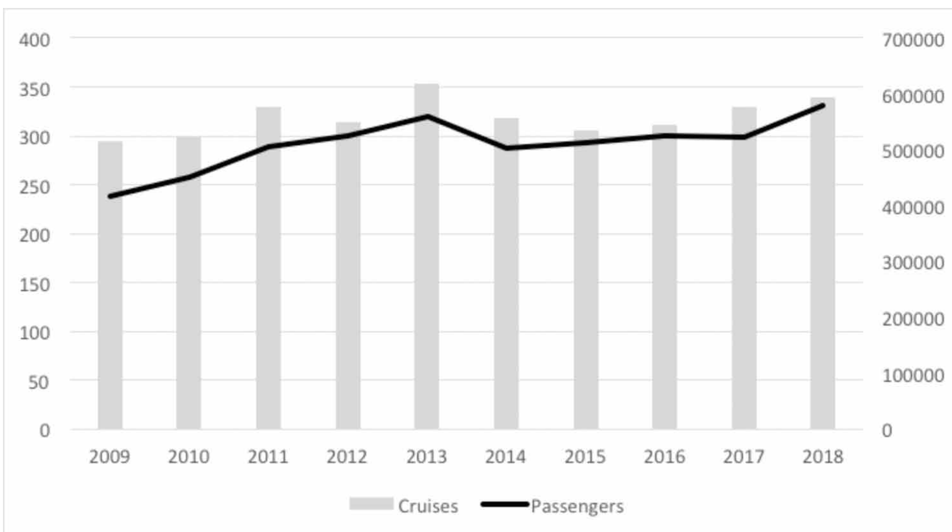
This tourist intensity, or tourist pressure, is measured by the relationship between the number of overnight stays in tourist accommodations and the number of residents in a given region. According to Tourism Statistics (INE, 2019), in 2018 the number of overnight stays in the metropolitan area of Lisbon was 7 542 400, with the number of residents in that same year being 2 846 332, which means a ratio of 2,65 guests per resident.

Figure 4. Guests in great Lisbon region 2018 (Statistics of Portugal, 2020)

In addition to the numbers previously presented, there is the number of visitors arriving in the city by cruises that berth at the Port of Lisbon, namely at the Lisbon Cruise Terminal, the Santa Apolónia Cruise Terminal and the Gares Marítimas da Rocha Conde de Óbidos and Alcântara, which currently has a capacity for about five/six vessels (depending on size of each one). According to the information available in the port of Lisbon administration website (https://www.portodelisboa.pt/portal/page/portal/PORTAL_PORTO_LISBOA), these cruise terminals are located next to the historic and cultural centre of the city, that provides visitors with quick and easy access to the places of greatest tourist influx. These infrastructures allow the Port of Lisbon to receive all types of ships, ensuring that they meet the internationally required security requirements.

The calculation of the relative variation of the two variables represented graphically in Figures 5 and 6, allows us to conclude that the number of passengers increased by 41,3%, between 2008 and 2018, significantly more than the number of cruise ships, which only increased by 15,3%. This growing dissonant trend allows us to infer that the Port of Lisbon receives cruise ships that are increasingly larger, which translates into the occurrence of a greater number of tourists to the city for each stopover.

Figure 5. Number of cruises and cruises' passengers in Lisbon 2009-2018 (Port of Lisbon, 2020)



The Lisbon Tourism Observatory, in conjunction with the Port of Lisbon Administration, has been conducting surveys of cruise ship passengers to characterize and profile the cruise passenger with a stopover in the Port of Lisbon and assess their level of satisfaction. The last edition is from 2018 and was based on information collected from a sample of 54 ships that made a stopover in Lisbon from April to November, having interviewed 1000 passengers. Thus, according to the Cruise Passenger Survey - 2018 (Observatório do Turismo de Lisboa, 2020) the majority of passengers take a guided tour purchased on board the ship (77,4%), having stayed on average 11h26min in Lisbon, and only about 5% spent the night in the capital, from where it is concluded that most fit the concept of excursionist.

These passengers spent an average of €18.88 during their passage through Lisbon, a much lower value compared to previous years, when the same value was around €49, and far from the data contained in the “2020 State of the Cruise 2020 Industry Outlook” which states that a cruise ship passenger, on board, spends an average of US $376 (about €339), and in scale, US $101 (€91) (CLIA, 2020:20). The components of this expense are essentially purchases (39,1%) and food (24,8%). Which allows us to conclude that one of the main, if not the only positive impact of this tourist product - the economic one - is, in Lisbon, far below the global averages, which means that the cost-benefit ratio is strongly compromised here, as if thinking about the environmental and sociocultural impact, and its contribution to excess demand, its relevance is doubtful.

In case these visitors are distributed geographically, their negative impact would be lower, however the passengers of these ships tend to concentrate, like other visitors, on the main attractions of the city of Lisbon: Alfama/Castelo/Mouraria (97,9%); Bairro Alto/Cais do Sodré (97,4%); Baixa/Chiado (97,2%); Parque das Nações (89,7%). Others, although less than those ones, make visits to other territories further away from the city, namely Cascais (65,1%), Cabo da Roca (61,4%) and Sintra (51,5%). To Óbidos (a stunning village located about 90 km northwards), goes 30,8% of these visitors, to Fátima (an important religious tourist attraction about 130 km northwards) goes 7,6% and to Serra da Arrábida (a natural park about 60 km southwards) goes up to 5,6%.

Figure 6. Some of the Lisbon’s main tourist attractions ((https://www.tripindicator.com/assets/bus-tours-route-map/lisbon-city-sightseeing-lisbon-hop-on-hop-off-bus-route-map.jpg, accessed in 15th April20)

A study made by the World Travel & Tourism Council and the consultancy JLL on overtourism worldwide warns that overtourism in cities can be dangerous when there is a risk of overloading infrastructures and services, such as transport, basic sanitation, trade, energy supply. Among the 68 cities analysed in this study, Lisbon is one of those where the risk of overload is high, partly due to the growing popularity of Portugal as a destination. According to data from the WTTC, Portugal is in the group of 20 world destinations that, together, receive almost two thirds of all international tourist arrivals. Even so, it is recognized that Lisbon, despite receiving more visitors, is also a city with well-established tourist infrastructure, which does not leave it free from future tensions related to the volume or activity of visitors (WTTC & JLL, 2019).

The demonstrations of the population against Tourism in Lisbon reveal, taking into account the Irritability Index, still a certain apathy, with no clear manifestations of antagonism, namely by the citizens in an individualized and ostensive way. However, social movements were created, such as "Morar em Lisboa", which, together with other local associations, denounced in January 2017, the excessive dependence on the local tourism economy and its impact on real estate speculation (http://moraremlisboa.org/).

On 18th and 19th of May 2018, social movements and neighbourhood associations from 16 destinations in southern Europe (Venice, Valencia, Seville, Pamplona, Palma de Mallorca, Malta, Malaga, Madrid, Lisbon, Florence, Ibiza, Girona, San Sebastian, Canarias, Camp de Tarragona and Barcelona) met in Barcelona at the Forum 'Reflections on tourism in Barcelona and southern Europe', from where the Southern European Cities Network against "Touristicization" was born (SET Network) (Peeters *et al.*, 2018). An event that reveals the discomfort of the local populations and their representatives and that materializes the antagonism, latent or evident, that exists in these destinations, regarding the excess of tourist demand.

According to Greg and Marques (2019), people from Lisbon are (still) very reserved. They have no demonstrations of evident antagonism, like other cities where residents do not shy away from anti-tourist manifestations and even acts of vandalism against the belongings of tourists, such is the case of Barcelona, Mallorca, Venice, among others. However, they do not hide their discomfort and concern regarding the excess of tourists that invade mainly some of the most typical and historic areas of the city, and express some of these feelings through a website http://www.lisboa-does-not-love.com/pt, available in Portuguese, English, French, Spanish, German, Polish and Italian. In this website some of the main disorders/impacts/consequences of excessive tourist demand are identified (tuk-tuks, large groups of visitors obstructing the streets, segways, artificial sights) and suggestions to visitors on how to behave can be left. Yet on this website, Cruises Tourism deserves particular attention, and in this respect the environmental impacts (noise, visual, water and air pollution) are mentioned. Finally, mention is also made of the fact that these tourists only generate business for large tour operators and large commercial areas (partners) to the detriment of small traders, even because they lack scale to serve the masses.

In short, Lisbon is an example in the numerous studies that have been developed on overtourism, which shows its exposure to risk in this context. Although the Cruise Tourism represents a small share of its tourist demand, its characteristics, the strong geographical concentration in a short period of time, and the fact that it seeks to concentrate mainly on places in the city that are also in high demand by other visitors (typical neighbourhoods like Alfama, Mouraria, Castelo or Bairro Alto) enhances its effects and imposes an effective management by this city, namely in terms of the human capital involved. The negative impacts, at present, are far outweigh the positive ones and, as we have seen, the revenues associated with this type of visitor in Lisbon are well below the world average. At this level, the most significant return should come from the fees that are paid to the Port of Lisbon Administration for berthing ships. The environmental and social impacts, as already mentioned, are numerous and intense, and it is essential to devise strategies that promote the sustainability of this tourist product, mitigating its negative impacts and increasing its contribution to the quality of life of residents.

HOW DO YOU MANAGE THE OVERTOURISM IN THE CAPITAL HUMAN PERSPECTIVE?

As already mentioned, tourism is an activity carried out by people and for people, so the control of its impacts will have to pass through the different dimensions of the human capital that compose it. In a study carried out by unwto with other partners, called "overtourism? - understanding and managing urban tourism growth beyond perceptions", which analysed cases such as amsterdam, barcelona, berlin, copenhagen, lisbon, munich, salzburg and tallinn, a set of measures is suggested to mitigate the impact of tourism in cities. The need to refer not only to the number of visitors and their behaviour is mentioned, but also to focus on local agents, so that the positive aspects of tourism remain visible and are understood by residents (unwto *et al.*, 2018).

