30th Nordic Symposium on Tourism and Hospitality Research

Participatory approaches to development for desirable tourism futures

BOOK OF ABSTRACTS

27th - 29th September 2022

Haaga-Helia
University of Applied Sciences

Acknowledgements

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Jarkko Saarinen

Keynote speakers:

Nina K. Prebensen, Jarkko Saarinen, Iis Tussyadiah

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Anatoly Lvov, Raija Komppula, Jarmo Ritalahti

Participatory approaches to development for desirable tourism futures

According to UNWTO, tourism has the potential to contribute, directly or in- directly, to all of the UN's goals of sustainable development. Tourism fosters economic growth and development; it enhances education and empowerment of women at destination level; etc. In the recent discussions of tourism after the pandemic, the emphasis has been on sustainability and responsibility.

Inclusive resilience, referring to government response, technology innovation, local belongingness and consumer and employee confidence, may help tourism industry to transform to the direction of new global order after the pandemic. Desirable tourism future would refer to sustainability, responsible tourist behavior, wellbeing of the society and involvement of local communities in tourism development.

European Travel Commission (ETC) points out; fast changing consumer behaviors and attitudes have an increasing impact on global commerce including tourism. The search for experiences might soon change to search for transformation. Thus, tourism and travelling will have a deeper impact on individual tourists than before. However, do people want to travel anymore? On the other hand, does virtual tourism substitute traveling? How has the travel related risk perception of tourists changed during the pandemic? Has the pandemic changed tourists' values, interests and actual behavior?

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Schedule

All times are Finnish time (Eastern European Time, UTC/GMT +2).
Please note that the schedule is subject to change.

Monday 26th to Tuesday 27th of September 2022 - Doctoral School
Mon 26 Sept at 10.00 – Tue 27 Sept at 11.00.

Tuesday 27th of September 2022 - Symposium day 1
10.00 – 11.00 Optional city walk
11.00 – 12.15 Registration & lunch
12.15 – 12.30 Welcome
12.30 – 13.30 Keynote speaker Nina K. Prebensen – Co-creating tourist experiences
13.30 – 14.00 Break
14.00 – 15.30 Parallel sessions 1.1.-1.5.
15.30 – 15.45 Break
15.45 – 17.15 Parallel sessions 2.1.-2.5.
18.30 – Get-together

Wednesday 28th of September 2022 - Symposium day 2
9.00 – 10.30 Parallel sessions 3.1.-3.5.
10.30 – 11.00 Break
11.00 – 12.30 Parallel sessions 4.1.-4.5.
12.30 – 13.30 Lunch
13.30 – 14.30 Keynote speaker Iis Tussyadiah – Making intelligent human-machine interaction works for tourism
14.30 – 15.00 Break
15.00 – 16.30 Special session: 20 years of Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism
19.00 – Dinner

Thursday 29th of September 2022 - Symposium day 3
9.00 – 10.30 Parallel sessions 5.1.-5.5.
10.45 – 11.45 Keynote speaker Jarkko Saarinen – Governing resilience and inclusivity in tourism: towards sustainable development goals
11.45 – 12.00 Closing words
12.00 – 13.00 Farewell lunch
13.15 – Optional post-tour

Keynote speakers

Nina K. Prebensen
University of South-Eastern Norway (USN), School of Business
Papirbredden
3045 Drammen

Nina K. Prebensen, Ph.D. (npr@usn.no) is Professor and Vice Dean for Research and Innovation at the Business School, University of South-Eastern Norway (USN). She has edited books and published papers in various tourism and marketing journals. Her research highlights particularly the tourist decision and experience processes, where co-creation of value for hosts and guests is in focus. Currently, in addition with building stronger research culture and structure at the business school, she is working on a project dealing with user experience in tourism through online platforms.

Jarkko Saarinen
Geography Research Unit, University of Oulu

Jarkko Saarinen is Professor of Human Geography at the University of Oulu, Finland, and Distinguished Visiting Professor (Sustainability Management) at the University of Johannesburg, South Africa. His research interests include regional and local development, sustainability in tourism, tourism and climate change, resilience studies, tourism-community relations, and nature conservation studies. He is Editor for the Tourism Geographies and Associate Editor for the Annals of Tourism Research. His recent publications include co-edited books: Tourism, Change and the Global South (Routledge, 2021), Resilient Destinations (2019, Routledge), and Borderless Worlds for Whom? (2019, Routledge).

Iis Tussyadiah
Professor of Intelligent Systems in Service
Head of School of Hospitality & Tourism Management, University of Surrey

Iis Tussyadiah conducts research on digital transformation in the travel and hospitality industry, investigating the applications and implications of intelligent systems in services to inform business practice and policy. Iis is Surrey Principal Investigator for the PriVELT Project (2018 – 2022), funded by Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC), aiming to develop user-centric privacy-aware data management platform to facilitate seamless, highly personalised travel experience for tourists.

Workshop sessions

Workshop session (3.5, 4.5): Advancements in Event & Festival Research

Session chairs: Tommy D. Andersson (*Centre for Tourism, University of Gothenburg)*, John Armbrecht (*Centre for Tourism, University of Gothenburg*) and Erik Lundberg (*Centre for Tourism, University of Gothenburg)*

At the time of writing, restrictions related to the COVID-19 pandemic are eased or removed in the Nordic countries. This means that events and festivals are back on the agenda. However, the pandemic has possibly had large impacts on the event industry and event audiences in terms of e.g. the rapid digitalization, changed mobility patterns, participants' quality of life, bankruptcies of organizers and more. This will influence the industry going forward.

Up until the pandemic, there was an accelerating growth in events and festivals with respect to frequencies, purpose, content, form and popularity. Festivals and events constitute an important part within the experience economy, a growing type of travel and leisure activity as well as a development within the flora of cultural expressions. Under certain conditions, events and festivals seem to contribute to sustainable development of places and their local identities, to branding of places and marketing of regions, development of tourism and bridging gaps between locals, and between locals and visitors. They may enhance self-esteem and pride among local inhabitants, and facilitate their (re)discovery and (re)learning processes related to cultural and tangible items. However, there are also implications, dilemmas, paradoxes and controversies connected to events and festivals that can encumber a development in more sustainable directions.

The session is open to anyone who would submit their paper on event and festival related issues, and will contain a range of papers discussing various aspects of event and festival (tourism) issues. The objective of the session is to broaden and build relationships between researchers interested in this field in the Nordic countries and beyond.

Workshop session (5.5): Nordic Coastal Tourism Communities in Transition

Session chairs: Hin Hoarau-Heemstra *(Nord University),* Albina Pashkevich *(Dalarna University),* Karin Wigger *(Nord University)* and Laura James *(Aalborg University)*

Many coastal communities in the Nordic region are attractive destinations for tourism activities, not at least because of the stunning nature and the cultural experiences. Tourism is often promoted in coastal communities as a way to support regional development and sustain livelihoods. At the same time, coastal communities in the Nordic region are particularly sensitive and vulnerable to disturbances, shocks, and stress caused by tourism, such as degradation of natural resources and interference with the daily life of the locals. The aim of this workshop is to discuss how these communities can transition towards a sustainable future by creating economic value while restoring and preserving natural and social resources, and perhaps even finding alternative paths.

The special workshop session invites NORTHORS members to collaborate and present research ideas and papers on development and resilience of coastal communities. The workshop is linked to the Call for Papers for a Special Issue in the Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism.

As the travel industry rebounds from the pandemic, it is expected that tourism activities in coastal communities will increase again and new destinations will emerge. While a great debate has emerged

around the impacts of tourism on coastal communities and how to manage tourism development to ensure sustainability, we know relatively little about change practices of stakeholders directly affected by and involved in tourism development. We are therefore looking for voices from coastal tourism communities that discuss and imagine ways tourism can be developed to enable human, non-human and environmental wellbeing.

Accordingly, this workshop seeks to discuss original and relevant conceptual and empirical papers on how coastal tourism activities offer opportunities and pose challenges for tourism and hospitality actors, communities, regions, and coastal environment and how these stakeholders adapt, change, and innovate accordingly. We would like to encourage a critical dialog regarding these aspects and engage in the discussions of possible futures for coastal regions, conserving the co-existing development of tourism and other economic sectors.

Workshop session (5.4): The Individual and the mass – rethinking relations

Session chairs: Hazel Andrews *(Liverpool John Moores University)* and Vilhelmiina Vainikka *(University of Lapland)*

Mass tourism has long been associated with crowds and the costs of tourism. Other touristic practices, such as cultural and alternative tourism, are often thought to favour the individual as separate from the mass. However, culture infuses all types of touristic practice and masses visit sites of cultural significance. COVID-19 stymied many tourism activities around the world and when vacations resumed many touristic practices eschewed the mass/crowds in favour of the uncrowded, whilst simultaneously creating crowds in other places. Sometimes the crowds are part of the attraction. This throws into sharp relief a need to think more carefully about the individual and their relationship to the crowd and the spaces in which holidaymaking occurs.

This workshop seeks to develop understanding of the individual in relation to the crowd on holiday. It invites contributions that consider not only the role of the tourist, but also the different mediators and 'producers' of tourism experiences from the hotel pool cleaner, to tour company representatives and those who work in the informal economy, such as migrant workers on the beaches of the Mediterranean. Perspectives of the viewers of tourism are also relevant here, that is anyone who evaluates and makes judgements on tourism phenomenon including artists, researchers, locals, and those who work in tourism. The central question is what is the relationship between the individual and the crowd?

Papers that take an innovative approach to individuals and crowds in tourism by, for example, considering art, architecture, literature and other forms of media are particularly welcome.

Workshop session (1.5, 2.5): What is decent work in tourism and hospitality?

Session chairs: Åse Helene Bakkevig Dagsland *(University of Stavanger),* Tone Therese Linge, *(University of Stavanger)* and Tara Duncan *(Dalarna University).*

Even in 2022, tourism remains one of the largest export sectors of the global economy, providing jobs for millions of people worldwide. Aspects including international labor mobility and demographic changes contribute to the increasingly diverse tourism and hospitality workforce, presenting opportunities and challenges for the hospitality and tourism industry in terms of work conditions. Yet employment conditions in this sector remain regularly characterized by precarious working conditions, a higher occurrence of sexual harassment and a general lack of respect in comparison with employment in other sectors.

Challenging work conditions within this sector have only been amplified during the COVID-19 pandemic, and the industry is one of the sectors that has been most widely affected by the global pandemic. Current levels of global unrest, not only with the current conflict in the Ukraine, but also in many other parts of the world, further add to this complicated picture. Many of the workers most at risk consist of already vulnerable groups of employees such as women, migrant workers, young people, and informal workers with limited access to social protection due to informal or casual employment. The industry also faces severe challenges concerning recruitment and retention of qualified personnel. An increased focus on conditions of decent and sustainable employment in this industry as reflected in the United Nation's Sustainability Goal 8 – "inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all" – is necessary. The concept of "decent work" includes aspects such as respect, meaningful work, social protection, work rights, employment creation, social dialogue and workplace dignity.

This workshop session invites contributions that discuss various aspects concerning work conditions, decent work, and employment in the tourism and hospitality industry in light of complexity and changes in worklife due to globalization, crises and increased diversity. The aim of the session is to encourage dialogue and discussion. We invite short paper contributions (5-10 minutes maximum) that will be followed by an open session discussion of how central aspects concerning employment, workforce diversity and decent work in the tourism and hospitality industry are understood and managed on different levels and from various worklife perspectives including (but not limited to) employees, managers, trade unions, employers' associations and other relevant stakeholders.

Workshop session (4.4): City tourism development – The development for a desirable tourism futures – a discussion of ongoing and future research

Session chair: Göran Andersson *(Södertörn University)* and Saeid Abbasian *(Södertörn University)*

A majority of the population lives, and a significant share of their production takes place in urban areas in the world today. City tourism has increased considerably and has still a development potential.

In many cities the number of residents increases. Several have also started to plan regional city centres. They have specific functions such as "the smart city" using both today's popular smartphones services (apps) and new IT-solutions. Besides, when planning professional meetings digital solutions could be added.

Within the Smart city concept (Smart City Sweden, 2022) the city has to conduct urban planning and mobility where leisure activities have to be better planned for both residents and tourists. Mobility is important and can be seen as gateways from where visitors both start and partly experience their journey. Therefore, destination developers and tourist companies must plan a whole concept for the tourism product.

The function of tourism is embedded in a network of economic and social realities and therefore has a potential to develop destination employment and economy. This calls for new ways of policies concerning city development, where Destination Management Organisations (DMO) can contribute to a high degree.

However, because tourism is mobile in nature there is a risk that tourism may consume too much resources. This also raises questions related to climate change. Instead of using flights to far-away destinations, the use of public transport to domestic destinations will have to be given new

consideration. Residents' and visitors' use of the destination space can result in over tourism. Therefore, there is a need for attractions in new places, improved transport systems and better coordination of visitor streams within the city.

Furthermore, the Corona pandemic has caused severe problems for people's health. In addition, tourism and the hospitality industry have also got problems, which must be managed in a different way.

We invite both conceptual and empirical papers on challenges for future city destination tourism, in particular concerning development areas and problematic questions.

Symposium programme

NORDIC SYMPOSIUM

Tuesday 27 September

10.00 - 11.00 Optional city walk				
11.00 - 12.15 Registration & lunch				
12.15 – 12.30 Welcome				
12.30 – 13.30 Keynote speaker Nina K. Prebensen – Co-creating tourist experiences				
13.30 – 14.00 Break				
14.00 – 15.30 Parallel sessions 1.1.-1.5				
Session 1.1. Inclusive tourism	Session 1. 2. Innovation and resilience	Session 1.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development	Session 1.4. Entrepreneurship in tourism and hospitality	Session 1.5. Workshop: What is decent work in tourism and hospitality?
Chair: Jarmo Ritalahti	Chair: Susanna Saari	Chair: Johanna Heinonen	Chair: Maria Lexhagen	Chairs: Åse Helene Bakkevig Dagsland, Tone Therese Linge, Tara Duncan, Olga Gjerald
1. Branding the deep nation? The racialized representations of the Image Bank of Sweden *by Sayaka Osanami Törngren and Katarina Mattsson* 2. Migrant communities as invisible but active stakeholders for inclusive tourism development: the case of VFR tourism experiences of Italians and Chinese in Sweden *by Sara Fiorella* Viviana Licata and Sayaka Osanami Törngren 3. Political and relational co-creation for inclusive tourism development *by Helena Kraff and Eva Maria Jernsand* 4. Accessible Tourism in Norway – experiences and preferences from the traveler's point of view *by Karin Marie Antonsen, Ingeborg Nordbø, Merete Kvamme Fabritius, Viljar* Aasan, Trond Bliksvær, Reidun Jahnsen, Berit Gjessing and Torhild J. Solbakken	1. Future of Food: Cellular Agriculture & Hospitality and Tourism Research *by Aarni Tuomi, Iis Tussyadiah and Mário Ascenção* 2. Dynamics of digital innovation for rural tourism entrepreneurs in Iceland *by Magdalena Falter and Gunnar Thór Jóhannesson* 3. 'Pop-up' innovation labs as a tool for co-creation in experience-based tourism: a longitudinal case study *by Yati Yati and Dorthe Eide* 4. The post-pandemic values of meetings: innovation and resilience in the meetings industry *by Malin Andersson*	1. Desirable tourism futures: stakeholders' participation in local strategic planning for sustainable tourism in Orkney Islands *by Roitershtein Alona* 2. Smart Villages – participatory processes for sustainable rural development *by Gibson Laila, Braunerhielm Lotta and Kristensen Andersson Pernille* 3. Activating relational values for sustainable tourism development in Danish national and nature parks *by Tomej Kristof, Liburd Janne and Menke Birthe* 4. How green transition can change the self-image of small island communities and create a more climate-responsible hospitality industry *by Schønrock Nielsen Robert*	1. Swedish hoteliers' negative attitudes towards Halal and Muslim-friendly tourism: What reasons are behind? *by Abbasian Saeid, Onn Gustaf and Nordberg Denice* 2. Commodification of recreational hunting in Sweden – hunting tourism experiences as 'peculiar goods' *by Andersson Cederholm Erika and Sjöholm Carina* 3. Hotel managers perspective to the core service of the hotel *by Lvov Anatoly* 4. Business ecosystems of food festivals *by Kwiatkowski Gregory, Ossowska Luiza, Janiszewska Dorota and Kloskowski Dariusz*	1. Leading tourism organizations in present time of change *by Kaihua Heidi and Vähäkuopus Mari* 2. Meaningful Work in Tourism: A Literature Review *by Vähäkuopus Mari and García-Rosell José-Carlos* 3. Measuring the impact of tourism employment – Weighing the value of human capital *by Vähäkuopus Mari and Harju-Myllyaho Anu* 4. Job Insecurity as a Mediator Between Covid-19 Fear and Work Engagement: An Empirical Study in the Norwegian Service Industry *by Unur Mert and Arasli Huseyin*
15.30 – 15.45 Break				
15.45 – 17.15 Parallel sessions 2.1.-2.5.				
Session 2.1. Inclusive tourism	Session 2.2. Innovation and resilience	Session 2.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development	Session 2.4. Entrepreneurship in tourism and hospitality	Session 2.5. Workshop: What is decent work in tourism and hospitality? (Discussion session)
Chair: Eva Holmberg	Chair: Peter Björk	Chair: Johanna Heinonen	Chair: Kaarina Tervo-Kankare	Chairs: Åse Helene Bakkevig Dagsland, Tone Therese Linge, Tara Duncan, Olga Gjerald
1. Self-Directed or Attractions-Directed? Intergenerational Difference of Chinese Female Tourist's Selfies in Digital Society *by Danping Liu and Arja Lemmetyinen* 2. Seniors still travel and eat meals, or is it not so among marketers of Scandinavia? *by Kai Victor Myrnes-Hansen* 3. Accessible for pets but not for persons with a disability? *by Helene Maristuen*	1. The Role of Portable Outdoor Devices in Risk Assessment of Visitors to Remote Areas: Continuation Study *by Konstantin Gridnevskiy* 2. Value co-creation in online experiences *by Petra Paloniemi, José-Carlos García-Rosell and Minni Haanpää* 3. Taking back the Winter Night in Rondane: Designing and delimiting night sky observation places *by Gudrun Helgadottir, Per Strömberg, Helga Iselin Wåseth, Veronika Zaikina and Are Røysamb* 4. Co-creating innovations for sustainability: Stakeholders and their roles *by Maziliauske Evelina,*	1. Towards Smart and Strategic Place-Brand Engagement *by Pohjola Tuomas, Aalto Johanna and Lemmetyinen Arja* 2. Local acceptance of tourism-based sharing economy *by Jutila Salla* 3. Future narratives from a 'gone destination' *by Müller Sarah, Rantala Outi and Höckert Emily*	1. The impact of local food festivals on the rural areas development – case study *by Ossowska Luiza, Janiszewska Dorota, Kloskowski Dariusz and Kwiatkowski Grzegorz* 2.What is the relationship between the tourist individual and the tourist group? *By Øgaard Torvald, Larsen Svein, Wolff Katharina, Doran Rouven and Tran Kvalsvik Fifi* 3. There is no business like snow business – The Finnish snow culture as a basis for creation of tourism experiences *by Kurhinen Antti Petteri and Moilanen Niina*	1. "Name the 10 most disturbing issues in hospitality work today": Creating a Manifesto for Hospitality Work *by Gjerald Olga, Robinson Richard, Linge Tone, Baum Tom and Hadjisolomou Anastasios*