In the same path, the recommendations of the study carried out for the European Parliament's Committee on Transport and Tourism, among others, fall on the human dimension of tourism, pointing to the need to debate the qualitative aspects of tourism to the detriment of placing the focus in the continuous growth of demand. Issues such as the economic return for the host communities, the generation of local employment and the remuneration levels of tourism professionals, should highlight the items of these concerns related to sustainable tourism development. The regular involvement of different local stakeholders, and particularly residents, in tourism planning and development processes, as well as support for monitoring the behaviours, attitudes and feelings of visitors and residents, in order to prevent the negative psychological and social impacts of tourism, are other warnings, in recognizing the relevance of human capital in tourism management, and particularly in overtourism (Peeters *et al.*,2018).

In our view, local agents include government officials (at different levels), the various stakeholders related to tourism (Regional Tourism Entities, associations and other organizations representing the sector) and tourism professionals, with direct intervention in planning, management and operationalization of tourism. We are reporting so much to those who are in the front office and are challenged daily to manage situations, to mediate conflicts, to reconcile the sometimes antagonistic interests of visitors and hosts, to restore normality to unusual situations, such as those who in the back office are responsible for planning and managing the tourist system, namely for the balance between the residential function and the tourist function of the city, enhancing the benefits of tourism in favour of the quality of life of the local populations and the sustainable tourism development of the territories. At the level of governance, the policies and strategies that condition the action are defined, namely at the level of public and private investment, which directly impacts the number and type of visitors that a territory attracts. It is essential that decision-makers and managers, at different levels of intervention, promote a strategy for sustainable tourism development, in the awareness that overtourism, more than resolving itself, should be avoided. Programs aimed at promoting Accessible Tourism, Responsible Tourism and Ecotourism, are fundamental to protect the destination of Mass Tourism, creating a deterrent image of certain types of behaviour on the part of supply and demand.

Businessmen and entrepreneurs who have to develop their activity within the scope of a sustainable tourism development strategy are encouraged to make their performance compatible with the principles that support it, and may even be legally deterred from practices that prove to be incompatible with this paradigm. Positive reinforcement is the best instrument to promote appropriate attitudes and behaviours and to reward, tangibly and intangibly, investments aimed at sustainability, which privilege quality over quantity, which create jobs and have fair remuneration policies, which encourage the local economy and to adopt environmentally sustainable practices. For this reason, it is considered one of the ways to develop a collective awareness for Sustainable Tourism, avoiding many of the causes that underlie overtourism.

Tourism professionals who are at the forefront and who, in a way, mediate the relationship between supply and demand, are above all responsible for dealing with the consequences of overtourism, even if in a bottom up logic, influencing decision-makers and top managers in decisions that contribute to their correction. However, there are actions by these professionals that may eventually contribute, even on a micro scale, to reduce demand in conventionally tourist locations. Giving suggestions, indications to visitors about their tourist route (visitation points, restaurants ...), may eventually condition the behaviour of demand and create new tourist centres that alleviate those already saturated.

With regard to residents, their double role must be taken into account: they are the hosts and therefore determinants in the quality of the tourist experience, but they are also "tourist resources" as they are vehicles that transmit the local identity. Tourist territories, urban or rural, depopulated, without smells, without sounds, without people, do not allow authentic experiences and are increasingly moving away from the preferences that characterize the profile of the current tourist. However, these same local communities are the ones most affected by overtourism, the ones that see their quality of life compromised, the prices of housing and other goods that are triggering an adaptation of the markets to tourist demand, in short those that have to live together with all the inconveniences arising from an overcrowded territory. They are also the voice and the visible face of discontent, more or less ostensibly expressing displeasure with a situation that shows the lack of harmony between the tourist and residential functions of the territories. The reactions of the local communities are one of the main indicators of the excess of visitors in a tourist destination, so they must be monitored and assume an important role when planning tourism, even because without hosts who want to be Tourism, their very essence is compromised.

Last but not least, there are visitors, who with their choices are the main cause of overtourism. The choices of destinations, the options regarding the way of traveling (individually, in small groups, or in large groups), the attitudes and behaviours they assume in the territories they visit, the type of relationship they cultivate with local communities, the type consumption, in short their profile, are determining factors in the impacts they cause in the territories they visit. So it is essential that tourists in preparing their trip contemplate knowledge about the territories they visit, not only from the point of view of tourist attractions and other amenities, but also about culture, ways of life and habits, in a way to assume non-dissonant behaviours that trigger antibodies in local communities. The more unnoticed the visitors pass, in quantity, but also in behavior, the more easily they will be welcomed in the territories they visit.

After these generic considerations, it is necessary to analyse the case study, Lisbon, in the perspective of the contribution of human capital to the management of the excess demand that plagues this city, especially the points that over time have been affirming themselves as tourist centralities, and more specifically with regard to Cruise Tourism.

The investment in the Cruise Terminal at the Port of Lisbon, as a result of a development strategy for the city, has made it possible to berth more and larger cruise ships simultaneously. Evidently, this bet, the cause and consequence of Portugal's tourist affirmation and also of its capital, translates into an increasing integration of Lisbon in the cruise ship routes, especially because the quality of the offer on land has been increasing. These visitors, mostly excursionists, are taken in large groups organized to the main tourist points of the city, joining all the other demand that arrives in the city by land and air. The ideal would be to reduce the presence of the number of ships simultaneously, which would reduce the environmental impact, but also the social impact. Even assuming that Lisbon continues to receive cruise ships that seek it, with the consequent environmental impacts, government officials and managers have to devise strategies and actions that promote the dilution of these visitors in the territory, in order to minimize their concentration. In this sense, it is necessary to make the tour operators aware of the need to find the groups of tourists in time and space; encourage the breakdown of large groups into small groups that, due to their size, can visit other places and consume in small local businesses; and design mechanisms that allow small businesses and entrepreneurs to benefit from the demand associated with Cruise Tourism.

From the visitors' perspective, it will be important to encourage attitudes and behaviours in line with local culture and ecotourism; stimulate visitation to less touristy locations, operating for this purpose a strategy of tourist promotion focused on the construction of new tourist centres; stimulate consumption in local commerce; and making visitors aware of the importance of the practices associated with Sustainable Tourism, and of their role in its operation and transmission. Conceiving on-board awareness actions in this regard could anticipate some of the negative impacts.

As for the local communities, it is essential that they have a civic participation in the moments that are destined to their listening in the scope of the tourism planning and development processes. When alluding to the importance of this participation, there are two fundamental aspects: giving residents the possibility to make their voices heard, but also their willingness and interest in making themselves heard in the appropriate space and time. It is also important to raise residents' awareness of the added value of tourism development, even if within a framework of sustainability, as an activity that generates direct, indirect and deferred economic impacts, while promoting the quality of life of local communities, as long as quality is valued over quantity and the limits of different dimensions of load capacity are respected. In this way, local communities are encouraged for their rights, but they are also awakened to the opportunities that underlie tourism and their duties as hosts.

With regard to tourism professionals, those at the forefront and who mediate on the ground the relationship between supply and demand, it is essential that they know the city's tourism system, that they are able to, at their scale, be able to redirect tourist flows, contributing to the creation of new tourist centres; that suggest consumption in local commerce; that they know how to assertively deal with attitudes and behaviours of visitors that raise antibodies in resident communities; and that encourage sustainable tourism practices.

CONCLUSION

Lisbon is a city that has been progressively attracting more and more visitors arriving by land, air and sea/river. In a circular logic, on the supply side, motivated by this growing demand, public and private investments have been made, creating increasingly attractive conditions that also contribute to the growth in demand. The risk of overtourism in this city is considered high in different studies carried out by several international organizations.

Visitors to Lisbon, as in most tourist destinations, tend to be driven by the behaviour of the offer itself, to look for the most tourist spots in the city, namely the typical neighbourhoods and the downtown area of the city, which causes strong concentrations of tourists in certain areas of the city, with the consequent impacts on the social level and which translate into a decrease in the quality of life of the resident population. Visitors, more excursionists than tourists, who arrive in Lisbon by sea/river are just a tiny slice of the city's annual tourist demand, however due to its strong spatial and temporal concentration, they contribute a lot to overtourism situations, greatly enhancing the negative impacts of tourism, namely from a social and environmental perspective.

With regard to the reaction of the local community in dealing with visitors, it should be noted that the evidence of intolerance is felt mainly from a collective perspective, through associations and websites that express the discomfort that excessive tourist demand causes in residents. Unlike other cities, such as Venice or Barcelona, there have been no mass public demonstrations against tourism or acts of vandalism against tourists and their belongings - apart from small thefts that are very common in large cities - which leads to the conclusion, and taking into account the Doxey Irritability Index, that there are obvious signs of irritation, but not antagonism.

Managing and educating the human capital that is associated with Tourism in Lisbon, namely Cruise Tourism, is essential to mitigate the negative impacts of Tourism, while defending the quality of life of local communities and the quality of the tourist experience of visitors. If each of the players in the system and in the tourist relationship plays its part, in the knowledge and respect for the rights and duties associated with it in a framework of sustainable tourism development, a greater balance between supply and demand becomes viable, if not quantitative, at least qualitative.

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Chapter 18
The Role of Nature Sports Guides to Sustainable Local Development:
A Case Study in the Coimbra Region, Portugal

Ricardo Melo
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal & CiTUR, Portugal

Diogo Leite
Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, Portugal

ABSTRACT

The overall aim of this case study was to understand the role of nature sports guides in promoting sustainable local development. The study adopted a qualitative and descriptive case study approach. Data was collected from participant observation in one nature sports tourism company established in the area of Coimbra region in the centre of Portugal, as well as in-depth semi-structured qualitative interviews applied to a sample of 30 nature sports guides working in nature sports tourism companies, established in the same region. The data collected from both participant observation and interviews were analysed through categorical content analysis. The findings reveal that the nature sports guides have already adopted certain sustainability practices in the analysed dimensions. However, the greatest focus of the nature sports guides is the instrumental role. Findings of this study are important for both the industry and academy and some strategies will be discussed so that the great potential of nature sports for the promotion of sustainable local development can be reached.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-4318-4.ch018

INTRODUCTION

Nature Sports are an increasingly form of sport activities that are being developed in natural or rural areas (Melo, 2017; Melo, Van Rheenen, & Gammon, 2020a, 2020b). "Nature sports is a concept that has emerged in recent year to define the sports field related to the leisure and tourism industries, which comprises a group of sport activities developed in natural or rural areas, presenting different scopes of practices, ranging from formal to non-formal and informal practices, which allow sustainable local development in environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions" (Melo & Gomes, 2017a, p. 48). Nature sports is directly related with active sport tourism because this activities are developed outside of the usual areas of residence, requiring a travel to local of the practices, accommodation, food acquisition, and commercialization of services (Melo & Gomes, 2016a, 2017b).

These sports are performed in different natural settings including air (paragliding and hang-gliding, etc...), land (MTB, rock-climbing, trekking, etc...) and water (kayaking, sailing, surfing, windsurfing, etc...) (Melo & Gomes, 2016b). Nature sports have elements of physical and psychological challenge, danger and risk, uncertain outcomes, and exploration (Swarbroke, Beard, Leckie, & Pomfret, 2003). Learning of skills and safety competence are also well-integrated elements of nature sports (Beedie & Hudson, 2003). Nature sports activities also impose motor skills that need information decoding, emotional control, and acceptance of a relative risk, that is linked to a higher or lower environmental uncertainty, whereby the participants search for multiple sensations – playfulness, extreme, well-being, discovery, sociability, etc. (Bessy & Mouton, 2004).

In Portugal, such as worldwide, the demand for nature sports is increasing (Melo & Gomes, 2017b; Bell, Tyrvainen, Sievanen, Prbstl, & Simpson, 2007). Accompanying this growth, a significant number of entrepreneurial projects related to these activities were created recently in Portugal, having originated new jobs and stimulated local sustainable development (Gomes, Pedragosa, Melo, & Gustavo, 2017; Melo & Gomes, 2017b). On this regard, two different types of nature sports tourism organizations were identified:

1. The generalist companies – which are business organizations, with a diversity of supply (usually five or more nature sports activities), mainly based on kayaking, trekking and multi-activities; and
2. The specialized companies – which are specialized business organizations based on the supply of two or three nature sports activities, divided in four specializations: a) surfing activities – surfing bodyboarding and/or skimming, although they may also supply other activities such as MTB; b) wind/water activities – sailing, windsurfing, and/or kitesurfing; c) diving activities - diving, although they may also supply other activities; and d) mountain activities - mountaineering, trekking, rock-climbing, MTB, and free-flight. (Melo & Gomes, 2017c)

However, this increasing offer and demand for nature sports is raising concerns about negative impacts on the natural environment and local communities, particularly where these activities occur in sensitive natural and socio-cultural environments (Orams, 1999). One opportunity to reduce these impacts is through the use of nature sports guides (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). In the field of nature sports, guides are very important because they are the interface between the companies, the activities offered, the destination and the nature sport tourists. They are the front-line employees, who are very much responsible for the overall impression and satisfaction with the service offered by a nature sports tourism company, providing a quality experience in the territories where they perform their activities, without causing intolerable ecological and social damage (Weiler & Davies, 1993). In fact, nature sports guides have the potential to contribute to sustainable local development, promoting the protection of natural areas in which they operate by educating their customer through interpretation and modelling environmentally appropriate behaviours (Randall & Rollins, 2009), and by acting as social mediator between nature sports tourists, nature sports activities and host communities (Jensen, 2010; Melo & Gomes, 2017c).

Guiding is a very old service occupation. Initially, guides were hired for finding ways through mountain ranges or to a natural resource (Rokenes, Schumann, & Rose, 2015), what was defined by Cohen (1985) as a pathfinder. However, nature sports guiding role is complex and multidimensional because, as nature sports and nature sports tourism companies have evolved, so has the role of the guide has gradually evolved, adapting to new demands and special settings (Rokenes, Schumann, & Rose, 2015).

Four roles were primarily indicated to guides: instrumental, social, interactional, and communicative (Cohen, 1985). More recently, another role was included to the previous model: the role in promoting sustainable local development (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012; Randall & Rollins, 2009; Rokenes, Schumann & Rose, 2015; Weiler & Davis, 1993).

Yet, limited research has been done to examine the nature and complexity of guiding roles in relation to modern backdrop of nature sports, and even less research describes their role in promoting sustainable local development. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the potential role of nature sports guides in promoting sustainable local development through the analysis of their perceptions, attitudes and behaviours. The present paper contributes to knowledge by expanding on Cohen's (1985) schematic representation of guides' roles by adding a sustainable role, as defined by Weiler and Davis (1993), Randall & Rollins (2009), Pereira and Mykletun (2012) and Rokenes, Schumann and Rose (2015), including the environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions. In addition, it evaluates the correspondence between those roles and the defined sustainable local development criteria for nature sports guides, analyzing nature sports guides in Coimbra region, Portugal. Finally assess possible ways of nature sports guides to better promote sustainable local development.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Nature Sports and Sustainable Local Development

In recent years, there has been increased discussion about sustainability. This has created new and increased policy, practice and research activity around the behaviours of individuals and organizations, in order to reduce their impact on the natural environment (Young et al., 2015). Tourism is recognized as one of the main economic activities on the planet and its growth has been increasing in recent years. Nature sports associated to sport tourism have been following this trend. This sometimes leads to enormous pressure on touristic destinations, significantly impacting these territories and resulting in a complex process of interaction between tourists and the destinations, including the host communities (Brida, Osti, & Faccioli, 2011; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004).

Sustainable local development is a process with a triple action:

1. **Environmental Sustainability:** Allowing an appropriate use of environmental resources and the maintenance of ecological processes to ensure a balance between development and the preservation and conservation of the natural heritage and biodiversity;

2. **Economic Sustainability:** Ensuring a viable economy and long-term operations that sustain well-distributed socio-economic benefits for all stakeholders, including stable employment, income-generating opportunities, social services for host communities, a contribution to poverty reduction, and economic efficiency without future growth being jeopardized;
3. Socio-cultural sustainability — ensuring that the control and management of the available resources are locally effectuated by native people, respecting their socio-cultural authenticity, in order to conserve built and living cultural heritage and its traditional values, as well as to contribute to intercultural understanding and tolerance (Brito, 2004; UNEP & WTO, 2005; WTO, 1993, 2004).

The relationship between the three dimensions is achieved by ensuring environmental preservation, giving autonomy to local communities, respecting the values and culture of origin, strengthening community identity, and safeguarding economic development through the management of available resources, ensuring their use by future generations (Brito, 2004; Melo & Gomes, 2017c).

Impact is regarded as the direct, indirect, or induced consequences of the tourism industry (and nature sports activities), and can be expressed as positive or negative (Mathieson & Wall, 1996). The impact of nature sports corresponds to subsequent changes in those destinations (Ruschmann, 2008). Nature sports activities, as touristic products, act as change agents and have an impact on regional economic conditions, social institutions and environmental quality (Mings & Chulikpongse, 1994). Accordingly, the impact of nature sports depends on the nature of the societies within which they occur (Ruschmann, 2008) and results, in general, from the social, economic and cultural differences between the local population and external agents, such as nature sports participants and organizations (WTO, 1993).

Studies about the contribution of nature sports on sustainable local development tend to be based mostly on perception of residents (Brida, Osti, & Faccioli, 2011; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004), or on the perception of practitioners on one of the types of impacts, in particular social or environmental (Kalisch & Klaphake, 2007). Studies on the perception of environmental impacts assume prominence (Lucas, 1979; Priskin, 2003), particularly based on their effect on the recreational experience (Dorwart, Mooreb, & Leung, 2009; Lynn & Brown, 2003). On the other hand, studies on the perception of social impacts are, in general, developed to measure the perception of crowding (Manning, 2010; Needham, Rollins, & Wood, 2004), especially on conflicts of recreational use in natural areas (Marcouiller, Scott, & Prey, 2008). Recent studies have showed the positive perception of nature sports participants and nature sports organizations about the contribution of nature sports to local sustainable development (Melo & Gomes, 2016a), and the behaviours of nature sports participants and nature sports organizations in the places of nature sports practice (Melo, 2013; Melo & Gomes, 2017c). Other studies showed the visitor perceptions of the role of tour guides in natural areas (Randall & Rollins, 2009), the roles of the tour leader in environmentally responsible tourism (Weiler & Davis, 1993), the understanding of tour guides' contribution to sustainable tourism (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012), and the role of whitewater rafting and adventure tour guides to reduce tourists' environmental impacts (Serenari, Leung, Attarian, & Franck, 2012). The following part of this section will explores the literature concerning the role of nature sports guides to sustainable local development.

The Roles of Nature Sports Guides to Sustainable Local Development

Different aspects of guiding in nature sports and adventure sport tourism have been studied within various disciplines such as marketing, outdoor education, leisure, recreation, psychology, and sociology

(Rokenes, Schumann, & Rose, 2015). The literature about tour guides identifies a wide diversity of roles. Guides have been called service providers (Arnould & Price, 1993; Wong & Lee, 2012), choreographers (Beedie, 2003), cultural interpreters (Pereira, 2005), environmental conservators (Curtin, 2009; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006), activity experts (Pomfret, 2011), planners (Pomfret, 2011) and storytellers (Mathisen, 2012). They have also been described as culture brokers, entertainers, information providers, leaders, mediators, mentors, sources of knowledge, surrogate parents, and pathfinders (Rokenes, Schumann, & Rose, 2015). These descriptions have contributed to the understanding of the complexity and change of the guide role over time.