	W. F. Ryan Anne, Høegh Guldberg Olga and Eide Dorthe		4. Artisan food producers balance between tradition and innovation in the pursuit of growth *by Kwiatkowski Grzegorz, Gjøstien Karevoll Gurid, n ÅrethunTorbjør and Nytun Leirdal Ali Kristin*	
18.30 - Get-together				

Wednesday 28 September

9.00 – 10.30 Parallel sessions 3.1.-3.5.				
Session 3.1. Learning, teaching and education in tourism and hospitality	Session 3.2. Work force and resilience	Session 3.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development	Session 3.4. Sustainable Behaviour in Tourism and Hospitality	Session 3.5. Workshop Advancements in Event & Festival Research
Chair: Sanna-Mari Renfors	Chair: Juulia Räikkönen	Chair: Minni Haanpää	Chair: Siamak Seyfi	Chairs: Tommy D. Andersson, John Armbrecht, Erik Lundberg
1. Closing Skills Gaps in Coastal and Maritime Tourism in European Collaboration *by Renfors Sanna-Mari, Kärp Margrit, Grinfelde Ilze and Veliverronena Linda* 2. Design Sprint Goes China – a case study of competences and cultural lessons learnt in a remote sprint with Chinese students *by Konttinen Annika and Moilanen Niina* 3. Real Problems – Real Competence? Does using real Business Challenges give robust Knowledge: Case Study of Attraction Development Course doing undergraduate research in Stockholm southern Archipelago *by Onn Gustaf* 4. Have your reality and simulate it too! Comparing two problem-based learning approaches for sustainability education in destination development *by Broker-Bulling Fie, Liu Shuangqi, Paul Leonie, Danley Brian and Persson-Fischier Ulrika*	1. Temporary Workers and Labor Productivity in the Hospitality Industry: A Global Outlook *by Xie Jinghua, Zhang Dengjun and Sikveland Marius* 2. Implementing inquiry learning at Haaga-Helia Porvoo Campus by *Ritalahti Jarmo and Holmberg Eva* *3.* A media place approach to resilience in tourism studies *by Månsson Maria and Eksell Jörgen* 4. Building service quality: Education and training challenges in small tourism companies in Iceland *by Ásgeirsson Magnús, Johnnaesson Gunnar Thór*	1. Biodiversity and tourism: the institutional landscape of international cooperative initiatives *by Negacz Katarzyna* 2. The role of conflicting logics in sustainable destination development: the case of Christiansø *by Boesen Morten* 3. What happens if residents do not map? Rethinking "Public" and "Participation" in Public Participation GIS *by Waleghwa Beatrice and Heldt Tobias* 4. Boosting Smart Place-Brand Engagement – University as a Strategic Facilitator *by Pohjola Tuomas, Aalto Johanna and Lemmetyinen Arja*	1. Opportunities and Challenges of Using Local Food Products in Restaurants *by Seidel Sarah* 2. The influence of values on motivations for sustainable behaviour. Theory and evidence from the Dutch SME entrepreneurs in tourism *by Vrenegoor Femke* 3. Worries, values, and traits of tourists abroad during covid-19 *by Roos John Magnus* 4. Social comparison in tourism *by Larsen Svein, Wolff Katharina, Øgaard Torvald, Doran Rouven and Marnburg Einar*	1. Finnish Rhythm Music Festivals: Post-Pandemic Market Situation *by Kinnunen Maarit, Koivisto Juha and Honkanen Antti* 2. Needs, Needs Satisfaction and Happiness in an Event Context by *Andersson Tommy D, Lambrecht John and Lundberg Erik* 3. Sport, events and organised outdoor activities - environmental considerations in permission processes *by Eriksson Axel, Pettersson Robert and Wall-Reinius Sandra* 4. Event sustainability according to Swedish event organizers – mapping communication of sustainability *by Lundberg Erik, Armbrecht John and Runesson Emmeli*
10.30 – 11.00 Break				
11.00 – 12.30 Parallel sessions 4.1.-4.5.				
Session 4.1. Destinations and resilience	Session 4.2. Responsibility	Session 4.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development	Session 4.4. Workshop: City tourism development	Session 4.5. Workshop: Nordic Coastal Tourism Communities in Transition
Chair: Raija Komppula	Chair: Siamak Seyfi	Chair: Per Åke Nilsson	Chairs: Göran Andersson and Saeid Abbasian	Chairs: Hin Hoarau-Heemstra, Albina Pashkevich, Karin Wigger, Laura James

1. Social sustainability and second homes: Accommodating the utilization of second home owners as a resource in local place- and business development *by Blumenthal Veronica* 2. How networks between DMOS promote sustainable and resilience *by Kaaya Neema* 3. Engaging workshops as a method in design of field experiments and behavioural interventions: The case of climate-friendly food choices at a Swedish mountain tourism destination *by Nowak Marie, Lexhagen Maria and Heldt Tobias* 4. A synthesis of safari operator's resilience towards climate change: a multiple case study by *Giarra Carolin*	1. Facilitating Participatory Approaches To Sustainable Tourism Development *by Menke Birthe* 2. Memorable nature experiences of future tourists – a study based on visualized and written material collected from Finnish adolescents *by Puhakka Riikka, Hakoköngäs Eemeli and Peura Saana* 3.Literature review: Responsibility in the Tourism Sharing Economy *by Rahikainen Kati* 4. Hospitality in online service encounters in tourism, case Finnish Lapland *by Hanni-Vaara Päivi, Paloniemi Petra, Kähkönen Outi, Yrjö Koskenniemi*	1. The influence of a sustainability programme in tourism enterprises *by Tervo-Kankare Kaarina and Ridanpää Roosa* 2. Stakeholder dialogue and relationship management in the Swedish tourism industry *by Björner Emma* 3. In the quest for biodiversity-respective leadership in sustainable tourism *by Räikkönen Juulia, Konu Henna, Grénman Miia and Tyrväinen Liisa* 4. Tourism Industry Representations – An Unintentional Baltic Sea Region Geography in the Making *by Widholm Christian*	1. Smart attractive sustainable cities - Visit functional supply and visitor experience demand in a city destination *by Andersson Göran* 2. The communication for resilience of urban destinations during the COVID-19 pandemic *by Eksell Jörgen and Månsson Maria* 3. City innovation as resonance - the case of outdoor offices and conferences in the open-air museum *by Andersson Malin* 4. Smart rural – peripheral destinations, urban solutions? *By Hakkarainen Maria, Haanpää Minni, Lusikka Toni and Pihlajamaa Olli*	1. Developing wave surfing tourism in Norway: Three cases *by Mykletun Reidar* 2. Story telling as the answer? Does the story telling aspirations of a destination management/marketing organisation in Stockholm southern Archipelago really address the profitability problems of tourist entrepreneurs? *by Onn Gustaf* 3. Sustainable cruise tourism? A comparison between two island destinations *by Persson-Fischier Ulrika and Marta Sveinsdóttir Ása*
12.30 – 13.30 Lunch				
13.30 – 14.30 Keynote speaker Iis Tussyadiah – Making intelligent human-machine interaction works for tourism				
14.30 – 15.00 Break				
15.00 – 16.30 Special session: 20 years of Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism				
19.00 – Dinner / Dress code: smart casual				

Thursday 29 September

9.00 – 10.30 Parallel sessions 5.1.-5.5.				
Session 5.1. Co-creating sustainability (from marketing point of view)	Session 5.2. Current research into decent work in tourism and hospitality	Session 5.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development	Session 5.4. Workshop: The Individual and the mass – rethinking relations	
Chair: Miia Grenman	Chair: Tone Therese Linge	Chair: Riikka Puhakka	Chair: Hazel Andrews and Vilhelmiina Vainikka	
1. Wellness Tourism Motivations: A Multiple Case Study *by Bočkus Daumantas, Vento Elli, Tammi Timo, Komppula Raija and Kolesnikova Natalia* 2. Sources of three dimensions of interactive value formation in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic: Airbnb guest's perspectives *by Sthapit Erose and Bjork Peter* 3. Does national heritage and mythology interest as part of a tourism product? – Case Kalevala & Japanese segment *by Pulkkinen Tuuli and Pasanen Katja* 4. Making sense of multisensory experiences in nature *by Palo-Oja Outi-Maaria*	1. Leadership in the Nordic Hospitality Industry: Comparison of the Five Nordic Countries *by Haavisto Veera* 2. Dignity and respect at work: Norwegian hospitality workers' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic *by Therese Linge Tone, Gjerald Olga, Arasli Huseyin, Bakkevig Dagsland Åse Helene, Myrnes-Hansen Kai Victor and Furunes Trude* 3. Socializing chefs into the world of work – acceptance or resignation? A Norwegian/Australian case *by Helene Dagsland Åse, Robinson Richard N.S. and Brenner Mathew L.* 4. Taking 'stock': Taking an intersectional approach to sexual harassment in tourism and hospitality in a Nordic context *by Duncan Tara, Thulemark Maria, Linge Tone, Gjerald Olga, Helene Bakkevig Daglsland Åsa, Myrnes-Hansen Kai Victor, Trude Furunes and Júlíusdóttir Magnfríður*	1. Proposing an Ethical Management Framework for Wildlife Tourism Activities: Stakeholder Participation in Seal Watching in Iceland *by Burns Georgette Leah, Aquino Jessica and Granquist Sandra* 2. Social sustainability and supply chain management in tourism. The case of Iceland *by Gunnarsdóttir Guðrún, Helgadóttir Guðrún, Effah-Kesse Doris, Bjarnadóttir Eyrún and Burns Georgette* 3. The role of food festivals in promoting culinary heritage *by Janiszewska Dorota, Kwiatkowski Grzegorz, Ossowska Luiza and Kloskowski Dariusz*	1. Understanding the Tourist in the Crowd: Erika Adamsson's Art as Interpreter of Mass Tourism *by Vainikka Vilhelmiina and Andrews Hazel* 2. Regenerative tourism: perspectives and potential for Finland – a buzzword or an opportunity for a transformational system change? *by Konttinen Annika and Holmberg Eva* 3. The "home-is-safer-than-abroad-bias" in tourists' perceptions of terrorism risk *by Wolff Katharina, Larsen Svein, Øgaard Torvald and Doran Rouven*	

10.30 – 10.45 Break
10.45 – 11.45 Keynote speaker Jarkko Saarinen – Governing resilience and inclusivity in tourism: towards sustainable development goals
11.45 – 12.00 Closing words
12.00 – 13.00 Farewell lunch

Session 1.1. Inclusive tourism

1. Branding the deep nation? The racialized representations of the Image Bank of Sweden

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Introduction and aim

Like many other countries, Swedish authorities and tourism organizations have invested significantly in strategies to brand Sweden, often using social platforms and technologies. Among the more attention-grabbing activities that can be mentioned we find the Swedish Institutes launch of virtual embassy in the platform "Second life" (Bengtsson, 2011), the twitter account @sweden which was curated by ordinary Swedes during one week respectively (Christensen, 2013). The innovative campaign "Call a Swede" allowed people from all over the world to call a phone number in Sweden and talk with a random Swede, andeven won the Direct Lions Grand Prix at the Cannes Lions festival 2016.

In this paper we examine the visual representations of Sweden and Swedes in the "Image Bankof Sweden", which contains images free of use when presenting Sweden abroad. The image bank is administered by the Swedish Institute and Visit Sweden with cooperative efforts withBusiness Swede and the Swedish Government Offices. According to regulation "the images and videos in the image bank may not be used in Sweden for a Swedish target audience". Theimage bank is only one of many activities in which visual images of Sweden are communicatedto an international audience, which follows the communicative platform developed by the Board for the Promotion of Sweden Abroad (NSU). The purpose of the platform is to contribute to a uniformly communicated image of Sweden based on the idea of a progressivesociety, the Swedes' natural lifestyle and a picturesque scenery.[1]

The purpose of the paper is to investigate how the Image Bank conveys an image of Sweden and the Swedish population, and whether the image reflects the diversity of the Swedish society and people in terms of ethnicity, race and gender. We critically examine the heterogeneity and homogeneity of pictures in the Image bank, and how different bodies are represented in different aspects of Swedish society.

Literature review

In an era of global capitalism, nation states are increasingly competing for tourist flows, economic capital and global reputation through strategies of "nation branding" and thus engaging in a "global business of national identities" (Aronczyk, 2013). Briefly nation brandingcan be defined as coordinated strategies to manage and influence the image of specific country on the global scene. As such, nation branding is predominantly top-down processes and undemocratic procedures, which excludes certain aspects of culture and society (Chang 2012; Del Bono 2020; Bolin& Ståhlberg 2010). As Volcic and Andrejevic (2011) argues, nationalbranding frames the nation-state as an "enterprise" in a way that fits the logic of "commercialnationalism". In nation branding, the image of a country is often reduced to a handful of pictures and "catchy slogans", and becomes treated as "a form av capital" (s.602)

While previous research on Nation branding has argued that modern national branding differsradically from more traditional forms of nationalism (Bohlin & Ståhlberg, 2010), we argue thatnation branding may indeed reproduce a more traditional nationalist imagery for the purposeof marketing a country abroad. In nation branding the main audience is found outside the borders of the country, but the self-representation of a country will also reach an internal national audience and communicate a message of who belongs to the nation and who does not. Moreover, images of the country Sweden are closely linked to images and definitions of the populations of "Swedes", especially since strategies for national branding are often slipping between notions of the nation-as-state and notions of nation-as-people (Widler, 2007).

Methodology

The methodological approach consists of a multimodal critical discourse analysis, which emphasizes that the cultural

meaning of discourses is co-constructed through written texts and visual images (Jancsary et al., 2016; Kress & Van Leeuwen 1996, 2001; Machin, 2013).

The analyzed material consists of images presented in the Image Bank of Sweden, which have been coded into broad thematic categories by the administrating organization. For theanalysis we have selected images that are coded to include images of people. From a total of 2854 pictures including people in the image bank, we specifically analyze images that aretagged as nature (771), culture (257), education & research (475), symbols & traditions (290)and society & lifestyle (1264). Attached to the images are short descriptive texts.

The analysis of the material is carried out in four steps. In the first step, we systematically code the pictures to conduct descriptive quantitative analysis on the representation of racial,ethnic and gender diversity, thus "counting heads". In the second step, we conduct qualitative analysis of selection of pictures and the texts attached to the picture. The visual material is described in terms of its most manifest meaning, with a focus on the activities and practices the images show cast. In the third step, an in-depth analysis of the broader structures of meaning in the material is carried out. This step includes an articulation of thelatent meanings of the visual and textural material in order to identify implicit assumptions and suppositions. In the last step, a theoretically informed interpretation of the material is carried out, with the aim of reconstructing the broader social and interdiscursive contexts ofthe material (Jancsary et al., 2016).

Conclusions

In our analysis, we highlight how the image of Sweden is two-sided. One the one hand, representations of societal progressiveness, such as education and urban lifestyles, are moreracially diverse and inclusive. On the other hand, representations of cultural traditions as wellas natural and rural environments are predominantly represented as spaces exclusive for white Swedes. The effect of this is that while representations of Sweden as a country has become more racially diverse, the visual representation of Swedes are still reproducing traditional notions of Sweden as racially homogenous and rooted in the natural territory andcultural traditions. Our conclusion is that the branding of Sweden is constructed around the notion of "a deep nation" (Anthias & Yuval-Davis, 1992), an inner white space from which racial "outsiders" are still excluded. Thus, the promotion of Sweden outwardly has significantsocial and political consequences for the racially diverse population of Sweden.

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2. Migrant communities as invisible but active stakeholders for inclusive tourism development: the case of VFR tourism experiences of Italians and Chinese in Sweden

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Introduction and aim of research

In times of need for global change and redefinition of socio-economic patterns called by environmental issues, global inequalities and the recent global immobility caused by the Covid-19 crisis, discussions have arisen to re-think priorities and re-imagine the present and the futureand values of our societies. This has deeply affected the tourism industry and contributed to a shift in priorities resulting in increasingly valuing sustainability, not only at environmental level, but also as social level, working towards inclusion and respectful development, and finding alternative solutions in cooperation with local communities.

Recent debates in tourism development and place branding have highlighted the importance ofactive participation of every stakeholder in the co-creation of tourist activities or renovations for more inclusive and effective processes of place making as well as for a more sustainable and respectful development of the tourism industry (Karavatzis et al., 2017). The involvementof the whole community in a multicultural society also implies the consideration and participation of the different ethnic communities present in the area, who might be quite small in rural environment, but quite large and diverse in urban places. Despite the tendency to thinkat migrants as disadvantaged groups little involved in tourism and leisure, it is important to notice that migrant communities are internally diverse including different social classes and economic situation with different mobility power, interests, and access to several tourist activities. Moreover, they are actively part of the often-overlooked VFR tourism mobilities, which are bi-directional in nature (Larsen et al., 2007; Williams and Hall, 2002) and almost absent in tourism marketing and tourism product development.