Cohen (1985) first conceptualized the role of the guide in four distinct sub roles of guiding: a) the instrumental role; b) the interactional role; c) the social role; and d) the communicative role. Weiler and Davis (1993), when examining the role of nature-based tourism guides included a focus on the natural environment, what they term "resource management", which contains two roles: (a) motivator (the modification of tourist behaviour and impacts on-site); and b) environmental interpreter (the understanding and appreciation of environmental issues to facilitate responsible tourist behaviours in the long term). Pond (1993) developed Cohen's classification in a more detailed way and refereed that guides need to be: a) responsible leaders; b) educators, helping guests in their limitations; c) ambassadors of hospitality; d) hosts creating a comfortable environment for guests; and e) social facilitators. Considering guides' potential contribution to sustainable tourism, Pereira and Mykletun (2012) expanded Cohen's (1985) and Weiler and Davis' (1993) frameworks, including an economic sphere that includes two functions that are: a) economy promoter; and b) philanthropist. On the other hand, Rokenes, Schumann and Rose (2015) have framed five different dimensions not mutually exclusive, which are linked together and interact with each other, having an influence on the interactions between the nature-based adventure tourism guides and the clients and thereby on client perceptions of value. These value dimensions are: a) instrumental; b) educational; c) relational; d) choreographic; and e) environmental. Considering nature sports and adventure sports tourism as an extremely diverse industry, in terms of geography and diversity of activities, and the constantly evolving list of new activities and products for nature sports guides to introduce to participants, a list of five competences have been determined by Adventure Travel Trade Association (2018) to be essential for nature sports and adventure guides regardless of geography or activities: a) technical competence; b) wilderness medicine and first aid; c) customer service and group management skills; d) natural and cultural history interpretation (content delivery); and e) sustainability.

From earlier descriptions and categorizations, we can divide the nature sports guides' role in two spheres. The leadership sphere which is divided in instrumental role and social role (Cohen's, 1985), and a sustainable development sphere, which is divided in three dimensions – environmental, economic and socio-cultural. The environmental dimensions was based in the *resource management sphere* presented by Weiler & Davis (1993), including two functions in this sphere, which are those of the guide as motivator and environmental interpreter. The economic dimension was based in the *economic sphere* developed by Pereira and Mykletun (2012), which includes the role of economy promoter and philanthropist. Lastly, the socio-cultural dimension was based in Cohen's (1985) *mediatory sphere,* referring to nature sports guides' roles as culture brokers and communicators.

The *leadership sphere*, according to Cohen (1985), has two functions, which are instrumental and social:

- **Instrumental:** This role of the nature sports guides refers to giving sport tourists technical direction, navigation, access to the territory and safety. The nature sports guide not only provides a way to access through the nature and technical orientation to the activities but also keeps their safety (Cohen, 1985). Therefore, nature sports tourists' guidelines must include safety procedures.

- **Social:** This nature sports guide's role refers to the inner-directed attention to intra-group and the focus is on tension management, social integration and cohesion, using humour and entertainment to maintain and build group morale (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012), also framed as guides' emotional labour (Wong & Wang, 2009).

The *sustainable local development sphere* includes environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions. The environmental dimension includes the ability nature sports guides have to interpret the local environment, establishing solid connections between the environment and the nature sports tourists, and to be a motivator, acting as an environmental role model and activist (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012; Weiler & Davis, 1993):

- Motivator – nature sports occur in natural settings and protected areas and, thus, nature sports guides must be motivators for environmental preservation. In this sense, they must be models, presenting environmental sustainable behaviours, among other, collecting garbage produced during activities ensuring that nature sports tourists do not leave behind trash, collecting abandoned trash left at the spaces of nature sports practices; raising awareness of participants' good environmental practices, complying with the rules of conduct for the preservation of fauna and flora, denouncing wrong practices or attacks against nature, and encourage the local population to environmental sustainability. The guide's own behaviour and performance is what several authors refer to as having the potential to influence attitudes and cause change in behaviours (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012; Weiler & Davis, 1993) of nature sports tourists' but also on local population.
- **Environmental Interpreter:** Nature sports activities also include environmental interpretation, such as in trekking, in which the nature sports guides interpret fauna and flora along the path, but also in rock climbing when nature sports guides identify nesting areas, not developing the activity in that places and in seasons where this phenomenon occurs. Environmental interpretation is the nature sports guides' role in ecological sustainability, in which interpretation can play a role in long-term conservation when nature sports guides present their knowledge of the area by presenting themes; and by doing that they are creating significance of natural resources and what each person can do to protect them (Ham & Weiler 2002; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). Nature sports guides can also support resource management, for example, by explaining an area's conservation goals to mountaineers and local people alike, and reporting illegal activities, namely fishing, logging or mining, thus being an activist, which "is especially important in remote areas, such as the Amazon, where resource management is limited" (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012, p.80).

In the economic dimension, nature sports guides have the potential to promote local business, assist local artisans in product development and sales, and create philanthropic opportunities (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012) for the nature sports tourists:

- **Economy Promoter:** Nature sports guides can have a positive effect as an economy promoter in empowering local people, getting them businesses and assisting them in developing their products, instilling the value of their skills and culture, while engendering nature sports tourists appreciation for local products and suggesting them to buy the local products, and engage into their services (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). Examples are the promotion of local restaurants, local commerce, craft shops, local hotels and accommodations, because "such seemingly small contributions can have long-term effects in an area's economy and culture preservation (…), especially true in developing countries where product development platforms often lack sophisticated social and economic structures to assist people in developing, manufacturing and selling their products" (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012, p. 81). Nature sports guides' promotion skills can also attract nature sports tourists' interest to the visited area, leading them to return or even recommend the area to other potential nature sport tourists, contributing thus to an employer's repeated business both in revenue and increased clientele (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012).

- **Philanthropist:** Nature sports guides can also contribute to the economy of an area through philanthropic support, for example, of conservation-oriented programs (Powell & Ham, 2008; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). The value of nature sports guides in philanthropic support of conservation is visible when at the end of the trip or activities the nature sports tourists donate some money to preserve the areas where the activities where developed (Powell & Ham, 2008), and this generally happens when nature sports guides are involved on local services, and participate in local conservation programmes (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012).

In the socio-cultural dimension, nature sports guides have the ability to act as cultural brokers, to interpret and communicate insights to visitors and locals alike, being educators, and participating in local social programs (Cohen, 1985; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012):

- **Cultural Broker:** Nature sports guides' are able to act as cultural broker, having a central role in the experience of nature sports tourists. Nature sports guides can assist nature sports tourists in understanding the culture of visited places, facilitating knowledge, tolerance, and unique cultural exchanges, leading them to have deep and authentic experiences (Ap & Wong, 2001). To do this, nature sports guides need to understand both the culture they are interpreting but also that of the nature sports tourist (Cohen, 1985; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012).
- **Communicator:** Nature sports guides can also have a communicator role, and guides can act educator, whose interpretation reveals and illustrates the meanings and connections that a place's natural and cultural environments encompass can be a valuable educator to nature sports tourists and local people alike (Ham, 1992; Moscardo, 1998; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). Nature sports guides working into low density and low level of education territories "have the opportunity to assist locals in their challenges, being their voice in reporting social adversity as well as assisting with already-in place educational programs or the development of new ones" (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012, p.79).

As Pereira and Mykletun (2012) already stated, the attempt to compartmentalize nature sports guides' roles "by placing them under each sphere's conceptual framework, we realize that in sustainability such compartmentalization is at best useful only for analytical purposes" (p. 81). In their words, the nature sports guides' roles include education, interpretative skills and economic contributions as all are dynamic and continuously overlapping and, thus, knowledge and understanding of sustainability need to be part and parcel of the various nature sports guides' roles. To achieve that, nature sports guides should be educated, trained, empowered and must have knowledge and understanding of sustainable principles as a common denominator for all three dimensions (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). The next section shows how this framework was applied in the empirical part of the research.

Methodology

The study adopted a qualitative and descriptive case study approach (Yin, 1989). It was considered the most appropriate method to adopt due to its exploratory nature and the limited availability of information about this topic. The study setting is Coimbra, one of the Portuguese leading nature sports tourism destinations. Located at the Southeast corner of Europe, Portugal occupies an area of 88,889 km2 (218 km wide, 561 km long, 832 km of Atlantic coast and 1,215 km of land border with Spain. Though not one of the world's hotspots for nature sports, Portugal has a tremendous potential to develop nature sports activities, considering its geomorphologic dimension and climatic characteristics that allow the development of a wide range of these activities, under optimal conditions, throughout the year. It is not easy to find such a variety and density of specific places to develop nature sports activities in such a small area. Portugal has extensive rural areas and natural spaces, with or without special protection (protected areas), as the beach and the sea, several rivers and other aquatic spaces, mountains and cliffs, *etc*. This scenario has been recognized and awarded with the Travel Awards 2011 Prize, in the category of Active and Adventure Tourism, by the Russian National Geographic Travel magazine (Melo & Gomes, 2016b). In 2015, according to Tourism of Portugal (2017), 2661 nature sports tourism companies were registered in Portugal. Coimbra region is located at the centre of Portugal and includes 17 municipalities, occupying an area of 3900 km2 and, in 2017, 58 nature sports tourism companies were established at this region.

Data was collected from participant observation as well as in-depth semi-structured qualitative interviews, as both methods are well suited to explore how nature sports guides can promote sustainable local development (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015), and is a mean to triangulate all of the collected data.

Participant observation was based on six months (between October 2016 and March 2017) of fieldwork conducted by second author in a generalist nature sports tourism company (Melo & Gomes, 2017c), located at Coimbra, Portugal. Based in an 'insider' perspective explained by Jorgensen (1989) the second author worked during the research period in the nature sports tourism company, helping the guides to recognize places to organize the activities, organising essential materials, setting up the equipments, and co-guiding some nature sports activities, such as, canyoning, kayaking, rock-climbing, trekking and rope courses. This was a way of both gaining the guides' confidence and observing their work and benefiting the author's interpersonal relationships with the guides (Carnicelli, 2010).

Thirty interviews were carried out during the year of 2017 to a sample of nature sports guides working in nature sports tourism companies, established at Coimbra region, at the central region of Portugal. The sampling strategy was to interview as diverse a pool of nature sports guides as possible, along the lines of gender, years of work experience and whether guiding is their only job or not, covering: 25 males and 5 females; 16 guides with less than 5 years' experience, 9 with 6-10 years' experience and 10 seasoned guides with more than 10 years' experience. Seventeen of them had other job and thirteen had it as only job. A set of open-ended questions was used to guide the in-depth interviews including nature sports guides' roles in the two spheres – leadership and sustainable local development. Moreover, there were questions focusing on demographics, professional experience and status, and need for training. Core questions are presented in the results along with the findings. Each interview which lasted approximately 1 hour was recorded and fully transcribed. The second author allocated pseudonyms to the participants in order to guarantee confidentiality and personally transcribed the interviews from which the quotes used in this article were extracted.

The data collected from both participant observation and interviews were analysed through categorical content analysis as suggested by Bardin (2006). The data was systematically and carefully reviewed before identifying the common elements, patterns and trends. In addition, coding was undertaken in accordance to criteria specified by Strauss & Corbin (1998), such as, must be neutral, must appear frequently in the data, should allow easy reference to other categories, and should possesses clear implications for the formal theory. Interpretation was based not only on the literature but also on the second author experiences during the fieldwork and the personal experience of the first author in the field, as a nature sports professor, training supervisor and nature sports guide as well.

Results

The results section encompasses two major parts. In the first part is presented the socio-demographic and professional profile of nature sports guides of our sample. In the second part is presented the correspondence between nature sports guides' roles and sustainable local development. In this part the results are divided in the four dimensions of the nature sports guides' role, each one divided in two roles or functions, eight in the total, which are instrumental and social (leadership sphere), motivator and environmental interpreter (environmental dimension), promoter and philanthropic (economic dimension), and interactionary and communicative (socio-cultural dimension).

The Nature Sports Guides Socio-Demographic and Professional Profile

With regard to interviews, the distribution of nature sports guides of our sample indicates that 83.3% of respondents were male and 16.7% were female. The average age of respondents was 29.4 years (± 6.4), corresponding to a predominance of respondents below the 30 years (67.7%). Almost all (80.0%) of the respondents were single and a small proportion (13.3%) were married. Most (60.1%) respondents stated that they had achieved academic qualifications at higher education level: 36.7% of respondents had completed a bachelor's degree; 16.7% had a post-graduation; and 6.7% a master's degree. The remaining nature sports guides concluded the secondary school - 12th grade (26.7%) or obtained pre-higher education degree – technological specialization degree (13.3%). Those participating in the study are nature sports guides living mostly in the region of Coimbra. Most (66.7%) of them travel less than 10km to headquarter of the nature sports tourism company, and in average they travel 13.2km to go working.

The data shows that the sample is composed of all year full-time employed individuals (43.3%), despite the most (56.7%) have other professions, and work part-time (50%) in the field of nature sports. They are working mainly (46.7%) in exclusivity for a nature sports tourism company, or as free-lancers (36.7%). Nature sports guides perform different function in the nature sports tourism companies, mainly, technical (96.7%), logistical (66.7%), secretariat (40.0%) and managerial (36.7%). Their training is mostly academic (66.7%) or by training courses (20.0%), and only three (10.0%) don't have any kind of training to work in the field. Regarding their income, only five (16.7%) of the nature sports guides earn more than €7000 annually. Moreover, considering the number of working hours per day, the number of working days per week, it is estimated that the nature sports guides in Portugal earn in average €3.5 per hour, a value considered too low, considering the huge responsibilities in ensuring safety and providing a quality experience among the sport tourists, as the high training qualification of the nature sports guides. As per the questionnaire and participant observation, all guides could lead at least one nature sports activity.

Correspondence Between Nature Sports Guides Roles and Sustainable Local Development

As regards *to leadership sphere*, in the instrumental role, the interviewed nature sports guides presented very high technical skills since most of them had specialized training obtained in higher education degrees in sports, leisure and tourism or by specialized training courses. The nature sports guides of the observed company also had high technical skills in the activities they developed and, despite the company did not have a formal operations plan or risk management plan, no accidents were registered during the course of the activities. On this regard, nature sports guides followed informal procedures, such as, verify the spaces of practices in advance and prepare the equipments and material in the day before, insuring thus the safety of the nature sports tourists. Company guides also follow an informal protocol during the development of the nature sports activities. When the participants arrive, nature sports guides welcome them. After a quick ice-breaker, a brief explanation about the activity is given by the guides to the nature sports participants. Safety procedures, equipment management, and group management (duration of the activity, formation of group) were also informed. During the course of the activities they permanently gave technical feedbacks. On this regard, the instrumental function was met by observed nature sports guides. As for social function, observed nature sports guides generally presented good mood, and transmitted that during the development of the activities. Nature sports guides also tacked some action to maintain a good group dynamic, presenting ice-breaking games in the beginning of the activities, sometimes making funny commentaries and play jokes during the course of the activities. No conflicts were observed among the participants and among participants and nature sports guides'. The time schedule, which is a critical point in these activities, because can be in conflict with keeping the group amuse (Cohen, 1985) was also very well managed. Thus, the nature sports guides used their technical knowledge to manage group dynamics under sometimes stressful situations, animating the group and guaranteeing their safety.

In the *sustainable local development sphere*, the results of the interviews applied to the nature sports guides regarding the impacts generated by nature sports practices in the local communities where the nature sports practices are developed, show that 70% consider these activities to have general positive environmental impact, 56.7% consider that nature sports have a general positive economic impact, and 56.7% consider that nature sports have a general positive socio-cultural impact. In this regard, the perception of guides about nature sports in the three dimensions of the impacts is very positive.

However, through participant observation analysis it was found that the company did not have any sustainable tourism (local development) formal protocol, neither a sustainable good formal practices guidelines. However, in a recent study about nature sports organizations (Melo, 2013), 91.9% of inquired managers stated that their companies have a code of conduct and a good practices plan. During the participant observation the company do not developed any training considering sustainable good practices and no commentaries about this topic where refereed by company managers during that period. No information about environmental good practices or sustainability behaviours during the initial or final briefing was transmitted. On all of the activities in which the researcher participated, guides informally informed and recommended nature sports participants to collect the garbage produced during the activities. A regular procedure informally established by the company is that guides at the end of the activities collect the remaining produced garbage. However, one time, when the guides of the company arrived to a space of nature sports practice, they found trash left by others. They commented with each other and criticized this occurrence but did not collect the abandoned trash, not even have denunciated that wrong practice and attack against nature. At least during rock-climbing activities, guides warned about good environmental practices, alerting participants to preserve existing fauna and flora. The analyses of the interviews show that most (73.3%) of the inquired nature sports guides stated that know the autochthonous species, some (36.7%) promote ecological actions in the local communities, and several (30.0%) develop ecological actions as participants. Thus, the nature sports guides' ability to act as environmental role model and activist was met, while the ability to interpret the local environment was poorly met.

As for *economic dimension*, little evidence was found about contribution of nature sports guides for promoting sustainable local development. Despite almost half (43.3%) interviewed nature sports guides stated they are involved in volunteer activities within local communities, and some related with environmental activism (36.7%) in the local communities no one is dedicated to philanthropic actions. During the researcher activities participation it was observation that when asked by participants, guides advised the best trade spaces (restaurants, shops, etc...) and local hotels and accommodation. No commentaries were also observed about stimulus for consumption and promotion of local crafts. Thus, the nature sports guides' involvement and participation in local programs and engagement in local services were fairly met, and philanthropic assistance was not met.

In the *socio-cultural dimension*, all the nature sports guides interviewed stated that they present a good or very good relation with inhabitants of the local of the practices. In general, almost all speaks with inhabitants about their profession (96.7%), talk with them about environmental protection (63.3%) and encourage the inhabitants to practice nature sports (96.7%). Their opinion is that the general dynamic around headquarter of the nature sports tourism company is good (96.7%), as the dynamic around the local of the nature sports practice (100%). In this way, the nature sports guides' attitudes and behaviours among inhabitants and local communities can be considered as very positive. However, during the participant observation, little evidence was found about nature sports guides acting as cultural brokers and communicators. During the period of the participant observation, no discussion or introduction to local culture was provided. Regularly during the course of the activities, in an informal way guides encourage nature sports participants to participate in cultural activities in the geographical areas of practice. However, no mention about encouragement to nature sports participants to use facilities and leisure spaces of local communities (theatres, cinema, libraries, swimming pools, etc…) was observed. Thus, the nature sports guides' ability to act as cultural brokers, to interpret and communicate insights to participants and locals alike was poorly met and their level of participation in local social programmes was fairly met.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This case study has focused on the importance of the role of the nature sports guide to promoting sustainable local development. In line with the work of Pereira and Mykletun (2012), this study extended the Cohen's (1985) and Weiler and Davis' (1993) theoretical framework guides' role and included an economic dimension. Thus, the theoretical framework of the role of nature sports guides presented in this study includes two spheres, the leadership sphere which is divided in instrumental role and social role (Cohen's, 1985), and a sustainable development sphere, which is divided in three dimensions – economic, environmental and socio-cultural. The environmental dimension was based in the *resource* *management sphere* presented by Weiler & Davis (1993), including two functions, the guide as motivator and environmental interpreter. The economic dimension was based in the *economic sphere* developed by Pereira and Mykletun (2012), which includes the role of economy promoter and philanthropist. Lastly, the socio-cultural dimension was based in Cohen's (1985) *mediatory sphere,* referring to nature sports guides' role as culture broker and communicator. In our opinion, this theoretical framework is the best interpretation to represent the nature sports guides' roles to promoting sustainable local development. This model was applied trough participant observation and complemented by interviews effectuated to nature sports guides working in nature sports companies operating at Coimbra region. The main empirical findings will be discussed next.