This article addresses the particular sector of VFR tourism mobilities, concentrating on the migrant host's tourism experiences in multicultural society in times of mobility and immobilityby exploring their visiting patterns and how they have changed during this time of pandemic. Itaims at investigating the role of personal networks on place interaction and participation duringtourism leisure activities by analyzing the VFR tourist experiences of highly skilled Italian andChinese migrants in Sweden.

Literature review

Despite the recognized importance of the combination of leisure and inclusion (Horolets, 2012;Shinew et al., 2004) and the increasing presences of migrant communities in our societies, studies on tourism participation of migrants are extremely rare, recent, and often limited to routinary leisure patterns or sports activities (Frykman et al., 2020; Marucco, 2020). However,tourism is also and especially something exceptional and connected to particular periods or events, also included visits of relatives and friends and there are several studies that highlight the relevance of such visits as catalysts for the migrant hosts to explore and participate in tourism activities at local level (Dutt et al., 2016; Dutt and Ninov, 2017; Jackson, 1990; Shani and Uriely, 2012) The migrant host takes the role of an ambassador and a gatekeeper and adoptstourist-like behaviours and expenditure patterns (Backer, 2007, 2008, 2010; Young et al., 2007)
,which is particularly relevant for DMOs and the tourism industry (Backer and Hay, 2015; Backer and King, 2015). Moreover, due to the particular patterns of VFR tourism, the environmental impact is minor (Becken et al., 2003). It is also relevant for the society as a whole, which might gain in both economic capital and socio-cultural capital (Griffin, 2013; Griffin and Guttentag, 2020). Moreover, the interaction between host-guest-place creates opportunities for creation of new memories and feelings as well as offers the space for discussion, exchange and negotiation of opinions, ideas, and socio-cultural elements, which can influence the feelings of participation in the place and of inclusion or exclusion in the society both positively (Griffin, 2017; Humbracht, 2015) and negatively (AlSaleh and Moufakkir, 2019) with potential effects on future travel patterns and choices.

Methodology

An exploratory approach based on heuristic processes of reflection and ongoing definition andadjustment has inspired and informed the research design, the definition of the theoretical framework, and the choice of the method of data collection and interpretation, while a co- participatory approach inspired by the participatory research has influenced the interview design and structure. The theoretical framework is constructed by the

interplay of interdisciplinary concepts of personal network, mobility/immobility, and place as relational and experiential. Data were collected through 14 semi-structured interviews with open-endedquestions exploring experiences before and during immobility times and with a participatory activity of personal network visualization composed by two participatory tools: two name generation tables and a participant-aided target sociogram. Both were tailored for the purpose of the work, thus graphically divided by geographical location (international/national) and typeof network member (relatives /friends) and the target sociogram was organized by frequency ofvisit. The overall idea was to actively and consciously involve the respondents in the co-creationof the research material and to offer them the opportunity to visualize and reflect of the data creation. This was aimed at reducing the power imbalances always present during research process by sharing and negotiating information.

Results and argumentation

Results have shown that highly skilled migrants are very active in tourism activities especiallywhen receiving visits of friends and relatives responding to the need of being good hosts but also taking the chance to enjoy time and experiences together with important people, while showing landmarks or interesting places or participating in particular activities. Much of the choice is influenced by the different expectations and tastes of the guests, but also by the host'sdesire of showing the best of the place of settlement. In general, patterns of visits, frequency and length of stay are highly dependent on the personal network composition, the geographicaldistance and the role of the guest (friend, relative): relatives tend to stay longer and spend moretime in family activities and local areas; friends tend to stay less but involve more their hosts invisiting and exploring. Overall, experiences with both relatives and friends result in intercultural exchanges, observations and comments that contribute to the reflections, awareness and host'spositionality negotiation in society.

On the other hand, results have also shown the effect of the temporary immobility and a pausein international mobility and visits on their travel patterns, which have followed interestingly similar patterns of the local population: a discovery or re-discovery of the local tourist spots and especially a more frequent participation in activities in the nature and the exploration of natural parks and rural attractions. Some of these activities and places were fairly new to somerespondents who got used to them and started to understand and appreciate them. Although international travel is still preferred for personal holiday because considered better value-for- money, the "forced participation" has allowed for discovery of new local places.

Finally, a methodological observation is that the use of memory recollection activity and participant-aided visualization tools are effective for a better exploration of the experiences and also to actively involve the participant in the co-creation of the material and help to reduce thedistance and improve the connection because the attention is focused on a "third" object.

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)

In conclusion, the role of highly skilled migrants as active participants to tourist places and activities in VFR leisure context has emerged from this preliminary study suggesting interestingpotentiality for future tourism research for a more inclusive development and marketing strategies. Instead of limiting the research attention to whom is considered part of the native society, by widening the scope of research to the migrant communities, not only will it be moreinclusive, but also would involve a part of society which is usually invisible and open new developing opportunities. In this view, one factor to consider is the host role as primary consumer, gatekeeper, ambassador, and intercultural mediator, which becomes important whentending towards a more inclusive tourism development or place branding. Another factor is therole of personal networks experienced in VFR leisure context in influencing migrants' relationship to, interaction with, and perception of the place. Moreover, this interaction and exchange with closed ones might lead to self-reflection on one's own positionality and future life perspectives, which might also mirror inclusion/exclusion feelings. Lastly, the patterns emerged during the pandemic immobility times have pointed out some similarities with the long-term native community and also suggested how, in case of less choice, the attention couldbe switched towards the local and rural tourism. Therefore, there might be potentiality of involving the migrant communities also in different activities which are usually not consideringthem as possible participants. This branch of tourism research oriented towards the inclusion ofminorities and diversity might open up new possibilities for developing inclusive tourism and society, offering also chances of intercultural exchange and social participation.

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3. Political and relational co-creation for inclusive tourism development

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Introduction

Co-creation no longer only refers to value creation between customers and service providers, as in the early work by Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004) or Vargo and Lush (2006). The complexity of tourism implies a need for co-creation between various stakeholders across organizational borders and hierarchies, as well as between society, public, private and academic actors (Ramaswamy & Gouillart, 2010). Multi-level collaboration, inclusion and participation in tourism have even become norm within academia, and co-creation is an ideological force in national and regional tourism management organizations (Nunkoo et al, 2020; Phi & Dredge, 2019). Interpretations of co-creation have also expanded to include aspects of power, agency and accountability, making it a political act, in which a number of different actors, not least public entities, have the ability or authority to achieve control over place stakeholders (Phi & Dredge, 2019). This paper aims to expand on and further develop two important points in Phi & Dredge's (2019) nine-point agenda that guides future co-creative practices in tourism: co- creation as a political act (point 5), and the relational work involved in co-creation (9). We specifically point to agency regarding multiculturalism, and how the different ways that peoplepractice agency affect relational work. The purpose is to critically explore the agency and negotiating relationships involved in multilevel and multicultural co-creation for tourism development. The exploration builds on the authors' experiences from working as action- oriented researchers in a small municipality in Sweden, where co-creative processes for tourism development were initiated to engage stakeholders across and outside of the organization. In addition to tourism literature, we use an interdisciplinary theoretical framework on racism, ethnicity and integration (Essed, 1996; Hage, 2000; Gruber, 2015; Alaraj, 2018), which allowsfor deeper examination of issues connected to marginalized and privileged groups. We also useliterature that examines the role of official and strategic documents as agents in co-creative processes (e.g., Ahmed, 2007).

Literature review

Co-creation has expanded from being predominantly rational to a more relational scientific view of the world that also includes local communities as co-creators (Phi & Dredge, 2019, Powell & Dépelteau, 2013). This perspective goes in line with the idea of inclusive tourism (Scheyvens and Biddulph, 2018). Studies on inclusive tourism originally focused on functionality and disabilities, and the importance of tourism becoming accessible to all people, irrespective of their physical and intellectual abilities (Coppola et al., 2012; Gillovic et al., 2018;Nyanjom et al., 2018). More recently this focus has expanded to also include marginalized groups in society (Scheyvens and Biddulph, 2018) and the underlying idea that people should be able to take part in political processes that affect them (Salazar, 2012). However, in an eventand cultural context, Fletcher and Hylton (2017) recognize a lack of policy and academic debates on 'race' and racism, ethnicity and whiteness. Other studies show that individuals of minority groups may become bearers of multiculturalism in their workplace, as representativesof their ethnic group (Essed, 1996; Hage, 2000; Gruber, 2015; Alaraj, 2018). When they are mainly sought after for their cultural competence, their tasks risk being to train colleagues in 'cultural issues' rather than using their professional competence. Thereby, they may end up in marginalized or subsidiary positions, being outsiders within the organization (Hill Collins, 1986, 1999).

As many fashionable terms, co-creation is open to interpretation and "prone to abstraction" (Phi& Dredge, 2019, p 285). Regarding the equally elusive concept of diversity, Ahmed (2007), points to how documents are seen "as signs of good performance, commitment and asdescriptions of organizations 'being' diverse" (Ibid, p 590). Such documents attribute certain characteristics to organizations and point towards future positive measures. However, the responsibility of taking action depends on how the document is written. An organization can authorize (sign) it with conscious or unconscious responsibility of an individual or group, and thereby at the same time refuse responsibility. Also, organizations may perform an image of themselves as 'doing well', while obscuring the fact that no real work takes place ('tick-box approach') (Ibid, 2007). For instance, Ahmed, having been involved in writing policy documents on diversity for universities, found that "having a 'good' race equality policy got quickly translated into being good at race equality" (p. 597).

Methodology

The case study is based in a small municipality in Sweden, which, as Sweden in general, received a large number of refugees 2012-2015 in connection to the war in Syria. The authors were actively engaged with the municipality in co-creative processes for about five years (2017-2022). These include a project cutting across four municipalities in the region aiming for increased innovation capacity, a project investigating the future of tourism information agencies, and a project aiming for increased awareness of sustainability and inclusivity in relation to events. All projects centered around tourism development, and the collaboration with mainly two municipal employees, at the department for sustainable development, deepened astime passed.

The research methodology is based on emergent strategy, common in action research, meaningthat researchers (and other engaged actors) adapt to complexity and uncertainty, and that each step in the process provides a starting point for the next (Trift, 1976). Agency, and how peoplepractice their agency and in turn affect relational work, was not the original research focus in any of the projects. However, as recurring instances appeared where collaboration was hinderedor affected by interpersonal or interorganizational relations, this area of interest emerged. The authors then went back to older notes and interview transcripts to identify and analyse politicalacts and relational work involved in multilevel and multicultural co-creation for tourism development. Some of these issues were also reflected upon in conversation with the two maincollaborators at the municipality. The empirical material consists of notes from meetings and emails with municipality officials, five transcribed interviews with event actors, transcriptionsfrom two online workshops with municipality officials, two public workshops during events organized by the municipality, an internal investigation for sustainable events (to which the authors gave feed-back), and an official programme for sustainable events.

Results and discussion

The authors and the officials with whom they worked closely together belong to the majority group as they are white, born and raised in Sweden and have no disabilities or other characteristics that risk being aspects of exclusion. In the latter project, we therefore sought togain insight into the needs and wishes of different minority groups regarding inclusion and co-creation in events and event organization. However, in surveys and in internal and public workshops, the majority of respondents and participants belonged to the majority group. For the part of the immigrant group, a municipality employed community guide was interviewed and assisted the team in translating a survey into Arabic, and later in translating the Arabic responses to Swedish. This gave the team crucial cultural insight of a minority group. When the authors in addition to this suggested the community guide to co-lead a workshop with them, where the immigrant community could share event experiences, it caused friction between two municipal departments regarding the community guide's work tasks. The question arose whether the employee should be doing cross-departmental work or only withinworking life administration? This indicates that different departments may have different views of co-creation. Some may not see the point of allowing their

staff members to assist in co-creative processes in other departments, whilst other departments are tasked to work acrossborders. It also exemplifies how a person of a minority group is made into a bearer of multiculturalism (Essed, 1996), continuously sought after due to his/her cultural competence (Arabic culture in relation to events, and access to a minority group) rather than their professional expertise (guiding people into a new society).

Being involved in municipal relation work, the authors also saw signs of what Ahmed (2007) call 'the tick-box approach', where organizations intend to 'do well' in documents, but that is not the same as actually being good in, as in this case, matters of inclusion. As Phi and Dredge(2019) point out, co-creation becomes an abstract metaphor, without principles relevant to the context. Conscious or unconscious agency makes co-creation eviscerated through roles, assignments, missions and individual preferences. An example from this study is municipal investigations that cover the broad area of sustainability in relation to events. The investigationmay clearly state the meaning of inclusivity, that inclusion of a diversity of groups is importantfor sustainable events, and that knowledge from such groups are crucial in event development.However, in instances when documents are to be signed, such details are removed and visible only through the statement that events need to be inclusive. Since the signed document is the steering document, the investigation itself risks not being read. The practical implementation isthen dependent on how individuals and groups approach the documents.

Yet another hindrance for co-creation and inclusion in political systems is when municipality officials are unfamiliar with the issues of groups they should cater to. In this study, we found that the proposal to include representatives from minority groups in a new event council was hindered by officials wanting to include such groups only when issues related to this group arose. As constant awareness of real-life issues experienced by minority groups is a prerequisitefor actual inclusion, such an approach of keeping co-creation within the municipality organizations hinders inclusion.

Conclusion

This study points to co-creation as a political act and to the relational work involved in it. Bothaspects are part of the Phi & Dredge's (2019) nine-point agenda to guide future co-creative practices in tourism. We conclude that abstraction of co-creation and inclusion risks watering down the concepts to not include feasible guidance for action, and that marginalized groups riskcontinued exclusion. We also point to the aspect of multiculturalism, which is not included in Phi and Dredge's agenda. Knowledge about all aspects of inclusion is needed in all parts of a process and from all tourism stakeholders (i.e., in working groups and event councils), why they must be included in steering documents. Also, reaching inclusion demands a larger presence of minority groups in municipality organizations, to hinder them being overexploited,torn between departments and made into carriers of their ethnicity.

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4. Accessible Tourism in Norway – experiences and preferences from the traveler's point of view

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Introduction and aim of the research

In this paper we will present results from the ongoing research project "ACCESSTOUR – Accessible tourism for inclusion and value creation in rural areas" funded by the Norwegian Research Council. The aim of the project is to strengthen the sustainability of local communitiesin rural areas by the development of a more inclusive and accessible tourism through innovation, and by reaching out to new markets. The study takes place within the context of nature-based and rural destinations dominated by small enterprises (SMEs). The aim will be achieved through developing knowledge and generic models, processes, and methodologies tobe implemented by SMEs, Destination Management Organizations, and public sector. ACCESSTOUR is a collaborative project with partners representing researchers, the tourism sector, the public sector, and NGOs.

The lack of knowledge concerning nature-based tourism experiences of people with disabilities are highlighted by e.g. Burns et al. (2009) and Chikuta et al. (2019). According to McAvoy and colleges (2006), people with disabilities prefer natural surroundings to be just aspristine and challenging as do people without any disabilities. However, Burns et al. (2013) has revealed that visitors with disabilities are sometimes prevented from participating in outdoor activities because of a perception of higher risk. Three broad categories of barriers that hinder people with disabilities from participating in touristic activities have been identified by Eichhorn and Buhalis (2010): A) limited physical access (e.g. inaccessible transportation, accommodation facilities and attractions (Domingues et. al., 2018) B) attitudinal barriers, (the negative attitudes regarding disabled's participation in tourism (Daruwalla & Darcy, 2005).) C) lack of information (Bardal, 2020; Domingues et al., 2018; Eichhorn & Buhalis, 2010; Nordbø, Fabritius, Bliksvær and Antonsen, 2021).

This particular paper will present results from a survey with the main goal of increasing the knowledge on experiences with traveling and accessibility information, as well as on travelingpreferences, among people with different abilities.

Literature review

Accessible Tourism is not about providing separate services for separate niches in the tourismmarkets (Cerutti et.al., 2020; Buhalis, Darcy, & Ambrose, 2012). According to Darcy and Dickson (2009, p. 34) accessible tourism *"is a form of tourism that enables people with access requirements, including mobility, vision, hearing and cognitive dimensions of access, to function independently and with equity and dignity through the delivery of universally designed tourism products, services and environments."* This definition is inclusive and holdsall people - including those travelling with children in prams, people with temporary and permanent disabilities and seniors.

WHO estimates that more than one billion people experience some form of disability, and it isestimated that about 1 million people in Norway do have functional impairments. Within the EU, there are currently 140 million people with disabilities or specific access requirements, and it is estimated that European destinations loose € 142 billion annually, due to a lack of facilitation (Eichhorn et al., 2014).

The awareness of the potentials in Accessible Tourism has been limited in Norwegian research and tourism industry. In a recent market survey regarding Norwegian camping sites (Norsk Turistutvikling, 2020), 51% of the respondents expressed needs related to facilitation.

A main question in the ACCESSTOUR-project is to what extent a more inclusive perspective can contribute to a widening of market opportunities for the tourism industry. According to Kim et al. (2015) today's elderly seeks active, fulfilling, and adventurous experiences for theirpost-work lives, though, the ageing population that we are now facing are likely to increase the demand for accessible facilitations in the tourism sector. Furthermore, we

believe that a more inclusive perspective in the tourism sector can contribute to public health, better life quality for local citizen, to counter out-migration, and to the operationalization and implementation of UNs sustainable development goals (UN SDGs) and their principles of "Leaving no one behind". Especially target 11.2, 11.7 and 11a under Goal 11; *Make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable* and target 12.6, 12.7 and 12b under Goal 12; *Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns.* Improving the accessibility and information to customers with different abilities also conforms with the strategic plans of destinations in Norway working to be labelled as Sustainable Destinations under the national program and labelling scheme "Sustainable Destination – local engagement in a long perspective" (visitnorway.com) where criterium D8-3 directly address how destinations facilitate for accessibility for people with disabilities.

According to McKercher and Darcy (2018) research has often treated people with disabilities as a homogenous group, ignoring the wide array of disability categories. A "one-size-fits-all" approach in examining barriers to participation, hinders a systematic understanding, and the resolution of problems that people with disabilities face in the context of tourism (Eichhorn &Buhalis, 2010). People with vision and hearing impairments, families with children who havedisabilities or persons with intellectual disabilities are often overlooked or omitted in research(Godtman Kling & Ioannides, 2019). We concur with Chikuta and colleges (2019) in arguing for a holistic framework that can increase the understanding of individual needs and help tourism providers away from the "one size fits all" approach that continues to dominate.

Methods

A comprehensive questionnaire is developed through a co-creation process between researchers and stakeholders representing the tourism sector and NGOs representing people with different disabilities. The questionnaire is based on the concept of "customer journey" (see Pine and Gilmore, 2013), and applies a holistic perspective with the aim at capturing a broad set of experiences and preferences from being a tourist. The survey is limited to traveling experiences in Norway and includes questions concerning information, accommodation, outdoor and indoor activities, transport and booking. With the help from ourproject partners FFO, members from a selection of 13 NGOs representing people with a greatvariety of abilities will be invited to participate in the study, as will users of rehabilitation services through BHC.

Results and argumentation

The survey will take place throughout May 2022, and the data will be analyzed during the period of June-August 2022. The results from this study is expected to contribute with unique and important knowledge to the research field of Accessible Tourism in Norway, to the tourismindustry and to the public sector often responsible for public transport. Since the Nordic countries have many similarities in their tourism sector, the knowledge will also be of relevancefor the tourism businesses in in other Nordic countries.

Conclusions

The study is the first larger scale quantitively study of Accessible Tourism in a Norwegian context and will bring much needed knowledge to the field in a Nordic context. Furthermore, by its inclusive approach, the research will discuss the customer journey of Accessible Tourismand shed light on the interesting dichotomy between the concepts of disability versus ability.

The knowledge produced in the study will be useful for SME's and DMO's work for the development of accessible tourist destinations in accordance with central sustainability goals.The results will also be applicable as an important knowledge base for user organization's promotion of equal access to experiences and traveling.

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Session 1.2. Innovation and resilience

1. Future of Food: Cellular Agriculture & Hospitality and Tourism Research

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Introduction

Our relationship with food has grown complicated over the last few decades (Yoo, 2015). Rather than what we eat, the focus is increasingly on how well our digestive system can processa specific type of protein (e.g. gluten) or what ecological impacts (e.g. carbon footprint) our food choices have (Smil, 2013). The convergence of ever cheaper, more powerful technology brings new affordances to food production to address both personal and environmental issues at scale. In particular, the way protein is traditionally mass produced is set to change due to advances in cellular agriculture (Tubb & Seba, 2019).

In hospitality and tourism, food plays an important role in creating memorable experiences anda sense of belonging (Yoo, 2015). Food is also a major contributor to the sectors' growing carbon footprint (Gössling et al., 2011). Despite the important role food plays in hospitality andtourism literature, extant research has so far ignored the practical and theoretical implications of cellular agriculture on the sector. This conceptual paper aims to shed light on technologies posing to disrupt traditional protein supply chain management, and contribute to the field of hospitality and tourism management by identifying avenues for future research on food service that is less dependent on traditional means of protein production, i.e. animal husbandry.

Literature review

The idea of producing meat and meat substitutes in a laboratory setting rather than by means ofanimal husbandry has been around for years. Edelman et al. (2005) considered the feasibility of producing what they referred to as meat cultured in vitro (that is, outside a biological host). Leveraging cell cultivation and tissue-engineering techniques conventionally used in organ transplantation, they proposed to grow in vitro meat products for mass markets. This was seento address both foodborne illness (e.g. due to excess use of antibiotics and growth hormones) and the environmental issues of industrialised animal agriculture (e.g. resource use and pollution) (Datar & Betti, 2010). In 2013 a group of Dutch researchers successfully cultured a beef burger patty from bovine satellite cells (Post, 2013). Since then many products have movedfrom research labs to commercial settings.

One of the fastest growing companies in the cellular agriculture space is Impossible Foods, thestartup behind the eponymous Impossible™ Burger (Burwood-Taylor, 2019). Through aprocess called precision fermentation (Tubb & Seba, 2019), Impossible extracts heme, the molecular compound that gives meat its meaty taste, from soy plant roots and cultivates it at scale using genetically engineered yeast. The end-product is an in vitro produced, plant-based meat substitute that very closely mimics the properties (e.g. taste, mouthfeel) of real meat (Heffernan, 2017). To cope with surging consumer and food service demand, in 2019 Impossible announced global partnerships with Disney, Burger King, and the OSI Group, one of the world's leading suppliers of processed meat products (Lee, 2019).

The commercial success of Impossible™ illustrates the economic potential for building cellularagriculture -based products, regardless of substrate (animal or plant-based). Cellular agricultureappears to be not only cheaper, but also far less resource-intensive than traditional animal husbandry (Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2015). This is made possible by gains in feed efficiency and land use. Keeping livestock requires the mass-production of feed as well as securing enough arable land (Gössling et al., 2011). Tubb & Seba (2019) estimate the feed efficiency of cellular agriculture to be up to 25 times higher than that of livestock, while requiring 100 times less land. As in vitro cultivation technologies such as precision fermentationmature and scale up, Tubb & Seba (2019) estimate in vitro protein production as five times cheaper than animal agriculture by 2030.

Methodology
Following Snyder (2019), literature on cellular agriculture is qualitatively reviewed to highlightmegatrends that drive the adoption of a cellular agriculture -based food production system. These are then contrasted to hospitality and tourism management to form a preliminary agendafor future research into a more sustainable, co-created food ecosystem. As this is a conceptual paper, no empirical data are collected or reported.

Results and argumentation
Based on the qualitative literature review, three key trends driving the adoption of in vitro protein production systems are found: the carrying capacity of the planet, an increased interest in personal health, and decentralisation for more resilient supply chains.

First, studies have identified animal agriculture, particularly industrialised cattle farming, as one of the biggest contributors to global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Gössling et al., 2011). The United Nations' Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2019) estimates that thelivestock sector accounts for ~15% of all man-made GHG emissions, and that on a commodity-basis, beef and dairy account for ~65%. Population growth combined with increased disposableincome and Westernised lifestyles across developing markets are feared to exacerbate this, withthe OECD estimating a 13% growth in global meat production by the year 2028, and a projected45% increase in beef consumption particularly in Asia by 2025 (OECD/FAO, 2016; 2019). Given increasing supply and demand, decarbonising the world's protein supply chain simply through more efficient livestock management practices seems unlikely.

Second, the uptake of cellular agriculture might also be hastened by more individualistic worries. The exponential increase in digestive disease such as irritable bowel syndrome or inflammatory bowel disease (Farthing et al., 2014) drives people to pay more attention to whatthey eat and how it affects their bodies. Special dietary needs have become better understood (Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2015), as has the connection between the gut and the brain overall (Liang, Wu & Jin, 2018). From a nutritional point of view, the prospect of producing foodstuff in vitro holds much promise, whereby optimum nutritional properties and tolerabilityor food allergies could be considered and dynamically fine-tuned on a molecular level. The prospect of protein that is easier to digest is in tune with the trend of combining food, healthcare,and technology, whereby the notion of a quantified self has in recent years started to move frommeasuring biometrics to optimizing and biohacking food intake (Ruckenstein & Pantzar, 2017).

Third, the uptake of cellular agriculture might also be accelerated by disturbances in the globalprotein supply chain. In recent years, the African swine fever has continued to lay waste to global pork supply (Normile, 2019), with the World Organization for Animal Health (2020) warning of a global crisis if the outbreak is not hastily contained. COVID-19 presents another viral supply chain disruptor, with companies such as McDonald's rationing meat supply and warning of global shortages (Kelso, 2020). Given the vulnerability of just-in-time supply chain management systems in the face of global disturbances, the world post-COVID-19 will likely see an increased interest in the localisation of protein production and purchasing. As the micro-brewery scene that emerged en masse in the 2010s, the popularisation of cellular agriculture might see the rise of micro-precision fermentation plants in the 2020s (Tubb & Seba, 2019).

Despite increased interest and investment, there are several challenges that might hinder the uptake of cellular agriculture. These include, inter alia, pushback from traditional agribusiness,regulation around food safety, ethics, and customer acceptance. It is also important to acknowledge that industrial animal agriculture, despite its inefficiency and environmental toll, plays a key role in global and regional economic development, e.g. reducing poverty and combating malnutrition (FAO, 2018). For example, Brazil derives roughly 21% of its GDP from agriculture, of which 7% is from livestock (Tubb & Seba, 2019). Any systems-level change in global protein

supply chain management needs to be accompanied with appropriate legislative and policy frameworks to ensure that benefits are equally distributed.

Conclusions

The move away from conventional animal husbandry towards cellular agriculture opens severalavenues for future research across disciplines, including the social sciences. Studies in the fieldsof food policy and psychology have already started to explore consumer attitudes towards andacceptance of alternative protein products (c.f. Van Loo, Caputo & Lusk, 2020). Considering the high relevance of food and food production systems to hospitality and tourism theory and practice (e.g. increasingly health- or environmentally-conscious tourists and service employees), it is critical to focus research on animal agriculture and its implications on key stakeholders in hospitality and tourism.

First, as illustrated in Figure 1, future research should explore when and how hospitality and tourism stakeholders can start embracing the new production techniques such as precision fermentation, and which types of products will benefit the sector the most, e.g. in terms of whatproducts should be first substituted with new products, or which elements, e.g. taste, mouthfeel,texture, or tolerability should be prioritised in new product development. Second, as desired properties of food can be built in from the molecule up, it is important to explore the implications this poses on skills requirements in the sector (i.e. employees), tourism and hospitality service offerings (e.g. menu profiling, food tourism), and how consumers will reactto them. Third, it is critical to explore whether consumer attitudes and behaviour towards cellular agriculture differ at home and in different tourism and hospitality contexts (e.g. à la carte restaurants, business travel) as well as across culture, personal characteristics, and other consumption contexts. Fourth, future research should focus on the influence of environmental considerations on consumers' relationship with food in general and their decision-making in relation to the consumption of tourism and hospitality services. Last, future research should investigate the role hospitality and tourism plays as an industry in the uptake of pro-sustainableprocurement practices, including ensuring legislation is put in place to help reduce the carbon footprint of global protein supply chains. As technologies that only half a decade ago seemed science fiction (Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2015) start to come of age, these research directions map out potential contributions from hospitality and tourism scholars to guide the sustainable application of emerging food technology.

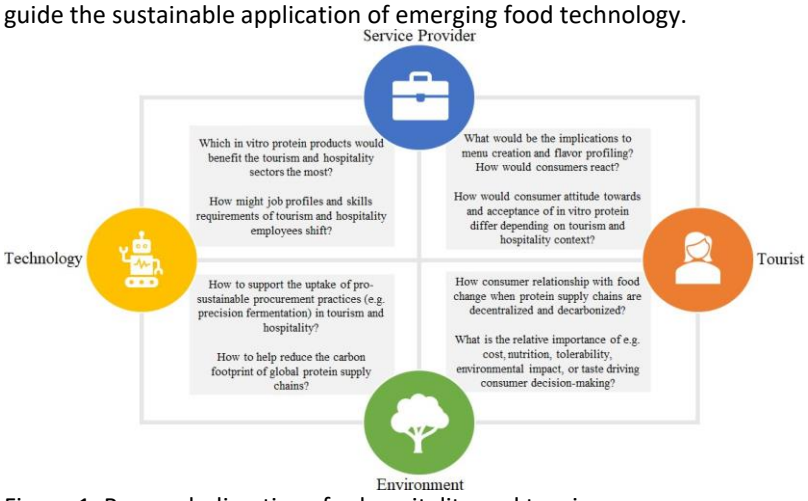

Figure 1: Research directions for hospitality and tourism.

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2. Dynamics of digital innovation for rural tourism entrepreneurs in Iceland

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Intro defining the aim of the research

This presentation explores the dynamics of digital innovation in the Icelandic tourism industrybased on a case study consisting of semi-structured interviews with tourism entrepreneurs in rural Iceland. The main objective is to investigate if and how digital innovation is meaningful for rural tourism entrepreneurs in Iceland in their daily practice and to describe the level of involvement of rural businesses and entrepreneurs in digital innovation. By zooming in on howinnovation and digital applications are actually applied in practice, the paper contributes to a practical understanding of these globally discussed concepts. More specifically, we are interested *in the value of digital innovation for rural tourism entrepreneurs in Iceland.* We investigate first *innovation and how it is actually understood and applied in practice by the Icelandic tourism entrepreneurs.* Apart from how tourism operators in Iceland understand andapply innovation in practice, we further want to discuss innovation obstacles in the tourism industry in this section. From there, we zoom in on the digital aspect and explore how digitalization of the tourism industry is perceived by actors on the ground.

Literature review

Digitalization and digital applications are currently highly discussed in the political discourse both in Icelandic and international context (Jaafar and Rasoolimanesh, 2015; Katkuri, Mantri et al., 2019; Cem Işık and gBarış Turan, 2019; Hjalager, 2010; Hjalager, 2015; Máhr, Birkner et al., 2018; Racherla, Hu et al., 2008; Stjórnarráð Íslands, 2018). In regards to tourism, the digital aspect of innovation is often referred to as 'smart tourism'. However, Liburd, Nielsen etal. (2017) argue that despite an open-mindedness towards digitalization, tourism practitioners often remain skeptical about how to make use of "smart" approaches in practice. According to Liburd et al. (2017) the current definition of smart tourism seems to be a 'technical, data driven,system oriented and service-dominant' one (p. 4), but a clear definition is still lacking.The paper starts with a brief literature overview of 'innovation' in the context of tourism. In global context as well as Iceland, the economic role of

tourism has increased tremendously overthe past couple of decades. The COVID-19 pandemic demonstrated the imperative of innovation in the tourism industry. However, literature indicates a gap between rural and urban areas in regards to the application of digital innovation. Zavratnik et al. (2018) argue that the implementation of digital development concepts is more challenging than it is for urban areas.They argue that rural areas often lag behind when it comes to necessary infrastructure to make use of or develop digital solutions. We briefly discuss this so-called digital divide as a possiblereason for the lack of applied digital innovation in rural areas.
According to Peters, Frehse et al. (2009) the tourism industry is more likely to attract non- growth oriented entrepreneurs, who rather follow the idea of turning the hobby into a career innice natural surroundings instead of profit maximization (Peters, Frehse et al. 2009). These, socalled 'lifestyle entrepreneurs', act contrary to the growth-oriented Schumpeterian entrepreneurs. To determine the effects of lifestyle entrepreneurship on applied digital innovation, the paper gives a short overview of the manifestation of lifestyle entrepreneurship in the tourism industry. The paper then moves on to digital innovation and how it manifests specifically in smart tourism. The case study shows that rural tourism entrepreneurs in Icelandassociate innovation only weakly with the digital. 'Being innovative' does not seem to be interrelated with 'applying digital technology' in their understanding. Their interpretation of innovation shows parallels to the Schumpeterian approach in the way of doing existing things in a new way (Schumpeter, 1991). Due to the limited presentation time in the Nordic Symposium 2022, the focus of my presentation will be on the discussion of my findings with a focus on the value digital innovationhas for tourism lifestyle entrepreneurs in Iceland.

Methodology
This research follows an exploratory case-study design, with in-depth analysis thereof. Data forthis study was collected by conducting qualitative semi-structured interviews with 34 tourism entrepreneurs all around rural Iceland. The interviewees were picked through the snowball method. Data analysis is based on the techniques of Grounded Theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1994), with themes identified through rounds of open and axial coding. These interviews serveas a base to get in-depth insights into 'what is happening on the ground'. Hence with this paperwe are exploring the rural tourism entrepreneur community and creating a bottom-up approachin order to get insights into the value of digital innovation as perceived by rural tourism entrepreneurs.

Results and argumentation
In the analysis we put a special focus on perceived innovation hindrances in the case of the Icelandic tourism industry. Apart from the main reasons of 'time' and 'money' that are hampering tourism innovation, this section reveals a missing link between policy and practice.We sensed a lack of broad involvement of SMEs in the tourism policy. The tourism plans, strategies and education offers seem to be developed through a top-down approach in collaboration with a few strong and big companies *for* the tourism industry and not *with* them.In order to overcome this mismatch and bridge this gap, we see the need for a more straight forward and open conversation between small and life-styled tourism businesses and the policymakers. A vibrant innovation ecosystem in rural Iceland requires a support system that takes the characteristics, strengths and weaknesses of these companies into account.
In the discussion we elaborate various angles of who is (digitally) innovative, where and why.We sensed that our interviewees' perceived value of smart tourism, was colored by their own blurry idea or definition of the same. 'Smart tourism' and 'automation' were directly associatedwith robots, impersonal service and industrial vibes. Regardless of the interviewees' attitude towards smart tourism, they all pursued the common goal of increasing personal customer service and positive experience for the tourists.
At this point we come back to the digital divide and lifestyle entrepreneurship. Tourism entrepreneurs that strongly favored smart tourism development voiced heavy criticism, and in some cases even annoyance, due to the slow digital development in the Icelandic tourism industry. They especially found fault with the indignation of their industry peers to increase their level of digital applications. Like Rooksby et al. (2002) they see a link between their lowlevel of digital know-how and understanding and the hence resulting decreasing likelihood to become digitally active and blamed them of their 'fear of the unknown'. We found these criticsvery similar to the common criticism of lifestyle entrepreneurship, where they are criticized to hinder economic growth and criticized for a low level of know-how, training and management,such as a lack of involvement within industry structures (Peter, Frehse et al., 2009).