Considering that nature sports activities developed by the nature sports company (e.g., canyoning, rock-climbing, kayaking, trekking, rope courses) present a high level of risk, the greatest focus of the nature sports guides is actually the instrumental role, and thus the analysed nature sports guides present high technical skills in the activities they developed. This is a very important component to ensure the safety of the participants. Additionally, the social role is also very important and nature sports guides operating in the observed nature sports company presented high social skills, as they always maintained the group moral very high through humour and animation. This is probably because they know that this item represents more to overall participants' satisfaction than any other tangible item at the destination (Ham & Weiler, 2007; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). The importance attributed to this functions probable leads to both guides and companies managers to be more focused on training these skills than the skills of the other dimensions. On this regard, the *leadership sphere* was met by analysed nature sports guides and the two functions are thus dominant in the nature sports guides' role.

In the sphere of sustainable local development, the environmental dimension is fairly developed by nature sports guides. Although there are no formal protocols, guides present procedures according to the motivator role, contributing to environmentally responsible behaviours while onsite (Cohen, 1985; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012), even though the role of environmental interpreter falls short. Actually, most of the nature sports activities is not interpretative except, for instance, trekking; most of them are more adventurer and adrenaline making. Despite that, nature sports guides can promote environmental interpretation in all the nature sports activities, and also they can provide information about environmental good practices or sustainability behaviours, for instance during the initial or final briefings. In doing this they can act as educators, contributing to long-term knowledge and attitude change (Weiler & Davis, 1993; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012). Nature sports guides and companies' managers also have the obligation of knowing interdict places and periods of interdictions of nature sports places because of, for example, bird nesting. In Portugal, at least in most protected areas, the area planning and nature sports charters include the conditionings plan. Guides can also interpret and explain this plan to nature sports participants.

The role of nature sports guides in the economic dimension is also very low. In Portugal it is not very common to develop philanthropic actions and the observed; following this trend nature sports guides do not have created any philanthropic opportunity for participants. The promotion of local businesses was also not consistent and was incentivised only a few times. Nature sports guides also do not assist local population in product development and sales. In spite of this, nature sports guides are very well integrated into the local communities, developing volunteer actions within local communities.

Headquarter of the company where second author did the observant participation is close to the area where most nature sports activities were developed. The activities generally occur in natural settings around Coimbra region, the same region where company headquarter is based. Almost all the company guides also live close to headquarter of the companies where they work. The clients came from a regional or national area, in personal vehicles, sharing car places. In this case, the environmental impact caused by carbon footprint can be considered as low. This trend is followed by most of the nature sports tourism companies - the nature sports activities are developed close to headquarter of companies and clients came from regional, national of international territory (Melo & Gomes, 2017b, 2017c). Thus, the socio-cultural differences between local population and nature sports participants are not high and thus this impact is small, since the greater the socio-cultural differences between visitors and local population the greater the socio-cultural impact (Ruschmann, 2008; WTO, 1993, 2004). The socio-cultural dimensions was only partially met because nature sports guides fail in the ability to act as cultural brokers, and to interpret and communicate insights to participants and locals alike and their level of participation in local social programmes was not consistent.

Guiding is viewed as essential to an optimal experience (Black & Cabtree, 2007; Ham & Weiler, 2003; Jensen, 2010), and nature sports guides in Portugal, such as in other parts of the world (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012), are uniquely positioned to educate visitors about the local and global significance of sustainability, dispel misconceptions about the territories and its culture, and contribute economically to the visited communities. However, our findings suggest without the application of some measures the potential this group has to advance nature sports contribution to sustainable local development is being unimproved. In this context, we suggest that companies, at the *leadership sphere*, should develop a protocol of operations so that guides, especially those with less experience, can develop the procedures, before, during and after the activities, with high quality standards, and according to the mission and vision of the companies. It is also suggested that companies develop a formal risk and safety management plan so that, in case of an accident, guides can proceed according to this plan. It is also suggested that companies provide training to their nature sports guides on issues of technical updating, as well as techniques of group animation. With regard to sustainability, it is suggested that the company develop a protocol of good practices, both at the environmental, economic and socio-cultural levels. Only through the implementation of these plans and their operationalization will be possible for the nature sports participants to have the best experiences in the activities and in the territories they visit, and only in this way do nature sports have the greatest potential to contribute to sustainable local development in all their dimensions. In doing all this, the nature sports participants experience will be rewarding, allowing them to have a sense of affiliation to the activity, to the company and to the territory, thus these individuals may return to territory and probably re-hire or even recommend the area to other potential visitors (Pereira & Mykletun, 2012) and, in this circumstances promoting local development in a more effectively way. Academy also has responsibility in the different spheres of action of the guides and the managers of the nature sports companies. Thus, it is suggested that in the course of the academic training, at the various levels, are provided the contents and the tools that are possible to be operationalized later in the course of the professional actions of the guides and the leaders of the companies.

This case study presents some limitations. The first limitation is related with representativeness of the nature sports guides interviewed since a convenience sample (30 nature sports guides) was used because the total number of nature sports guides working at Coimbra region nature sports tourism companies was not known. Other limitation is concerned with the participant observation since this method was only applied to one nature sports tourism company and thus again a problem of representativeness can exists. Another limitation is about data collected from the interviews, which questions have the potential to be misconstrued and answers can be induced by socially desirable responses. Additionally, interviews and observations cannot be completely objective and thus bias can be unavoidably introduced. However, these limitations are, to a large extent, eliminated by triangulating observations and interviews data.

This paper contributes to a broader understanding of the contribution of nature sports guides to sustainable local development. However, as a case study limited to a specific environment (Coimbra region) and to a specific group of nature sports guides the conclusions should be interpreted with caution and not be generalized to other geographical areas and other groups of nature sports guides. In this regard, further research will be important to verify if the same findings can be generalised to different groups and locations. Even if the use of participant observation and interviews is a reliable approach to provide a detailed comprehension of the specific group of nature sports guides investigated in this research, the use of other complementary methodologies such as questionnaires and unstructured conversations can enrich our understandings through different lenses offering the possibility for new discussions and deepening our understanding of the contribution of nature sports guide to sustainable local development.

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About the Contributors

Vânia Goncalves Costa has a PhD in Economics from the University of Vigo, with the thesis “Regional Portuguese Airports, Local Economy and Tourism Development”, a MSc in Industrial Economics and Business from University of Minho and a degree in Economics from University of Minho. She is an Assistant Professor in the School of Hospitality and Tourism of Polytechnic Institute of Cávado and Ave (Barcelos, Portugal). She is a member of the research unit on Governance, Competitiveness and Public Policies (GOVCOPP) working in the Tourism Development Group. Her current research interests include Economics of Tourism Destinations, Corporate Finance for Tourism Industry, Tourism Enterprises, Tourism Investment, Finance, Regional, Transport Economics, Air Transport and Airports.

* * *

Gabriela Antošová, Ph.D., is a Junior Research Fellow and Assistant Professor at The University College of Business in Prague, also a scientific member of committee Academia Europa Nostra and CITUR. She focuses on the management of the endogenous potentials in the regional and social development, local tourism and multidisciplinary content of methodological approaches in research. Currently, she is the main coordinator and researcher from the Czech Republic of the project “Bahía Solano como destino turístico – Actualización del plan turístico”.

Shilpa Arora is working as Assistant Professor in FMS, MRIIRS in area of Marketing. She did her MBA in International Business and is pursuing Ph.D from Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies, Faridabad, Haryana, India. Her areas of interest include International business, Logistics & Supply chain management and Economics.

Daniel Binder studied Health Management in Tourism and teaches in German and English as a Senior Lecturer at the FH JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences in the areas of marketing, tourism research, destination development as well as communication and digitization. The development of study programs as well as the management of research projects in (health) tourist education and tourism research are also part of his duties. Daniel Binder is currently studying at the István Széchenyi Management and Organization Sciences Doctoral School at the University of Sopron in Hungary. His focus of research lies on the establishment of an integrated tourism destination and its potential to increase the quality of life of the rural population.

Filipa Brandão holds a Ph.D. in Tourism and an MSc in Tourism Management and Development, both from the University of Aveiro. She is an Invited Assistant Professor at the University of Aveiro, where she teaches several courses in the Tourism degrees and is Vice-Director of the Master in Tourism Management and Planning. She is also member of the Editorial Board of Tourism & Development Journal [Revista Turismo e Desenvolvimento], the scientific journal of the Department of Economics, Management, Industrial Engineering and Tourism of the University of Aveiro, reviewer of scientific publications in the tourism field, and is frequently involved in tourism and leisure consultancy or applied research projects. Her research interests include territorial innovation in tourism, the role of innovation networks in destination development, sociometric analysis in tourism, gender issues in tourism innovation, and experience economy. She is a member of the Tourism and Development group of GOVCOPP – Research Unit in Governance, Competitiveness and Public Policies of the University of Aveiro.