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)
Due to the lack of similar research the study contributes to gaining understanding about the missing link between policy and practice and adds thus both practical and scientific value to thebody of literature. The research provides knowledge about the status and the value of digital innovation for rural tourism entrepreneurs in

Iceland. The different views and ways the interviewed tourism entrepreneurs approached this topic demonstrated the ongoing controversyin the tourism sector. The inflationary usage of the buzzwords has to become more concrete and aligned to the characteristics of Icelandic tourism. This research demonstrated that tourismstrategies cannot be applied as a one-size-fits-all approach. Despite the increasing role of digitalization in a global level, the value it has for the local tourism businesses in Iceland has tobe scrutinized. The question is hereby not on finding ways or preparing the tourist sector to apply the concept of smart tourism or digitalization of the tourism experience. The question israther: does it create value? And for whom?

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3. ‘Pop-up’ innovation labs as a tool for co-creation in experience-based tourism: a longitudinal case study

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Introduction

Innovation is one of the vital prerequisites for the survival and growth of tourism firms. However, innovation in small and micro-sized tourism firms is often informal, incremental, ad-hoc, and not research-based due to the lack of resources (Clausen & Madsen, 2014; Sundbo, 2009). Even though informal and ad-hoc approaches to innovation can be beneficial, combiningthem with systematic and research-based approaches enhances the results (Jensen, Johnson, Lorenz, & Lundvall, 2007; Nordin & Hjalager, 2017). An example of the systematic approachis by using innovation labs (or ‘labs’ in this paper), which can be defined as spaces (physical orvirtual) that facilitate and enhance the innovation of those who participate in the space (Bloom& Faulkner, 2015).

Labs have been widely used as a space for collaborative innovation and co-creation in other industries and contexts (Capdevila, 2013; Mulder, 2012), but are still rather scarce in tourism, even though collaboration is crucial for innovation in experience-based tourism (Guimont & Lapointe, 2016; Santarsiero, Carlucci, & Schiuma, 2021; Zach, 2016). Experience-basedtourism, which originates from the notion of experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1998), is anovel type of tourism that offers memorable experiences as dematerialized commodities and thus creates values by offering unique, innovative experiences (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003).Therefore, labs have the potential to be used for co-creating innovative experiences in tourismfirms (Lapointe, Guimont, & Sévigny, 2015). However, most literature focus on the use of labsin developing tourism destinations.

Even though some previous studies have focused on innovation labs in large tourism and hospitality firms, such as in a hotel (see e.g. Brazdauskas & Gruodė, 2017), at least to the knowledge of the authors, none focuses on

the use of labs for innovation in a micro experience-based tourism firm. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the topic by answering the researchquestion: *How can labs drive a long-term, holistic and systematic innovation process and co- creation in a micro experience-based tourism firm?* To answer this question, this study investigates the roles of temporary (or 'pop-up') innovation labs used by a micro tourism firmfor the innovation process and co-creation of its culture-related experience product. Additionally, this study will reveal the challenges and potentials of these labs.

Literature review

Innovation can be understood as "something new or significantly improved that is implemented" (Eide & Mossberg, 2013, p. 250). The innovation process, although not always as simple and straight, is often described as linear steps involving idea generation, selection, development, prototyping, and testing or evaluation (Eveleens, 2010; Kotsemir & Meissner, 2013). Labs can also be used in any of the innovation phases. For example, in the tourism context, most studies described the use of labs in the ideation phase (e.g. Usenyuk-Kravchuk, Gostyaeva, Raeva, & Garin, 2020) or throughout the innovation process (e.g. Tsai-Lin & Chang, 2018), but rarely in the testing phase (e.g. Lovell, Hann, & Watson, 2018). However, Eide and Ljunggren (2018) argue that testing in experience-based tourism can be conducted throughout the innovation process, as it is beneficial to evaluate the innovative ideas early in and throughout the process. Moreover, involving customers or users throughout the innovationprocess have the potential to increase the success of the innovation and reduce the risks (Eide & Ljunggren, 2018; Sørensen & Sundbo, 2014). Nevertheless, there is a lack of knowledge onthe use of labs as an arena for testing throughout the innovation process of experience-based tourism firms.

Learning, especially from the users or customers, is crucial in the innovation process of tourismfirms (Eide & Ljunggren, 2018; Sørensen & Sundbo, 2014). Labs as a collaborative innovationspace can serve as arenas for knowledge sharing and learning for firms (Bloom & Faulkner, 2015; Capdevila, 2013). However, previous studies suggest more investigations on organizational learning that involves the customers of tourism firms (Kostadinović & Stanković, 2021), also in the context of labs. Further, there is a need for more studies on how to manage the labs in a wider context, including how to orchestrate the labs related to learningand innovation (Fecher, Winding, Hutter, & Füller, 2020; Stewart & Hyysalo, 2008).

Learning can also be acquired through networks (Binder, 2019), which are also drivers of innovation in experience-based tourism (Eide & Fuglsang, 2013; Fuglsang & Eide, 2013; Hjalager, 2010; Høegh-Guldberg, Eide, Trengereid, & Hjemdahl, 2018). As labs usuallyinvolve different types of stakeholders, they also play a role as networks (Leminen, Westerlund, & Nyström, 2012; van Geenhuizen, 2016). The roles and importance of networks in tourism have been widely studied. However, a systematic literature review by Binder (2019) points outthe need for more longitudinal studies to investigate the long-term network effects on organizational learning in tourism.

Lastly, labs can also serve as a tool for co-creation of tourism experiences (Lapointe et al., 2015). Co-creation is central in experience-based tourism as experiences are co-created with the tourists (Prebensen, 2014). However, despite the growing trend in the study of co-creation in tourism, further research in the context of experience economy is still required (Mohammadi,Yazdani, Pour, & Soltani, 2020). Moreover, the use of 'pop-up' labs for co-creation with tourists in a micro experience-based tourism firm is rarely reported.

To sum up, labs have the potential to serve as testing arenas, learning spaces, tools for co- creation, and networks for tourism firms. And as the aim of this study is to investigate how labscan drive a long-term innovation process in a micro experience-based tourism firm, it is relevantto investigate the roles of the labs.

Methodology

The chosen research design for this study is a longitudinal case study, as we investigate the long-term (2020-2022) use of labs for a holistic innovation process in a micro experience-basedtourism firm. The longitudinal case study design is suitable for the study of processes and changes in organizations over a period of time (Street & Ward, 2012). The firm that we study is a young firm with less than five employees that developed a cultural guiding mobile application (app) in Norway. As the guiding app is rather new, the firm is still and will continue iterating its functions and features. And for this reason, the firm, collaborating with a university,orchestrated a series of temporary or 'pop-up' innovation labs.

So far, the firm and the university have organized two idea generation labs (2020) and one testing lab (2022). The idea generation labs involved the customers of the firm, which are mainly cultural tourism sites such as museums. These labs aimed to gather ideas for further development of the app. As the idea generation labs were done during the period of Covid-19 restrictions, one of the labs was conducted digitally in Zoom. Lastly, the testing lab involved the users of the app in one of the cultural tourism sites. This testing lab aimed to evaluate the app after it has been further developed using the ideas gathered from the previous two labs.

At the moment of writing this extended abstract, six interviews have been conducted with the participants of the two idea generation labs, and one with the owner of the app. The authors have also observed all three labs. More interviews with the owner of the app, the co-founder, and other stakeholders involved in the innovation process of the firm will be conducted. Therefore, data analysis is yet to be done.

Results

As the data collection process has not been completed yet, no results are available. However, based on the available interviews, we understand that labs can be a place for co-creation, networking, learning, and product testing for an experience-based tourism firm. And these functions are crucial to driving long-term and systematic innovation in a micro experience- based tourism firm.

Conclusions

We can tentatively conclude that temporary or pop-up innovation labs are indeed beneficial tomicro experience-based tourism firms, as they can enhance the innovation process of the firm without the need for substantial resources. However, the challenges and other benefits of usingsuch labs are yet to be revealed.

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4. The post-pandemic values of meetings: innovation and resilience in the meetings industry

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Introduction and aim

"The Covid 19 pandemic took the meetings industry from top to bottom in one move". Thesewere the introducing words from the CEO of a large Swedish network of meetings firms, in their annual report for 2020. In the beginning of that year, one of the most challenging crisesin the history of the meetings organizations emerged. Now, two years on the pandemic has changed the conditions for the entire industry and restrictions on social interactions have become a "new normal". Particularly vulnerable to both constraints on interactions between people and to fear of disease is the meetings industry. The meetings industry belongs to the MICE sector, acronym for meetings, incentives, congress and exhibition, which is regarded as "the most lucrative group of travelers for a destination" (Mykletun 2014: 189). Zhang (2014) finds that the meetings industry in Denmark makes a significant contribution to the economy (Zhang 2014), an economic feature which makes the meetings industry critical for economic development strategies of regions and municipalities. Although the sector isconsidered to be particularly profitable and resilient to change, the pandemic crisis struck hardwith many cancelled and postponed meetings in conference venues, hotels, and arenas acrossthe world. Structural change related to digitalization had already started to transform the hospitality sector (cf Evans and Schmalensee 2016) with for instance peer-to-peer services like Airbnb and Uber (Wirtz and Lovelock 2022: 14). The pandemic reinforced the digitalization processes where meetings now could be held online and people employed in non-physical professions could attend meetings from their homes. Two years on, meetings organizations are trying to learn from these events. A Swedish regional tourism marketing organization recently stated in a report that just one out of five employees wish to work in theordinary physical office every day of the week in the future (Tourism in Skåne 2022). On oneside, the report show that meeting participants longed for social events and everyday physicalmeetings during the pandemic.

On the other hand, digital meetings are not as costly. Also, digital meetings put less pressure on the environment and employees can spend more time with their families working from home (ibid.). New questions arise about how the meetings industry will remain relevant in a new situation characterized by global challenges such as thepandemic and reinforced digitalization. In tourism research, scholars call for further inquiry on structural change (Sigala 2020: 316) and the meetings industry is a tourism context that is currently undergoing such changes. The aim of this study is to understand the meetings industry with a focus on the meetings industry supply on the global market, in the post pandemic time. The following research questions will be answered: What service products characterize the meetings industry supply two years after the pandemic outbreak? What valuesare proposed to target groups?

Literature review

When it comes to previous research about MICE and change the field rapidly expanded acrossby the end of the 1990:s. Researchers would at the time typically discuss how a destination could benefit from developing a meetings industry and assessed its economic impacts (Dwyerand Forsyth 1997). Studies looking into the specific character of the MICE sector, found that meetings were commonly arranged for commercial, educational or government purposes. In a review of meetings industry scientific articles from 1990 to 2003 the following core themeswere identified: the economic impact of conventions, meeting participation processes, destination marketing, and technology advancements (Myong and Back 2005). It was found that planners previously feared that modern technology such as video conferencing and virtualexhibitions would put an end to people gathering in one location. A main driving force for using IT today is efficiency. Another major theme in this field is spatial perspectives and siteselection (Suwannasat, Katawandee et al. 2022). Schabbing (2022) finds that the pandemic brought real financial challenges to the meetings industry in Germany. With high debts withingovernments and cities, the meetings industry will take much longer to repair financially thanother sectors, he argues. Germany is one of the top nations for international meetings and its infrastructure as well as business plans will most probably change radically (Schabbing 2022).According to Ludovica and Cabiddu (2021), meetings organizations have to adapt quickly in accordance with their environment in order to be resilient. The industry has to communicate responsively in a quick and efficient way and the researchers therefore suggest that the industry marketing practices could be more flexible (ibid: 1). They propose a framework thatimproves the marketing through an “agile marketing capability” (AMC). This means that thefirm identify change in customer demand, which in turn makes it possible to formulate adequate response continuously. Another important aspect of meetings and change is the future attendants´ perspective. According to one study the meetings participants of the futureprove to value rapid, modest and strictly organized meetings and events. The Millennials want to be engaged and seek out so called “edutainment”, thus entertainment with an aspect of learning new things. Also, personal benefit from attending is regarded important, as well as opportunity to professional development. Meetings in-person seem to be the preferred communication format by this group (Fenich, Scott-Halsell et al. 2014). Iglesias, Smith and Gibson (2021) find that a main obstacle in organizing new virtual events is how to engage the participants. Engagement seems to be one of the reasons to why live broadcasting and on- demand videos of high-quality are becoming more popular (Iglesias, Smith et al. 2021). Another theme deals with how the industry is relating to environmental problems. Mykletun, Bartkeviciute, & Puchkova (2014) state that greening of the meetings industry is an underresearched field. They compare how meetings venue managers, meeting organisers and meeting participants perceptions of “green meetings” vary. By focusing on the importance ofgreen meetings and stakeholders intentions they find that green meetings mainly are perceived as something positive (Mykletun, Bartkeviciute et al. 2014). Mair and Jago (2010), who studied the drivers of “greening” the business events sector. “A green meeting” in this contextusually means the measures that different stakeholders have taken in order to reduce their ecological footprint (ibid: 78). Their findings show that personal values, but also managerial values were drivers for offering “green” meetings. In addition, the presence of a CSR policy,as well as positioning against competitors and managing the brand in a desirable way were other “greening drivers”. Some of the stated major obstacles for making the meetings industry “greener” is a lack of time and resources, as well as lack of regulations (Mair and Jago 2010).The online conference is usually claimed to be more sustainable from the ecological perspective. In addition, some claim that the online conference constitutes an unique opportunity to be creative in particularly difficult situations (Goodsett, Eddy et al. 2022). Oneform of sustainable business events suggested is that high-end visitors could spend more money on a prolonged time of visit, while a long stay is often claimed in the sustainability debate to generate less carbon dioxide It would decrease the ecological foot print and in addition it elongates the tourism season, as a benefit for the destination community. This studyfinds that sustainability practices are

only to a very low degree actually being implemented inthe MICE sector. The researchers suggest therefore a transition towards sustainability througha post-covid recovery strategy, with emphasis on awareness-raising activities for the MICE sector (Orthodoxou, Loizidou et al. 2021). Orthodoxouh et al (2021) claim however that customer awareness and demand related to sustainability is low. This could mean that there are no economic incentives from the meetings industry perspective for investing in sustainability. This review indicates a limited understanding of how the meetings industry is tackling the elements of change that characterize the post pandemic time. More knowledge is needed about what values in relation to environmental, social and economic change are beingproposed to customers in a situation in which a resilient meetings industry seem to be in needof a "re-start".

Methods

This study departs from a social science interdisciplinary outlook on the meetings industry with theories from a critical service marketing perspective. In order to explore trends in the supply and to understand the meetings industry value offerings in the post covid time, I focus on the marketing of meetings products across the international arena. Trends in the supply of meeting products is identified in a) the offerings that such actors communicate in their marketing towards potential customers and b) in industry media. The object of study is therefore the meetings industry external strategic communication in the post pandemic period.The empirical material was collected a few months after authorities of the nordic countries had classified the pandemic to be over[1]. Beside two semi-structured qualitative interviews with meetings professionals, the selection of cases are firms who offer meetings on a commercial basis, and belong to the corporate meetings segment.2 A criteria is that they belong to a chapter in the global Meetings Professional International association, MPI3. The criterion for the selection of industry media cases is that the article content is about the meetings industry in the post pandemic period. The four MPI chapters are located in Africa, North America, Asia and Europe. Two random firms were chosen within each of these chapters. This generated a marketing material from the homepages total of 10 medium sized firms who offer meetings services. In addition, texts and visual material was collected from international meetings industry media articles published between 2020-2022. The empirical material was analyzed in two steps in accordance with culture analysis (Ehn and Löfgren 2001) identifying emerging first order themes in the data. The empirical themes were then related to the theoretical framework in a second step, by conceptualizing them into second order, theoretical categories (Aspers 2007, Gioia, Corley et al. 2013). The overarching analytical question "directed" to systematically analyze the material depart from the theoretical standpoint that values are co-created in a socio-cultural context. Values are understood as valuation propositions (Corvellec and Hultman 2014) in the strategic communication of the meetings industry and as part of a discursive change in the current stateof the industry.

[1] While other markets were still under some restrictions (www.who.com).

[2] According to ICCA (2020). ICCA Statistics Report Country and City Rankings – Public Abstract. ICCA is anonprofit trade association that represents destinations and suppliers specialized in international meetings.

[3] Meeting Professionals International (MPI) is a non-profit organization which is one of the largest meetings industry associations in the world. Founded in 1970, it has a global community of 60 000 meetings- and event professionals, including 15 000 member organizations in over 70 countries in Asia, South America, US, Canadaand Europe (www.mpi.org).

The post pandemic values of meetings

In a first step analysis, a few categories of value propositions were identified: the value of professional expertise, healthy meetings, green meetings, seamless high-tech meetings and last, flexible meetings. First, one recurring value is the offer of professional expertise on how to arrange meetings in the "right way". Some firms offer the services of an online course on how to hold a meeting or they offer the expertise from a special meeting consultant that can be hired for learning about- and/or for creating professional meetings (www.scandichotels.com). Others offer courses on how to create a "good meeting culture", and also how to buy meetings and conference services in a procurement process (Svenska Möten 2022). Second, in the "health-keeping type of meetings", the physical distance between participants is carefully managed on site, arranging the meeting room and the chairs in certainkinds of ways, invoking two meters distance between people, dividing the meals into timeslots, placing hand sanitizers in every room and so on. The health theme is still prevalent also in the online types of services as a health-safe option, like the digital meetings and streaming services. One prominent meetings actor is an organization owned by over 130 meeting facilities in Sweden who offer also online courses in how to book covid-safe meetings (Svenska Möten 2022). Quite a few meetings actors emphasize the value of nature, such as the sea and forests, near the meetings facility on offer. Some offer the possibility of holding walk and talks meetings outside. Third, a number of actors provides "Sustainable meetings" which communicates the value of "well considered transportation, the right facilities and climate

smart food" (ibid.) which typically communicate, as above, that it is ecologically unsustainable to move across large distances, at least with fossil fueled transportation. "The green meeting" typically offer not a direct value as such, but rather offer a reduced impact on the environment in comparison to an "ordinary meeting". But another type of "green meetings" is that the service product in itself "brings competence to the green industries" (www.gronamoten.agrovast.se). These "green meetings" gives buyers and their firm a "license" to state (to staff and other stakeholders) that they are environmentally friendly. The "green meeting" could also be interpreted as a way of legitimizing digital meetings. Fourth, one example of the category of seamless high-tech meetings is firm who offer digital cloud services for holding large scale digital meetings that are integrated with other digital services such as their social media. On the homepage they present an image of young woman sitting at a desk, describing the firm as: "…the world's only communications cloud for events /…/Everything you need to drive meaningful insights and outcomes". The image of a smiling woman in glasses with her sleeves up and a coffee-to-go on the desk indicates a work environment. No technology s visible in the image. The visitor/viewer is offered a trial of the service which promises connections to global target groups, interactive platforms and integrative data analysis of users' online activities on social media. The values proposed in the marketing can be summoned as a seamless integrative access to high-tech services (www.notified.com). Last, as an example of the fifth category there is a meetings supplier homepage offering "hybrid meetings" which means that a meeting can take place "here, there or anywhere" (www.scandichotels.com). The choice of different types of meetings and events are being emphasized in the texts and images. The CEO of a hotel- and conference venue predicts in a tourism industry magazine interview about the future of the meetings industry that it is going to be: *"…all about diversifying the supply"* (www.besoksliv.se). The freedom of choice and flexibility for participants is being proposed as value for buyers of hybrid meetings. Here, the diversity of meetings services is constructedas a valuable offering.