Zélia Breda holds a Ph.D. in Tourism, a Master's degree in Chinese Studies (Business and International Relations) and a degree in Tourism Management and Planning from the University of Aveiro, where she is Assistant Professor, at the Department of Economics, Management, Industrial Engineering, and Tourism, holding the position of Director of the Master in Tourism Management and Planning. She is a full member of the Research Unit 'Governance, Competitiveness and Public Policies' of the University of Aveiro; a founding member and vice-president of the Observatory of China (www.observatoriodachina.org), and a senior researcher of the spin-off company Idtour (www.idtour.pt). She is also a member of the editorial and scientific boards of a few academic national and international journals, as well as a member of the organizing and scientific committees of international tourism conferences. She has authored and co-authored several national and international papers and communications on tourism, and has been taking part in several research projects in the tourism field, both as a member of the team and as a consultant.

Mónica Morais de Brito holds a PhD in Tourism, Leisure and Culture from the University of Coimbra. Throughout his professional career he has reconciled the academic and investigation career with direction and management positions in the Public Sector and Private Companies. She is currently a lecturer at the Polytechnic Institute of Beja and at the University of Évora, where she teaches various disciplines in the field of Tourism.

Emanuel Castro has a degree in Geography, with specialization in Environmental Studies, Master in Geography and Spatial Planning, with the dissertation "Integrated Analysis of the Landscape of the Portuguese Central Ray". Professor at the Polytechnic Institute of Guarda, between 2003 and 2017. Participated in different research projects in the areas of Tourism, Landscape Analysis, Geographic Information Systems, Climatology and Territorial Development. Since 2016, he has held the position of Executive Coordinator of the Associação Geopark Estrela, promoter of the Candidacy of the Estrela to UNESCO Global Geopark, which integrates 9 municipalities in this territory.

Manuel Catena received his Doctorate in Education from the School of Social Sciences and Education at Queen's University of Belfast in 2016. He completed post-graduate education, including a Master's degree in Education awarded the University of Ulster in 2009. He is a graduate of the University of Málaga (Spain) where he studied Philosophy and Arts. His main area of research and interest is linguistics, particularly the factors that affect language- learning motivation in Anglophone settings.

Manuel's areas of research also include educational leadership and pedagogy. Manuel has more than twenty years of teaching experience. He currently works as a lecturer in Spanish at the Department of Law and Humanities of the School of Business Studies at Letterkenny Institute of Technology (Ireland). He coordinates modules of the MA in Learning and Teaching and supervises dissertations at Master's level. He is visiting lecturer at Málaga University, and at the University of Murcia.

Teresa Dieguez is a Doctor on Economics, MBA on Prospective and Organizational Strategy, Master on Innovation and Technological Transfer, Specialist on Strategy and Entrepreneurship, PhD Student on Social Development and Sustainability.

Benjamin Drakeford is a Senior Lecturer in Economics and a Researcher at the Centre for Blue Governance at the University of Portsmouth, UK. His research interests lie in the broad field of blue economy development and governance. He has worked on such matters in developing countries (e.g. FAO on fisheries and aquaculture development in Central Asia) and developed countries (e.g. DG Mare on revitalising the blue economy in the Atlantic Ocean). He had led several EU projects on blue economy matters, and national projects on blue economy development for Defra and the MMO. He has several contributions in journal articles, books and conference proceedings.

Gonçalo José Poeta Fernandes, Coordinator Professor at Polytechnic Institute of Guarda – ESTH/ Scientific Technical Unit of Tourism and Hospitality (Portugal). Holds a PhD in Geography and Regional Planning, specializing in Planning and Territorial Management, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, New University of Lisbon. 1998 - Master of Regional Development and Border Areas, University of Beira Interior. 1994 - Degree in Geography and Regional Planning at FCSH/UNL. Research Areas: Planning and Territorial Management, Public Policy and Border Areas, Rural Entrepreneurship, Tourism and Development, Territory and Tourist Destinations, Mountains and geotourism. R&D: Researcher CITUR - Centre for Tourism Research, Development and Innovation. Researcher. CICS.NOVA – Centro Interdisciplinar de Ciencias Sociais; Member of the Scientific Council of the Douro International Natural Park since 2013; Member of the Strategic Council of the Serra da Estrela Natural Park since 2014, Member of the Technical-Scientific Council of ParqUrbis since 2015; Member of the Scientific Committee - Aspiring Geopark Estrela since 2015 Member of the Executive Board of the National Mountain Research Network of FCT since 2017; Member of the Scientific Council of the Iberian Mountain Research Network (RIIM) since 2017; Member of Working Group 4 of RIS 3 (CCDR Centro) - Territorial innovation: subgroups of Rural innovation and Research & Development and Innovation in Tourism.

Magda Fernandes has a degree in Geology, in the Educational area, and Degree in Tourism and Leisure. Postgraduate in Environment and Spatial Planning. Primary and secondary school teacher between 2005 e 2013. Since 2016, is responsible for Education and Educative programs in the Associação Geopark Estrela.

João Ferreira (PhD in Management) is Associate Professor at University of Beira Interior and Coordinator of research Unit NECE. He is author of some books and he published in several international journals. Research interests are: Stategy and Entrepreneurship.

Jose Antonio Fraiz is a professor and researcher at the University of Vigo. Director of the Master's Degree in Management and Planning of Interior and Health Tourism. Director of the EMITUR Research Group (Marketing and Tourism).

Rajat Gera is currently working as Professor (Marketing) in Faculty of Management Studies, and Director Research-Management, Business Studies and Commerce at Manav Rachna International Institute of Research and Studies, Faridabad and as Professor and HoD, Department of Management and Commerce, Manav Rachna University, from February 2016 till March 6, 2019 where he was also DRC chairperson for PhD programs, and Academic Council and Management committee member. He has worked as Associate Professor and PGP Chairperson (All PGP Programs-2010-11) and Chairperson-PGDBM PT program (2006-2007) at Institute of Management Technology, Ghaziabad. Rajat Gera is Ph.D. in Management (2014) from University School of Management Studies, Guru Gobindh Singh Indraprastha University,New Delhi and PGDRM (Marketing) from Institute of Rural Management Anand (IRMA),.(1990-1992, Full Time) and B.Tech. from Allahabad University. He has over 30 International and National publications and is the author of two books. He has authored cases which have been published by Richard Ivey Business School and (available at Harvard Business School Publishing) and London Business School, UK. He is visiting faculty for "Centre for Marketing", Asian Minor studies, Fontys University, Eindhoven, Netherlands, under the Erasmus Mundus scholarship program of European Commission and at ISS KIMEP, Almaty, Kazakhstan.. He has industry experience of over six years with leading Public and Private sector companies in Sales and Marketing and Operations. He has been associated with Management development programs for BP,BHEL, BEL, NTPC, ONGC, Airtel, Vodaphone, and various other organizations of repute. His areas of research interest are modeling the linkages of service quality with behavioral intentions, e-service quality, service quality structure and measurement, e-learning and corporate reputation. His teaching interests are Services marketing, Marketing Strategy, Product Management, Entrepreneurial Marketing, Consumer Behaviour, And Strategic Management. Some of his achievements are Associate Fellow-Euro Med Academy of Business, 2013-2014, Euro Med Research Institute, Greece, Third ranked case in Case competition by Aditya Birla centre, London business school, 2010. (Gera, R., "Quatrro BPO Solutions: Developing Outsourcing Solutions Innovatively" and Erasmus Mundus scholarship for teaching in 2010. His research paper Evaluating the Effects of Service Quality, Customer Satisfaction, and Service Value on Behavioral Intentions with Life Insurance Customers in India", published in the International Journal of Service Science, Management, Engineering, and Technology (IJSSMET) 8 (3), was selected as the outstanding Business and Management article for 2017, Tenth Annual Excellence in Research Journal Awards, by IGI Global.

Hugo Gomes graduated in Geology in 2007, Master in Geosciences since 2010, from the University of Coimbra and since 2015 PhD in Geology in Quaternary Materials and Cultures, from the University of Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro. Since 2007, he has been researcher at the Center for Geosciences at F.C.T.U.C, in which he has been involved in several multidisciplinary research projects in Portugal, Spain, Italy, Brazil, Angola and Ethiopia. Since 2016, he has been part of the technical team of Associação Geopark Estrela, performing duties in the area of Science and Research.

Mert Gürlek Ph.D.; is an assistant professor at the Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Turkey. He holds two PhDs, one in Management & Organization and one in Tourism Management, both from Gazi University, Turkey. His research interests include corporate social responsibility, innovation, HRM, knowledge management, and organizational culture, hospitality management, business ethics, destination management. His studies has been published in top-tier journals such as The Service Industries Journal, Social Responsibility Journal, Tourism Management Perspectives, Kybernetes, and Ethics & Behavior, Journal of Management & Organization, Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management. He can be contacted at: mertgurlek89@hotmail.com.

İlker Kılıç is a lecturer in Yozgat Bozok University. He has experience in, Carrying Capacity, Organizational Behaviour, and Tourism Economy.

Diogo Leite was born in Oliveira de Azeméis in 1994. He graduated in Human Geography in 2015 at the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Coimbra and in 2018 he finished the Master's degree in Interior Tourism - Education for Sustainability. He started his professional activity in 2017, in the municipality of São João da Madeira, in the Industrial Tourism sector, with the functions of Monitor and Tourist Guide in this city's industrial tourism network. Diogo currently maintains his duties in the municipality of São João da Madeira as a Senior Tourism Technician.

Sahil Malik is working as assistant professor in FMS, MRIIRS. He is a commerce post graduate from Shriram College of Commerce, Delhi University and Doctorate in Human Resources from Delhi Technological University, erstwhile Delhi College of Engineering. His area of interest is multidisciplinary and is currently teaching MBA students with HR & OB and Operations Management specialization. He has publications in Emerald publications, SAGE Publications, Inderscience publications and SCOPUS Indexed journals. He has presented papers in conferences of national and international repute organized by premier institutions like IIM-L, IIT-Roorkee and MDI, Gurgaon.