Conclusions

All in all, the flexibility offered by meetings organizers is striking. It is conclusive to say thatthe values communicated in the marketing is everything from sensory experiences in sites to space independence. Safety regarding health is clearly another value. Also, the value of natureis communicated. On one hand there is the opportunity to experience the sea or the forest, onthe other hand there is the offering of choosing the environmental service, that considers the industry ecological impact in various steps of the service delivery. There are even meetings firms who specialize in arranging meetings only for buyers who are themselves specialized in issues considering the environment. The preliminary result indicates a discussion about connections between resilience, innovation and the role the industry has in sustainable tourismdevelopment.

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Session 1.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development

1. Desirable tourism futures: stakeholders' participation in local strategic planning for sustainable tourism in Orkney Islands

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Introduction

As a part of a wider doctoral research project, that aims to evaluate the sustainable tourism strategy in Orkney Islands, this paper aims to discuss a proposed process of developing a Strategy Evaluation Framework, which considers the high contextuality of sustainable tourismdevelopment, and the complex stakeholder structure in a specific rural island destination. It is argued that lessons learnt from this process, and the results of the wider Orkney case study, canaid in developing and implementing sustainable tourism strategies in other rural and island destinations, as well as provide a valuable contribution to future strategic planning for sustainable tourism development in Orkney. As a single case study, this research employs an in-depth analysis of sustainability needs in Orkney, as viewed by a variety of its stakeholders, and attempts to provide a pragmatic solution to a real-life sustainability challenge this remote island community is facing.

Literature review

Definition of sustainability emphasises its long-term focus, thus requires a strategic planning approach to its implementation (Simpson 2001; Hall 2000). Therefore, it is widely agreed thatstrategic planning is one of the most critical tools for sustainable tourism development, due to the complexity of the sector, multitude of stakeholders involved, and plethora of different viewsand opinions that must be considered for successful implementation (Simpson 2001; Lane 1994). To begin the journey towards sustainability, a shared understanding of what sustainability means for a destination and a variety of its stakeholders must be developed, and ways of how it can be implemented must be established (Albrecht et al. 2021). According to Simpson (2001), wide stakeholder participation in tourism planning, especially in peripheral regions, is seen as a significant contributor to sustainable development of a destination, determining collectively relevant strategic direction and maximising fair distribution of benefits.

To ensure the strategic plans are relevant to the needs of a destination, strategy evaluation is seen as an important process, allowing for efficient and effective implementation, and ensuringa long-term impact of the strategic actions (Malekovic et al. 2019). Evaluation of sustainable tourism strategies seeks to confirm the extent to which sustainable development principles areembedded into the strategic planning process, thus attempting to predict the success of sustainability implementation in the destination (Ruhanen 2004). However, strategic sustainable development planning for tourism is a highly contextual subject, since it must meetthe sustainability needs of a particular destination (Maleković et al. 2019), taking into accountopinions and values of local stakeholders (Simpson 2001) and the macro-environment of the destination (Haid, Albrecht and Finkler 2021). Therefore, meaningful evaluation of a sustainable tourism strategy requires a tool that can reflect these contextual features on a local level.

Methodology

Orkney Islands is an archipelago of 70 islands, approximately 20 of which are inhabited, and its tourism industry worth is estimated at £67M in 2019 (Fraser of Allander Institute 2020). Major pull factors include unique geographical and geological features, rich storytelling and cultural scene, abundance of wildlife, and heritage locations that include Heart of Neolithic Orkney - UNESCO World Heritage Site. However, the region is facing significant sustainabilitychallenges, such as large-scale cruise tourism operations, environmental impact on vulnerable natural and historical sites, and external impacts of climate change and COVID-19 pandemic. Aiming to realise the benefits of tourism and minimise the negatives, Orkney Tourism Strategy2025 was launched (Destination Orkney Partnership 2020), which is being evaluated in this study.

To evaluate this strategy, Strategy Evaluation Framework has been developed, as a tool to guidethe researcher through the evaluation process. First, the conceptual framework was devised from applicable academic and professional literature (such as Simpson (2001) and GSTC (2019)), and input from the pilot study conducted in another rural destination in Scotland, codedinto themes using NVivo. The resulting themes were grouped into three Stages, to guide the subsequent process. The schematic illustration of the conceptual framework is presented in Figure 1 below.

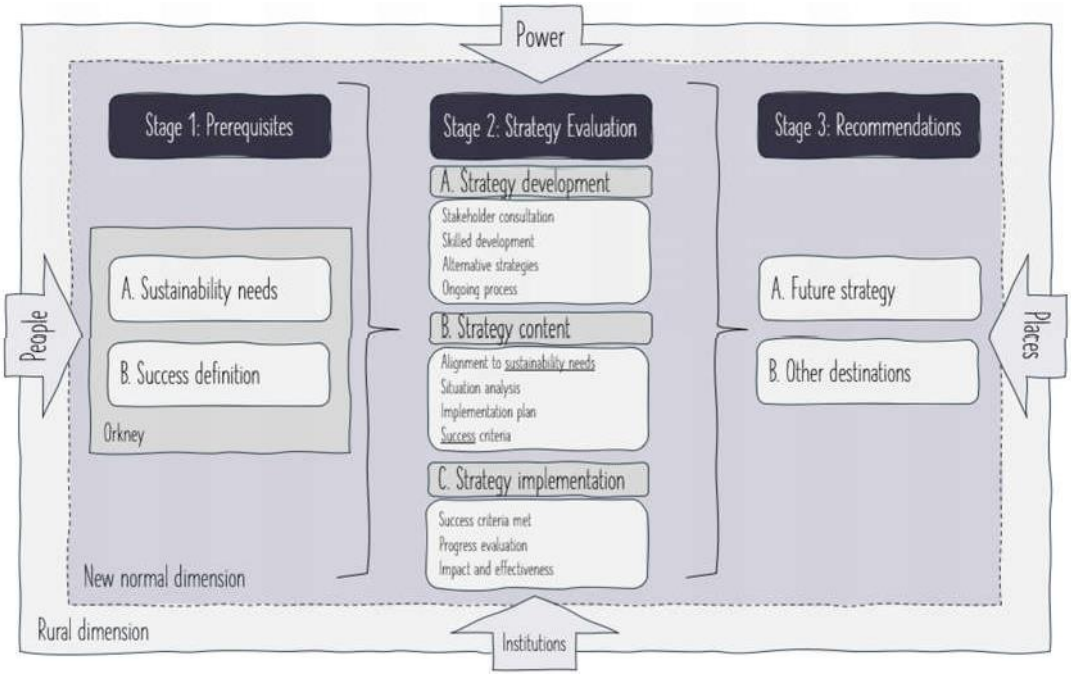

Figure 1: Conceptual framework (author)

These three Stages are framed into two dimensions, increasing the degree of contextuality of the subject: post-pandemic 'new normal' (Ateljevic 2020), with dashed line indicating its external and internal impacts; and 'rural dimension', where specifics of rural context, such as people, places, institutions and power (after Halfacree (2007) and Frisvoll (2012)), affect the needs, views and values that shape the development of a destination. This process of devising the conceptual framework aimed to consolidate the proposed generic evaluation criteria derivedfrom academic and practical sources of information, as well as determine what data needs to becollected to allow the researcher to tailor the framework to Orkney context, and to perform thestrategy evaluation.

As these initial evaluation criteria were not contextually confirmed, it was important to reviewthem against the specific situation of the studied destination, by conducting Stage 1 of the study. In this stage, a variety of stakeholders have been asked about their views on Orkney sustainability needs and what success in Orkney Tourism Strategy implementation means for them, in a series of in-depth semi-structured interviews. Secondary data in form of applicable documentation and researcher's observations are also used to collect the required information. Results of the thematic analysis of the gathered data are used to establish context-specific Evaluation Criteria ahead of Stage 2.

In Stage 2, Orkney Tourism Strategy will be evaluated against the updated criteria, and a 3- point Likert scale will be applied to each criterion, after Ruhanen (2004). The result of the evaluation will determine to what extent (%) the strategy meets the principles of sustainable tourism destination development in Orkney. After completing the Strategy Evaluation stage of the project (Stage 2), the author will be able to provide Recommendations (Stage 3) to Orkneystakeholders for future strategic planning, as well as apply lessons learned from this process toother rural and island destinations.

Results

During the initial stages of selecting and reviewing existing strategy evaluation frameworks, several lessons were learnt, which were subsequently applied to the development of the StrategyEvaluation Framework in this study. It was learned that while some of the existing frameworkswere looking for evidence of stakeholder participation in strategy development processes in the final strategy documents (Ruhanen 2004; Simpson 2001), the frameworks did not explicitly seek stakeholders' opinion on sustainability needs and success in strategy implementation before evaluating the strategy. Consequently, a difficulty to recognise stakeholders' contribution to the destination's strategic direction was noted by Ruhanen (2004), where none of the evaluated strategies was able to demonstrate evidence of such contribution. It is argued here that to recognise whether views of the stakeholders, especially local communities, are evident in the final strategy document, the evaluator must first learn and understand these views,which is being done in Stage 1 of this study, discussed here.

And indeed, as preliminary findings from Stage 1 of the research suggest, the views of the stakeholders on sustainability needs in Orkney Islands are varied, as well as perceptions of success in the strategy implementation. Moreover, the complex stakeholder structure of Orkneyas a tourism destination and a remote rural community, in line with Halfacree (2007), creates asignificant challenge in stakeholder engagement and in finding a just approach to addressing the variety of opinions on Orkney's strategic direction. The Strategy Evaluation Framework process, therefore, takes into account these challenges by mapping the views against the stakeholder structure, thus allowing users of the framework to recognise the influence of theseviews on the strategic direction of the destination. Such process can be replicated in another rural destination, tailoring the Framework to its specific context and stakeholder structure.

Conclusions

This paper aimed to introduce the process of developing a Strategy Evaluation Framework forlocal tourism strategies, and the benefits of applying the process to evaluate such strategies in rural and island destinations. The process takes into account stakeholders' views and opinions on the sustainability needs of their destination, as well as their perception of successful implementation of the chosen strategic direction. It is argued that such process can be applied to developing evaluation frameworks for existing strategies, ensuring the evaluation considersstakeholders' input to the strategic planning in their destination.

Evaluating local tourism strategies to determine the degree of embedment of sustainability principles and local values can be used to inform future strategic planning, improving its inclusivity and relevance to the local context, therefore contributing to sustainabledevelopment. Locally, this research has the potential to provide a significant value and impactfor Orkney community, which faces pressing sustainability challenges, and support their effortsin reaching sustainable tourism development of their destination.

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2. Smart Villages – participatory processes for sustainable rural development

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Introduction

There is a need for digital innovation initiatives in rural areas, where rural development has been marginalised in favor of urban development (see for example Cowie et al., 2020; Pant et al., 2017). By combining tourism research on digital innovation in rural areas (Braunerhielm etal. 2019; 2018; Ryan Bengtsson et al, 2022) with service design (Vink et al., 2020), and value-creating processes (Nöjd et al. 2020), the aim of our research is to contribute with methods forrural sustainable tourism and community development and identify solutions encompassed forbusinesses in rural settings. Therefore, we contribute with ways of conducting participatory research- and innovation processes, focusing on places as both destinations and local communities. Our current research project is using a participatory approach developed during several years of previous research, albeit in a wider sense where tourism development is put inthe context of a general notion of sustainable rural development. The purpose of our recent project 'Smart Villages', is to gain increased knowledge and understanding of how smart solutions can address some of the challenges in rural Sweden. Our general research question is:How can 'Smart Villages' be used as a concept to overcome challenges and support sustainable communities*?* In addition to the overall research question, there are specific research questionscorresponding to each of the three work packages in this project. The specific research questionsare:
WP 1 - What does it mean to be 'smart' in a rural context? What are the challenges forbusinesses and needs of visitors *and* residents in rural villages in Sweden?
WP 2 - How can entrepreneurs in the retail and tourism industry contribute in creating attractiveplaces in rural villages by co-creating 'smart' solutions?
WP 3 - How can 'smartness' in service solutions develop future customer experiences andcreate value for both individual customers and businesses?

This year, focus is on WP 1 and this involves to a large extent various stakeholders in differentways. Using this approach entails both challenges and opportunities and our presentation will discuss the insights drawn from this and previous projects.

Theoretical framework

Inspired by the digital development and innovation in tourism (Braunerhielm et al. forthcoming) we argue that to promote sustainable digital innovation for Smart Villages we need to problematise how spatial and social practises are shaped by technology and the other way around, how technology is shaped by social and spatial practises (Jansson, 2020). Media technology is increasingly and extensively integrated in our way of living (Thielman, 2010; McQuire, 2016; Adams & Jansson, 2012) and has a role in how we understand the world and the activities that we conduct (Fast et al., 2018). In this study, we shift focus on what drives theinnovation process, from focusing on finding solutions based on technology to using technologyto support smart solutions. We therefor aim to contribute with new approaches to inspire new methods.

By adding the concept of 'Smart Villages' to tourism research, we see the possibilities of increasing knowledge about tourism development and innovation in rural areas. Within the fieldof tourism, the term 'smart' has, at least

partly, come to overarch rural and urban boundaries. Smart tourism, or rather smart destinations, are closely interlinked with Smart Cities, but haveaddressed different types of tourism destinations in both rural and urban areas. Tourism is highly dependent on information and communication technologies (see for example Werthner and Klein, 1999; Boes et al 2016; Gelter, 2017) and has been at the forefront of digitalisation (for example at an early stage implementing global digital booking systems, adopting to socialmedia and developing visitor-oriented services such as Airbnb and TripAdvisor) (Gretzel et al, 2015; Krotz, 2017; Mermet, 2017). It is therefore not surprising that the tourism industry has found it useful to apply 'smart' to destination development. Smart tourism applies smart city principles to both urban and rural areas addressing the perspective of visitors/tourists into the development process. Lately, however, we have seen an increased awareness of the plurality inhow digital technologies affect and alter travel and tourism practices. The most prominent example might be studies of Airbnb addressing how the platform triggers gentrificationprocesses, over-tourism, and conflicts between visitors and locals (c.f. Ioannides et al. 2018; Gurran et al. 2018) and at the same time elevated as a successful tool enabling authentic experiences, increased tourism and an inclusive form of tourism (Guttentag, 2015; Kadi et al. 2019). But more profoundly this is an example of how media technology and spatial and socialpractices are highly intertwined. Digital solutions for tourism have socio-cultural and spatial impact, not only within but also beyond the tourism sector (c.f. Jansson, 2020; Braunerhielm &Ryan Bengtsson, forthcoming). Gössling (2017), applies a sustainability perspective on tourismtechnologies, concludes that they have diverse effects, but also suggests that there is an unusedpotential in technology to support sustainable tourism. We agree. And we argue that technologycan only support sustainable tourism if the technology itself is sustainably developed.

Methodology

In our research, we take a participatory approach (Trischler et al, 2018), where we use a place-based method, focusing on bottom-up perspective and a collaborative, creative way of working together with the aim of producing both practical outcomes as well as scientific results and knowledge (Ryan Bengtsson et al, 2022). This method has been formed over five years of research in close collaboration with businesses and organisations and is influenced by researchactively engaging actors (see for example Haraway, 2016 and Ren & Jóhannesson, 2017). Themethod used is divided into three steps where the collaborative process can be viewed as a ladder, each step forming the base for the next. Knowledge and new perspectives create an inputinto the next step. Crucial in understanding local communities and tourism destinations is working with them, their places and the actors with knowledge of the place. This is the motivefor collaborative research as well as theoretical development, tools and methods to address challenges and opportunities, applicable to the service and tourism sector and research within this field. Therefore, there is an increased demand for participatory processes that foster co- creation in sustainable tourism development (Ryan Bengtsson et al, 2022).

In our ongoing project, the method consists of the following three steps: an inventory, a mapping process and evaluation phase. The first step involves gathering vital information that will serve as input into the following steps of the collaborative process. The following studies are undertaken: a qualitative national and international inventory of examples of 'smartness' inrural contexts, qualitative interviews with key actors at our local cases, qualitative inventory ofthe use of digital technology at the local communities and quantitative visitor surveys. The second step builds on the knowledge created in the first step. The second part of the method involves working with stakeholders at local places. This is a process of a series of workshops led by the research team and with the contribution of our partner businesses who are experts inICT and community development and planning. The participants will co-create ideas and solutions on how to address challenges and turn these into opportunities for businesses and other actors in their communities. The third step will involve collaborative testing and evaluating the most viable of the creative ideas and solutions. This will provide not only new solutions adding value to the businesses, residents and visitors, but also ideas and insights for both researchers and the partners involved in the project.

Results

As mentioned, the research project Smart Villages grows out of, and further develops our research on rural innovation processes. Previous research projects resulted in a guide for a three-step innovation process that was used by local tourism businesses/entrepreneurs to develop digital innovations. Examples of innovations created through these processes are place-based digital solutions to enhance experiences at tourism places in the county of Värmland. This wasfor example using a genus perspective and adding guided stories of womens' role in the minesat a cultural heritage site. A rafting company started producing instruction films to visitors andadded a historical perspective to their visitors by using multi-media solutions. The digital solutions were developed and innovated in a collaborative process involving a range of actors at place and building on unique conditions at

place such as the history, the culture and the natural conditions of each local area. When developing technological solutions, we therefore argue for the importance of anchoring solutions in people's practices and needs (Braunerhielm& Ryan Bengtsson forthcoming). We want to develop this further by shifting focus to rural businesses and their specific conditions. At this conference, we will present our recent findingsregarding the knowledge about local conditions – both challenges and opportunities for rural villages.

As mentioned, our current research project is further developing an innovation process,resulting in ideas, concepts and prototypes for digital solutions encompassed to a rural setting,using the concept of 'Smart Villages' as a focal point. Our presentation will therefore also include insights from using this method in our previous and ongoing research project, conductedat in total seven local destinations in Sweden. We will describe this learning-centered 'ecosystem' focused on the co-creation between researchers, companies, residents and visitorsto create attractive and creative rural environments that contributes to sustainable tourism development. We will discuss challenges and opportunities of engaging stakeholders in a participatory approach. For example, our previous research has shown the benefits of workingwith two or more cases simultaneously and letting actors from different places meet, to create synergy effects. On the other hand, involving multiple stakeholders create uncertainties regarding ownership of solutions and concepts, implementation of ideas and future financial support.

Conclusions

We strive to contribute to a broader use of the concept of 'smart'. With 'smart solutions' in ourproject, we mean new working methods, new collaborations and new digital place-based solutions that contribute to vibrant, resilient rural communities, using resources in an efficient and responsible way. By combining the concept of Smart Village with our place-based approachon digital innovations we also want to add that technology can only support sustainable development if the technology itself is sustainably developed. We are therefore adding a geomedia perspective to Smart Villages to further develop and strengthen the growing researchfield (Jansson, 2020; Adams, 2017; Fast et al. 2018). In this project we are working in a place-based innovation process involving the special challenges, conditions and actors of place to improve conditions for both businesses, locals and visitors. The businesses and the villages willlead the development and innovation instead of 'being led' by the technology. We argue that developing such a process is vital for a sustainable and long-term durable outcome, as it ensuresthat the ideas, concepts and prototypes produced are based on the local communities' situation.Exactly what the practical solutions will be as outcomes of this project, neither we as researchers, nor our participating partners will know at this stage.

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3. Activating relational values for sustainable tourism development in Danish national and nature parks

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Introduction

As enablers of stewardship and transformation, relational values have received increased attention in the domain of environmental protection and sustainability studies (Arias-Arévalo, Martín-López, & Gómez-Baggethun, 2017; Chan et al., 2016; De Vos, Joana, & Dirk, 2018; Himes & Muraca, 2018, 2018; Walsh, Böhme, & Wamsler, 2021). Unlike intrinsic and instrumental values, relational values assume a pluralistic, non-substitutable assessment of ecosystems and nature, occurring through a multiplicity of perspectives and valuation languages; they capture how people perceive 'a good life' and make choices regarding human and nonhuman others (Chan et al., 2016; Chan, Gould, & Pascual, 2018; Himes & Muraca). As such, relational values transcend essentialist dichotomies that juxtapose nature and culture, and offer an alternative to 'status quo' approaches to sustainable transformations that focus predominantly on the tradeoffs between nature protection and use (Chan et al., 2016; Liburd, Blichfeldt, & Duedahl, 2021). These characteristics make relational values particularly relevant for addressing the 'wicked conflict' emerging in and around protected areas, such as national parks, where recreational use is envisaged along with 'sustainable use of natural resources' (Dudley, 2013; T. H. E. Mason et al., 2018). Still, the practical application of relational values has hitherto been hindered by the lack of tools and methodologies of dealing with them (De Vos et al., 2018). We address this gap by applying tourism co-design methods (Duedahl, 2021; Liburd, Duedahl, & Heape, 2020) with a twofold aim to explore relational values and to activate these for initiating sustainable tourism development in nine national and nature parks in Denmark.

Literature review

Recreation and tourism are closely intertwined with protected areas, as initiatives to protect nature have been greatly motivated by a public demand for nature-based leisure (Thomas & Reed, 2019). Apart from being one of the reasons of protected areas' existence, tourism can also produce income, which can then be used for (co-)financing nature conservation efforts and relieving public funds (Whitelaw, King, & Tolkach, 2014). This does not mean that tourism development and nature conservation are inherently aligned; even passive recreational

activities have been shown to have a damaging effect on biodiversity in protected areas (Pickering & Hill, 2007; Reed & Merenlender, 2008). Therefore, addressing the multifunctional and sustainable use of protected areas requires proactive management and governance efforts, which go beyond visitor management (Beunen, Regnerus, & Jaarsma, 2008; P. Mason, 2005).

For this purposes, researchers propose adaptive, flexible governance and management structures that are based on collaboration between various stakeholders (Jamal & Stronza, 2009; Plummer & Fennell, 2009). Such structures build on participatory principles where power is shared among different stakeholders – public and private organizations, local populations and in some cases even visitors and tourists. Public agencies, normally tasked with running protected areas are often willing to share power due to their lack of both financial and human resources to fulfil the protected areas' missions, yet managing collaboration and enabling participation creates additional challenges (Kwiatkowski, Hjalager, Liburd, & Saabye Simonsen, 2020; Plummer & Fennell, 2009). Lack of willingness to compromise, unbalanced access to resources, insufficient commitment, mistrust are some of the factors listed as inhibitors (Plummer & Armitage, 2007).

While differences among stakeholders are typically seen as the main hindrance for collaboration, shared values can become the uniting force (Liburd & Becken, 2017). Values serve as 'ultimate rationales for action' and thus relate directly to ideas about 'good' (in) life, thus making them indispensable in sustainable development (Dietz, Fitzgerald, & Shwom, 2005; Spates, 1983). The advantage of considering nature-related values at the relational level, i.e. deriving from relationships of individuals with nature, is that it connects nature directly to an individual (unlike intrinsic nature values) and emphasizes the interdependence of one's personal wellbeing with nature's 'wellbeing', thus making it possible for both to flourish (Chan et al., 2016; Chan, Gould, & Pascual, 2018). Taking a relational values approach furthermore retains the context of nature valuation and allows for the co-existence of multiple values (Arias- Arévalo et al., 2017). Chan et al. (2018) argue that relational values can 'supplant the privileged position that economics has played as the central discipline for guiding policymaking and practice' (p. A7), which calls for empirical evidence of how relational values can be activated by tourism in protected areas.

Methodology

Tourism co-design is a methodology that embraces the complexities of relational, ambiguous, generative and negotiative processes involved in tourism development. It facilitates collaboration between various stakeholders based on the notion of developing tourism with instead of for others (Duedahl, 2021; Liburd et al., 2020). The range of tourism co-design methods, processes and interventions help leverage participants' variations of interpretation and arrive at syntheses of understanding (Heape & Liburd, 2018; Liburd et al., 2020).

We developed several tourism co-design activities with which we experimented during individual site visits and workshops held in four national parks (Kongernes Nordsjælland, Thy, Wadden Sea, Skjoldungernes Land) and five nature parks (Lillebælt, Randers Fjord, Amager, Nordals, Nissum Fjord) in Denmark from May to September 2021. The workshops participants were selected by the respective park secretariat and included tourism businesses, landowners, local interest groups, nature NGOs, park staff, governmental and municipal agencies. During the workshop, among other, participants were asked to 'map your park' using various craft supplies; to place personal objects on the map and share their relations with the park; and to write a postcard capturing their visit to the park 30 years from now. We engaged in reflective and reflexive discussions before, during and multiple times after each workshop, in addition to analysis of extensive notes and video-recordings from each workshop whereby deep insights on relational values and sustainable tourism development emerged.

Results and argumentation

We have noted several characteristics and consequences of activating relational values when discussing sustainable tourism development in the national and nature parks. The tone of stakeholder interactions shifted notably to a point of temporarily suspending existing power relations on the discussions, just as new stakeholder alliances were enabled.

By design, the workshop activities motivated participants to express their personal relations to the park. Narrating personal stories, when placing the object to the 'map' uncovered the variety of backgrounds, interests and motivations. Very few participants mentioned professional relations only e.g. 'the park is part of my everyday work', and even those who did made them personal e.g. 'I am proud of this project we did together with…'. While diverse in content, the personal experiences appeared unique and authentic to which others were able to relate, echoing the findings of Klain et al. (2017). It also helped avoid confrontations and quarrels (typical

for traditional public hearings) and moved the discussions from specific matters of disagreement to more fundamental issues, such as, with whom the stakeholders would like to share the park, who can help drive sustainable tourism transformations, and why the park and tourism in it are important.

The personal stories revealed the connections of individual lives with the 'wellbeing' of the park, whether through silence, smells, spaces, or activities provided by the park. This was true for participants with different levels of power over park development – representatives of government agencies, landowners or recent newcomers. Some participants voiced that stakeholders not present at the workshops also have personal reasons to 'care' about the park, because 'even politicians like taking a stroll in nature'. The effect of the existing power relations thus was diminished by the egalitarian nature of personal relations with the park, similar to the observations by Ishihara (2018). This was especially prominent during the negotiations that individual participants had to engage in in order to collaboratively map their park.

At the same time, recognizing similar ways of valuing nature and the park helped create alliances which went beyond the usual categorizations of stakeholders. This revealed that not all landowners nor all tourism businesses share the same interests. Moreover, those more interested in developing tourism and those who would like 'more' nature can be aligned when they recognize that they all care strongly about the existence and flourishing of the park. The emergence of such diverse stakeholder alliances is important for negotiations with external stakeholders that have an effect on the park but may not have any personal connections, e.g. legislators, international companies, media, etc.

Conclusions

In this research, we employed tourism co-design methodology to activate relational values for initiating sustainable tourism development in protected areas in Denmark. The characteristics of tourism co-design enabled us to analyze the discussions and tensions at the level of individual contexts of relating with parks and nature and the social negotiations of these contexts. We revealed that activating relational values of various stakeholders can enable productive collaborative processes that otherwise stall due to disagreements on goals and outcomes. This takes place through 'softening' the effects of existing power structures and uniting stakeholders based on caring for the park with others. While our attempts were directed at initiating sustainable development processes, further research should explore how relational values can be integrated into operational and strategic tools of tourism and protected areas development.

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4. How green transition can change the self-image of small island communities and create a more climate-responsible hospitality industry

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Introduction

The aim of the extended abstract is to uncover how a green transition of a small island community based on fossil-based energy to renewable sources of energy impact hospitality and experience economy on the destination. From a research point of view, small islands are analytically interesting as they can be considered large societies in a micro format with which the islands can tell us about some of the gains and challenges that come with a roll-out of the green transition on a society level. The task is to zoom in on some of the underlying backgroundmechanisms that may have a decisive effect on the depth and scope of the green transition. When zooming out again, citizens, government officials, business, and social science as well, can become more knowable about what mechanisms that characterizes a process of transition moving from a fossil-based society to a society that is wholly or exclusively driven by renewable energy sources. The empirical field for the investigation is the small island Christiansø (Ertholmene) which is located in scenic surroundings 18 km from Bornholm in themost eastern Denmark. The island has around 90 inhabitants who are employed in various professions. The tourist industry is very central as the island is visited annually by approx.
45.000 tourists. Since tourism plays a critical role for Christiansø both economically and socially, the status of the tourists in the communicative processes surrounding the transition toa more sustainable and climate responsible island will also be included as a central element in the analysis. As a historical site in the Baltic Sea Christiansø is a tourist destination containingaesthetic and experimental economic elements that each year attracts a larger number of Danishand international tourists. Experience economy is a term that describes how companies or tourist destinations like Christiansø develop experiences which consumers or guests are willingto pay for and in return receives perceptions that gives them meaning and add them value.

Literature Review

Hospitality, including experience economy must navigate in a highly complex and unpredictable world. The emergence of the Covid-19 pandemic displaced the tectonic plates under the hospitality industry. Climate change is another factor which creates tremors within the foundation below hospitality and underpin that we all live in a globalized risk society (Beck,1992; Beck 2008). Contingency is a team for unpredictability and a concept that help to explainhow arbitrariness and random coincidence puts social systems under internal as well as externalpressure (Giddens, 1991; Rasch, 2000; Beck, 2008; Luhmann, 2013; Luhmann, 2018). Climaticchanges create conditions of contingency in society as their consequences abruptly and withoutwarning can seriously damage the local hospitality industry and undermine experience economy. With the emergence of climatic changes, nature has become even more capricious than before in modern times, which result in rising water level, higher frequency of flooding and hurricanes that threaten life and material values. Discussions revolving how green transitioncan executed on Christiansø and more generally around in society demonstrates an increased contingency alertness related to the climate among citizens.

An overall awareness among people that present conditions could be different that they are, and more dramatically climatic events might occur in future seems to be an almost common mindset. The fact that Christiansø as a small island community located out in the sea, is exposedto the consequence of climate changes on another level than mainland areas would probably underpin a consciousness of climatic contingency. All in all, an experience economy that takesthe climate changes into account by addressing sustainability can be labeled as a responsible experience economy. Suppliers of experiences like hotels or destinations which prepare themselves for future consequences of climate changes might be more social resilient and economic prosperous than destinations that choose to ignore increases in the average temperature on a global scale or the sea level rise.

Methodology

The project combines a post-structural discursive analysis and a system theorical approach on the interplay between hospitality and green transition (Foucault, 2001; Luhmann, 1995). The purpose is to analyze how an island community on a discursive level articulate the green transition and which implication such transition has on the self-image of the inhabitants. The discursive task is to examine what is being said and by whom and when these statements manifest themselves (Foucault, 1981; Foucault, 1991). The empirical field is public hearing, citizen meetings and in-depth interviews with respondents concerning the interplay between hospitality and green transition. The content of decision-making from the so-called island council with representants from the public authorities and citizens will also be part of the discursive analysis. The project offers an analysis of how the inhabitants, including the representatives of the hospitality industry on Christiansø observes themselves and their surroundings during the green transformation process of their local community (Foucault, 1991,Foucault, 2001; Luhmann, 1995; Luhmann, 2013). The shift from a local community based onfossil energy sources to renewable energy sources probably leads to an establishment of a greendiscursive self-observation among the inhabitants. A green self-observation should not necessarily be considered as if all citizens support and energy technological turnaround, since it must be assumed that there are citizens who are more skeptical or opposed to the implementation of green energy technology initiatives on the island. The assumption is ratherthat with the green transition, the inhabitants are offered an opportunity to observe themselvesand their outside world with a green gaze which the island´s potentials and challenges are exposed and give rise to a deeper self-referential reflection. The research question is the following:

How does green transition affect the island community of Christiansø and in what way does thelocal hospitality industry, including the experience economy contribute to the destination development of the island?

The analytical ambition is to incircle a regularity in the dissemination of statements that are collected, which Michel Foucault (1926-1984) characterize as a discursive formation (Foucault,2001). The statements can be seen as elements in a discursive articulation of the social impulsesthat can be registered during the roll-out of the green transition. By combining discourse- and systems theory threshold events can be identified which individually or in interaction mark a difference in the direction of a green transition on the island. A threshold event is a matter of becoming rather than being and where objects or an individuality is undergoing a transformation that moves the from one stage to another (Deleuze, 1994; Deleuze 1999; Heidegger, 2013a). In a more practical sense, threshold events can be an island council meetingwhere the decision concerning the green transition is finally made, or it a be a crisis meeting during the transformation which sets a new direction for the implementation of new renewable energy solutions. To recapitulate, the methodological approach to support a study between

hospitality and green transition which enters into a dialogue with several of the modern classicalthinkers in philosophy and sociology.

Results and argumentation

In connection with Beck´s (1944 - 2015) influential diagnosis of society as a risk society, whichmight be even a more precise description of our contemporary society today than when he presented it in the mid-1980s, he speaks of the development of the reflexive modernity. The reflexive modernity is a concept that explains that society is confronted with the negative derived consequences of its industrial and scientific progress (Beck, 1994). The mistakes that risk to undermine society create a new version of modernity that its more reflexive than the previous one (Beck, 1992; Beck, 1994). Beck argues that in the cooling water of industrial andtechnological development, the planetary and ecological boundaries have long been exceeded and that we as human are located on the top of a civilizational volcano that risk to erupting Beck, 2008). Modernity is sociologically regarded as a post-traditional order in which the traditions are either dissolved or far less important than before (Giddens, 1991).Another condition of modernity is that traditions are not replaced by a rational certainty but rather an institutionalized doubt in which assumptions and hypotheses about society and nature is the leading principle (Giddens, 1991; Giddens, 2013).Doubt, but also reflexivity becomes a basic conditions in modernity since social practices are constantly subjected to an investigative gaze(Giddens, 2013).

Reflexivity and the previously explained states of complexity and contingency create ambivalence and a liquid modernity where there is no fixed coordination to navigate by or solid points of reference to connect with (Luhmann, 2013; Luhmann, 2018; Bauman, 2013). Based on the profound work of Beck, Luhmann, Giddens and Bauman on diagnose modernity we canprobably say that we are entering a new societal transformation going from the reflexive modernity to a regenerative modernity with increasingly focus on rebuilding, restoring and repairing the serious damage that the fossil-based industry, transportation, a mass - producing agriculture have caused on climate and nature. In addition, the sociological analysis of modernity, philosophical orientated critics of the technologically based modernization, such Hans Jonas (1903-1993) and Martin Heidegger (1889-1976) argues that technology has in various ways contributed to the risk of societal self-destruction (Jonas, 1985; Heidegger, 2013b). Conversely, technology can be seen as humanity's last lifeline before climate change presumably becomes irreversible in the second half of the 21st century.