Ricardo Melo is a professor at Coimbra Education School - Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra, since 2007. He obtained his PhD in Tourism, Leisure and Culture, specialization in Leisure and Sport (Nature Sports and Local Sustainable Development) by the University of Coimbra, Portugal, in 2014, finished a Post-graduation in Cultural Animation and Mediation at the University of Oporto, Portugal, in 2008, and a Bachelor degree in Sports – Sports Animation, Recreation and Leisure, at the Polytechnic Institute of Santarém, Portugal, in 2004. He is a researcher at CiTUR (Centre for Tourism Research, Development and Innovation) and CES (Centre for Social Studies). Ricardo Melo is currently a vice-president of the International Research Network in Sport Tourism (IRNIST).

James Miller received his PhD in History from the University of Minnesota in 1985 and worked as a history professor at the University of Arkansas at Little Rock until 2003, when he joined the faculty of the Institute of Health and Tourism Management at FH-JOANNEUM University of Applied Sciences in Bad Gleichenberg, Austria. He specializes in rural tourism development and issues related to sustainable tourism.

Maria do Rosário Campos Mira has a PhD degree in Tourism, from the University the Aveiro, in the field of internationalization of tourism destinations. She is a Specialist Professor in Tourism, a full researcher at CiTUR, Portugal and a collaborating researcher at GOVCOPP - Research Unit in Governance, Competitiveness and Public. She is an Adjunct Professor at the Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra since 2003, and has a Master's Degree in Psychology of Work and Organizations from the University of

Coimbra. She is a researcher on several projects and is interested in and developing research under the topic of quality and internationalization of tourism destinations and human resources management in tourism, just like in research methodology. She lectures under graduated and graduated courses of quality, internationalization, destination management and research methodology in tourism and gastronomy, among others. She is an international auditor for UNWTO.TEDQUAL Certification Program (which has the aim to improve and certifying the quality of education in tourism all over the world) having performed several international audits in different university education tourism and gastronomy courses. During her academic career she attended several superior education courses in distinct areas of study: in Tourism at the University of Aveiro; in Quality in Public Administration at the Portuguese National Institute of Directors; in Teaching Quality in Tourism held by UNWTO.TedQual Auditors' Course; and in Excellence in Tourism Management Education and Innovation, held by UNWTO.Capacity Programme Manager. A reviewer of scientific publications in international reference journals, she is interested in the internationalization of destinations in the perspective of the management and modernization of the supply, management of the people and guarantee of quality of service.

Andreia Filipa Antunes Moura concluded her PhD in Tourism in 2015 at the University of Aveiro, specifically versing about Accessible Tourism, or Tourism for All. Other research interests relate to social tourism, quality in tourism, tourism planning and destination competitiveness, and human capital in tourism. From 2017 to 2019, she was the Coordinator / Main Researcher for the Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra (co-promotor) of the project HCTourism - Profile and Trends in Human Capital in the Tourism Sector, co-financed by the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) through the Portugal 2020 Operational Program for Competitiveness and Internationalization (COMPETE 2020). Nowadays, she is Researcher of the project ACTION - Accessible tourism: Co-creation of tourism experiences through intelligent web-based systems, financed by the FCT (Portuguese public agency that supports science, technology and innovation) through the Portugal 2020 Operational Program. She is Adjunct Professor at the Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra (Coimbra Education School - ESEC) Portugal; Full researcher at CiTUR - Centre for Research, Development and Innovation in Tourism, Portugal; Collaborating researcher at GOVCOPP - Research Unit on Governance, Competitiveness and Public Policies, University of Aveiro, Portugal; and also Researcher of the Alliance on Training and Research in Social and Fair Tourism, at ISTO - International Social Tourism Organization. Simultaneously, she is responsible for a spin-off service in tourism for research, project management, entertainment and events, within ESEC, called ESECTour.

Jorge Ramos is an Integrated Researcher of the Research Centre for Tourism, Sustainability and Well-being (CinTurs) at the University of Algarve, Portugal. He has worked on socioeconomics related to coastal issues, particularly ecotourism, small-scale fisheries and offshore aquaculture. His research interests include aspects related to ecotourism, stakeholder analysis, artificial reefs, among other areas. He holds a PhD in Fisheries Economics and Management, a PgC in Social Research Methods, a MSc in Fisheries Economics (University of Portsmouth, UK) and a graduate degree in Marine Biology and Fisheries (University of Algarve, Portugal).

Pabl Ros is a professor at the Faculty of Tourism, University of Murcia. Master degree in Literatura Comparada Europea. International Coordinator at the Faculty of Tourism. Author of "La Influencia de Anglicismos en el Sector Turístico de la Región de Murcia", Cuadernos de Turismo 1, 117-128.

Leah Ryan is a postgraduate researcher at Letterkenny IT. Her research examines the experience of entrepreneurs in Ireland and Spain.

Mauricio Sabogal Salamanca is economist from Universidad Nacional de Colombia, has a master degree in Marketing from Universidad de los Andes (Colombia) and is studying a Doctorate in the Vienna University of Economics and Business. Mauricio is researcher in issues related with marketing, sustainability, and development. Currently is Associate Professor in Universidad EAN in Bogotá, Colombia.

Cândida Silva is Full Professor of Technologies and Information Systems at School of Hospitality and Tourism of Polytechnic Institute of Porto (ESHT/P.PORTO), Portugal. President of Technical-Scientific Council and Head of International Relations of ESHT/P.PORTO and was Director of Department of Informatics and Mathematics of ESHT/P.PORTO. Member of the Unit of eLearning and Pedagogical Innovation of P.PORTO (EIPP/P.PORTO). PhD in Information Systems and Technologies, Master in Industrial Engineering, and a Degree in Computer Science Engineering, all by School of Engineering of University of Minho. Principal researcher of CiTUR – Centre for Tourism Research, Development and Innovation. Researcher collaborator in the group of Information Systems and Technologies for the Transformation of Organizations and Society (ISTTOS) of the Algoritmi Centre of the University of Minho. Member of AIS (Association for Information Systems) and of AIS Portuguese Chapter. Member the organization committee of several national academic seminars and conferences, reviewer of several international conferences and journals, and has several scientific papers and communications.

Susana Silva is a Full Professor at School of Hospitality and Tourism of Polytechnic Institute of Porto (ESHT/P.PORTO), with graduation, master and PhD in Psychology. She teaches in the degree and master courses of restaurant management, tourism, and hospitality. Currently, she is the President of Pedagogical Council and Head of Communication Office at ESHT/P.PORTO. Member of the Unit of eLearning and Pedagogical Innovation of P.PORTO (EIPP/P.PORTO) As researcher, she integrates as principal researcher CEOS.PP – Centre of organizational and social studies and as research collaborator CiTUR – Centre for Tourism Research, Development and Innovation. Her research interests are in the field of social sustainability, human resources management, leadership, communication, hard and soft skills, research methodologies, costumer behaviour applied to the field of tourism and hospitality. She has been member of the organization and scientific committee of several national and international academic seminars and conferences, and has several scientific papers and communications.

Gisela Soares is a Full Professor of English and French as a Second Language at the School of Hospitality and Tourism of the Polytechnic Institute of Porto (ESHT/P.PORTO), Portugal. She has been involved in developing the school's quality assurance system since 2010, and has coordinated all the school's programme accreditation and accreditation follow-up processes since 2012. With a specialization in Quality and Evaluation, from the University of Aveiro, a Masters in Translation Studies and a degree in Languages and Literature from the University of Porto, her research interests cover the teaching of languages for specific purposes (LSP), communicative language teaching (CLT), computer assisted language learning (CALL) and study skills. Her interests in applied linguistics and interpersonal and cross-cultural communication stem from her past experience as a conference interpreter and translator.

Simon Stephens is a Senior Lecturer at the LYIT School of Business. His main teaching interests are in Applied Economics. His research explores issues and models in Entrepreneurship and Small Business Development. Simon has worked on numerous funded research projects (valued at over €1million). He is an award-winning researcher and author.

Burcu Toker, BSc and Msc in Industrial Engineering, PhD in Business Management (Cyprus) is currently an Associate Professor and Vice Rector at Bahcesehir Cyprus University. She also serves as a faculty member and researcher at the Business Department of the Faculty of Economics, Administrative and Political Sciences at Bahcesehir Cyprus University, (Cyprus). With more than twenty years of teaching, research and administrative experience, she has published one book and is the author of numerous research articles indexed in international and national journals. Her main research interests are in systems analysis and design, health systems, ergonomics, systems improvement for the physically disabled, statistical analysis, qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Diego R. Toubes is PhD in Economic and Business Sciences. He is an Associate professor of Strategic Management in the Faculty of Administration and Tourism of Ourense, at the University de Vigo (Spain). He is a member of the research group Emitur of the University of Vigo. His research interests include risk management and organizational resilience. He has published academic papers and collaborations in the fields of entrepreneurship, risk perception and crisis communication in tourism.

Noelia Araújo Vila is PhD in Tourism Management and Planning (2013) and Bachelor in Business Administration and Management (2006). Since 2007 she collaborates in the coordination tasks of the University Master in Tourism Management and Planning and teaches as professor in the Departments of Business Organization and Marketing and Financial Economics and Accounting (University of Vigo). She participates in various research projects linked to the tourism and business sector. She is a member of the research group of the University of Vigo Emitur (Marketing and Tourism). She holds a Master in Management and Management of SMEs with a prize for the best business project. She has numerous publications (articles and book's chapters) in the fields of tourism, marketing and business management.

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