Conclusions

Climate change has become a source for technological innovation and economic growth whichwe see in the development, production, and sale of wind turbines, photovoltaic systems, and electric cars. Climate perspective is in these cases embedded into the technological development with turn the industry into a climate-reflexive state. The green transition of an island community such as Christiansø underpin a climate-responsible hospitality industry basedon renewable technological energy sources and is a practical exemplification of the emergenceof a regenerative modernity. A discursive articulation of a green transition will probably createa new kind of self-observation and social self-referentiality among the inhabitants. Green lenses of sustainability and climate responsibility might change the way the small society refers to itself. The analytical task will be to observe how the citizens choose to articulate a possible green transition and observe themselves containing a possible green gaze on their localcommunity.

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Session 1.4. Entrepreneurship in tourism and hospitality

1. Swedish hoteliers' attitudes towards Halal tourism

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Introduction

Halal tourism generates new incomes from Muslim tourists (Boğan, 2020) for both Muslim and non-Muslim destinations and it may be applied for Sweden as well. The increase of Halaltourism should be explained by increased wealth in many Muslim countries that resulted in increased travel to other countries during recent years (Rachmiatie et al., 2021). Halal tourismand its close substitute, Muslim-friendly tourism, can create good image and destination loyalty for both Muslim and non-Muslim countries (Rashid et al., 2020; Suhartanto et al., 2020; Valino et al., 2020). However, the potential of this segment is so big that even tourism industry in several non-Muslim countries have done investments on it in the last decade (Abbasian, 2021) and some governments also promote it (see e.g. Adel et al., 2021). Halal and Muslim-friendly tourism, with a link to hotels, have not been studied earlier in a Swedishcontext and a research gap is existing. Hence, the overall purpose of this paper is to get a deeper understanding of Swedish hoteliers' attitudes towards Halal tourism and its close substitute Muslim-friendly tourism and their promotion in Sweden.

Literature review

Halal tourism contains many components of detailed requirements, which according to El- Gohary (2016) must be followed to meet the Halal tourists' needs at Halal hotels. A completeHalal hotel offers all standard services while also being able to include all sorts of Muslim activities in accordance with Sharia rules at the same time (Oktadiana et al., 2016). It makes the concept generally very demanding with hard attributes since the guests have many specialrequirements compared to standardized hotels (El-Gohary, 2016) and the service supply is very challenging. This concept requires also recruitment of specially educated staff (Bastaman, 2019; Joeliaty et al., 2020) which can be a big challenge for a hotelier in a non- Muslim country. Another dilemma for the Halal invested hotel industry is the lack of an international standardized certification system for Halal hotels, restaurants, and other actors, which is needed to accommodate the Halal tourists' needs (Razalli et al., 2013; Suligoj and Marusko, 2017). Since these requirements are difficult to live up to in secular countries, some hotels prefer the Muslim-friendly concept that is a lighter version of Halal tourism, delimited to the basic service needs of Muslim travellers, and absence of alcohol, pork, and gambling as part of the hotel's service (Arasli et al., 2021; CrescentRating, n.d.).

Methodology

A mixed method approach was initially deemed to fit this research. This approach facilitates to get a deeper understanding of a phenomenon and draw more general conclusions (Lune and Berg, 2017). The online survey tool Sunet Survey was used to conduct the investigation. In spring 2021 an email with the survey link was sent to 521 hotels (2-5 stars) in Middle Sweden region and the hotels' management (CEOs, owners or directors) were asked to answer plus participate in a follow up interview afterwards. In the survey authors gave detailed clarifications of Halal and Muslim-friendly tourism and their attributes, and the survey contained both close-set questions with possibility to give comments, and open-endedquestions. Ultimately 62 individuals (12%) were willing to participate. Also, five of the respondents participated in the follow up interviews. The close-ended questions contained summarily demographic questions (gender, age, years in the industry, educational level- with comments field, current position- with comments field), knowledge on Halal tourism, attitudetowards implementing Halal concept at their own hotels- with comments field, Cultural impacts of Halal tourism marketing in Sweden- with comments field, attitude towards implementing Muslim friendly concept on their own hotels, attitude towards marketing Sweden as Halal destination or Muslim friendly destination- with comments field, attitude towards option i.e. that both halal, vegetarian, and non-halal food and drink is served - with comments field, attitude towards implementing option on their own hotels- with comments field, economic and cultural significance of the option concept- with comments field. The purely open-ended questions concerned advantages and disadvantages with Halal tourism development in Sweden, plus their

willingness to participate in a follow up interview. The follow up interviews were a repetition of all questions mentioned above and elaboration or clarification of the answers.
Analysis method consists of Conventional content analysis (Lune and Berg, 2017) i.e.inductive approach to qualitative and quantitative content in the raw material and presentation of Manifest content but also interpretation of underlying/latent meanings in the data.

Results and discussion

A predominant majority of the respondents are negative towards both Halal and Muslim- friendly concepts, although these two concepts can bring extra jobs and revenue to Swedishhotel industry including their own hotels. Also, a majority see more disadvantages than advantages with promoting Sweden as Halal or Muslim-friendly destination. Two general patterns are behind this negative attitude: secular/cultural challenges and financial concerns.

Concerning the secular/cultural challenges, they reason among other things that Halal and Muslim-friendly concepts are against Swedish secular values like individual freedom, humanand gender equality, and religious freedom that are deeply rooted in the Swedish culture. Therespondents also mean that religious dogmas, devaluation of women, gender division, exclusion of other guests, etcetera that are associated with these two concepts are not in line with Swedish values.

"This contributes to conserving a segregated approach between genders and is atodds with the progress we've gone through for centuries towards a more equal society."

Concerning the financial challenges, they mean that both concepts are very demanding financially since the adaption of the service requires huge budget for investment. In addition,they reason that the profitability of the concepts is unsecure since these two concepts, which concern a small number of guests, can disturb/scare away and exclude other non-Halal guests. In addition, the logistic is complicated, and recruiting right staff is a big economic challenge.

"The proportion of guests is very small in relation to other guests."

At the same time a considerable minority seem to be positive to the scenario of option i.e.that both Halal, vegetarian, and non-Halal food and drink is served, and there is a prayingroom plus slot machine in the hotel.

Conclusions

Through the results and a comparison with many earlier studies (e.g. Adel et al., 2021; Joeliaty et al., 2020) these concepts are very demanding for a secular country like Sweden. These hoteliers are not fond of positioning themselves on the Halal or Muslim-friendly tourism market. These results are in consistent with an earlier Swedish study (Abbasian, 2021) about Swedish tourism stakeholders and their attitudes towards Halal tourism. This research contributes to existing body of the research on Halal tourism and has implications for Swedish research on tourism and hospitality. It has also research implications for tourism scholars in our neighbouring Nordic/Scandinavian countries that show similarity in economic, political and social systems but also similarity in cultural and secular values. This research has practical implication for Swedish tourism and hotel industries and provides them knowledge on the issue and better understanding of their own abilities and weaknesses regarding receiving tourists from Muslim countries. The results of this paper are also important for organisations like Visit Sweden that marketing Sweden towards new nations/markets.

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2. Commodification of recreational hunting in Sweden – hunting tourism experiences as 'peculiar goods'

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Introduction

Recreational hunting in Sweden can be depicted as being embedded in two different but overlapping cultural and socio-economic contexts. One is the traditional non-commercial and stewardship-oriented form hunting, in Swedish called 'allmoge' hunting. It is characterised bya democratic hunting tradition where the local hunting team is ascribed a main role in wildlife management. These teams often include the landowner, or the landowner may receive either monetary compensation or a proportion of the meat as payment. Another form is the commercial form of hunting, where hunting is packaged and offered to visitors, quite often withservices such as accommodation, with food and other services included. Although the huntingas such is similar, these two forms of organising hunting are based on different logics of exchange. The 'allmoge' hunting is in general terms organised by local communities of huntersor through 'friendship hunting' a reciprocal relationship where friends are invited to hunt witha team. The other is market-oriented, arranging hunting events for visitors/tourists, withdiffering range of price depending on the segment. These two systems represent different valuespheres that both intersect and collide, creating tensions and ambiguity. This is a tension that may be even reinforced considering the circumstance that hunting, as a consumptive form of wildlife tourism (cf. Lovelock, 2008), highlights ethical aspects and can thus be considered to be a morally-contested area (Cohen, 2014; von Essen, 2018).

The paper is based on a study of hunting tourism enterprising in Sweden. The study examines how hunting tourism businesses in Sweden navigate in a complex social, economic and moral environment. The aim of the present paper is to identify how tensions between a market- oriented value sphere and a value sphere based on friendship- and community reciprocity are played out in hunting tourism entrepreneurship. In particular, the study focuses on the ambiguous character of the hunting experience product and the different narratives and discourses framing what is considered, by the actors themselves, to be a 'good' hunting tourismexperience.

Literature review

Hunting tourism takes many forms and can be broadly defined as a form of consumptive wildlife tourism, where hunting takes place in a region other than the hunter´s own region (Lovelock, 2008). In this type of tourism, the actors involved – tourists as well as service providers – do not always regard themselves as participants in the tourism industry. Landowners, for instance, may organize hunting events and invite hunters from their own

personal network without considering themselves to be involved in tourism. Others may lease land and run commercial enterprises with packaged hunting tours, with a clear marketing profileas professional entrepreneurs.

It has been argued that hunting tourism can sustain a social sustainable development, benefiting rural communities and local economies (Dahl & Sjöberg, 2010; Matilainen & Keskinarkaus, 2010; Novelli, Barnes, & Humavindu, 2006; Nygård & Uthardt, 2011; Willebrand, 2009; Wszola et al., 2020). However, the extent to which hunting tourism is economically and sociallybeneficial to local livelihoods, particularly in comparison to non-consumptive wildlife tourism,is highly contextual (Baker, 1997; Mbaiwa, 2011, 2018; Novelli et al., 2006). Trophy hunting, for instance, is often seen as the most notorious form of international hunting tourism, and its effects on the conservation of wildlife is debated (Aryal, Morley, Cowan, & Ji, 2016). In a similar vein, local residents' and the public's views on trophy hunting and sport hunting in various parts of the world is probably even more controversial, and demonstrate underlying moral, social and political tensions (MacKay & Campbell, 2004; Mkono, 2019; Nordbø, Turdumambetov, & Gulcan, 2018).

In the Nordic countries, such as Sweden and Denmark, the general public is generally supportive of recreational hunting, particularly if it has a utilitarian dimension (Gamborg & Söndergaard Jensen, 2017; Kagervall, 2014; Ljung, Riley, & Ericsson, 2015; Willebrand, 2009). However, as this study demonstrates, commercialization of hunting is a controversial area, also among hunters themselves. Studies from Norway (Oian & Skogen, 2016) and Finland(Nygård & Uthardt, 2011) and a comparison between Finland and Scotland (Watts, Matilainen,Kurki, & Keskinarkaus, 2017) have shown a similar pattern of 'frictional resistance' (Watts etal., 2017) in the local and dominant hunting culture towards hunting tourism. Several reasons have been identified: Competition for resources in places where the game decreases due to an intensified hunting, and increased prices for hunting leases when more hunting rights are allocated to commercial actors. Other factors being identified are socio-cultural dimensions such as risks associated with unethical hunting practices. The few studies that exist of a Swedishcontext (Dahl & Sjöberg, 2010; Gunnarsdotter, 2005; Kagervall, 2014; Willebrand, 2009) pointat a similar direction and have highlighted an ambivalence among hunters towards commercialhunting tourism.

These differing, sometimes oppositional, views and traditions among hunters and hunting operators in Sweden serves as the context and the backdrop for the present study. The analysishas identified different logics and forms of exchange, highlighting a tension between differentvalue spheres (Andersson Cederholm & Sjöholm, 2020, 2021). This paper builds on previous publications and highlights how the promotion of specific experience values are embedded in moral accounts of value. The analysis departs from literature in economic sociology on the moral economy and the notion of 'peculiar goods' – a specific type of commodity that evokes moral doubt or ambiguity when commodified (Fourcade 2011). This is the kind of goods that must find legitimacy as 'products' (Beckert & Aspers, 2011). This paper investigates how thisprocess of legitimacy is being enacted by the hunting tourism operators, by analysing accountsand narratives of the 'good' hunting tourism experience.

Methodology

The study is based on ethnographic interviews with 30 business operators based in Sweden, observations of hunting arrangements, and document analysis of hunting media. The businesseshave different profiles in terms of marketing – some of them do not market their business as specifically tourism oriented with service packages etc., or barely do any marketing at all, othershave a clear marketized profile with specific service offerings and packages. The sample includes businesses of different size and character – some own their own land, some lease hunting grounds, some have extensive grounds, some are relatively small. They are located in various parts in Sweden which means that that they are offering different types of hunting depending on the fauna and geographical/natural conditions. Some of the establishments are run by a single owner, a few of them by a couple/family, and a couple of them comprise large estates or farms. All of them offer hunting tourism packages or events to national as well as international guests. In general terms, although the economic conditions and resources vary between the different enterprises, the business owners clearly emphasise their passion for hunting, and the lifestyle dimension in running such a business.

By analysing the interviewees *accounts*, we focus on the mode in which the social reality is explained, narrated and justified (Scott & Lyman, 1968). In this mode, we can also discern many different voices or counternarratives in the interviewees' accounts as they relate to various, sometimes conflicting, positions and opinions of other stakeholders, such as customers,competitors, authorities, landowners, as well as the general public.

Results

The analysis demonstrates how moral arguments concerning wildlife management and humanwell-being are embedded in market relations and discourses on experiences, entailing different, but intertwined, moral-economic narratives on what constitutes a 'good' hunting experience. In line with an experience discourse in tourism, hunting may be promoted as a holistic and embodied nature experience, packaged as a service offering with food, wine, accommodation. It may also be framed in line with sport-discourse, focusing on quantifiable results such as number of kills or the weight and length of trophies. Another way of framing the hunting experience is in utilitarian terms, such as hunting for the sake of having access to sustainable quality meat. The analysis demonstrates how these arguments are embedded and framed in different narratives and discourses, highlighting a tension between personal lifestyle values and business, stewardship and commerce, wildlife management and recreation/leisure.

Conclusions

The findings show a complex economy where stewardship hunting – the traditional so called 'allmoge' hunting characterised by friendship- and community reciprocity – is both intertwinedwith and kept separate from market relations. This makes the hunting tourism product appear as a multifaceted as well as a 'peculiar' form of commodity. In this paper, we propose the concept of moral economy as an analytical framework in order to understand this type of market, existing on the fringe between market and non-market relations, in a morally-contestedspace. The notion of moral economy as we define it, points at a social process – an ongoing anddynamic negotiation and justification of what a product is and should be, with an ever-present and lurking doubt whether this should, at all, be considered a 'product'. Hunting tourism, we argue, is a good case in point to demonstrate such a dynamic process.

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3. Hotel managers perspective to the core service of the hotel

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Introduction

Today millions of overnight stays in hotel rooms are sold daily. Hotels offer diverse physical spaces for the customers to stay, ranging from small bed-sized rooms at capsule hotels (Chen, Wong, Bilgihan and Okumus, 2020) to luxury hotels with condominium units (DeFranco, Koh,Prem and Love, 2022) . While hotels sell rooms, the tourism service providers as well as authorities compile statistics on numbers of an overnight stays, occupancy rates and average room prices. For the hotel, it is a about revenues, while for tourism authorities – statistics relating to competitiveness. Hence, there seems to be lack of research focusing on the overall understanding of how the hotel management perceives the role of the guestroom for the customer and what is the role of the room per se in the hotel management.

Literature review

For the tourist, booking a room at a hotel is an activity requiring several decisions based on purpose of the trip, available resources and personal preferences. Considerable number of studies have investigated factors affecting custumer' hotel choice (e.g. Dolnicar and Otter ,2003;Jang, Liu, Kang & Yang, 2018; Kim & Perdue, 2013) revealing attributes referring to services, hotel as a whole, location, room, price/value, food and beverage, or security. Researchers have investigated the importance of hotel location for the customer (Shoval, McKercher, Ng & Birenboim, 2011), customer's hotel loyalty (El-Adly, 2019) and price for the customer (Chan & Wong, 2006), and lots of research is related to hotel quality and customer satisfaction (e.g.
Amin, Yahya, Ismayatim, Nasharuddin, & Kassim, 2013). In terms of studies from the perspective of hotel management the focus have been on pricing (Kim, Jang, Kang & Kim, 2020), differentiation (Becerra, Santaló & Silva, 2013) and location strategies (Yang, Mao, & Tang, 2018; Yang, Luo, & Law, 2014), hotel performance (Kim, Cho & Brymer 2013), revenuemanagement (Noone, 2016) or channel management (Sanchez-Lozano et al., 2020; Alacron et al., 2009). The hotel room per se or its meaning for the customer or as part of the service of the hotel has got less attention among researchers. In the few guest room related studies the focus has been on price and pricing (e.g. Zhang, Ye & Law, 2011), guest room attributes (Masiero, Heo & Pan 2015; Millar & Baloglu, 2011), design (Park, Pe & Meneely, 2010) or guest room technology (Bilgihan, Smith, Ricci & Bujisic 2016). Studies of Ogle (2009) and Anguera- Torrell et al. (2021) pay attention to guests' sensory experiences related to the hotel guestroom.

Methodology

In this research the generation of a new insight emerges from the process of analyzing the knowledge gained from the hotel managers interviews. This exploratory study is conducted inFinnish context by interviewing hotel managers of ten 4-5 star hotels. Altogether, ten people were interviewed. Five respondents identify their hotels as a luxury brand hotel with 4-5 star ratings. 3 hotels are identified as a spa-hotels, as one of their key services and products is aquapark. Still they also identify as 4-5 star ratings hotels. Eight interviewees were hotel managers and two represent the operational and support management of the hotel business.

Interviews were conducted over a period of four months in May-September 2021. The participants chose where and when to be interviewed. The interviews were digitally recordedand transcribed. Anonymization was used to protect the participants' identities.

Results and argumentation

According to the managers needs of the customers differ between leisure and business customers. Overnight stay in the hotel for leisure customers becomes a stay at "your holiday home". For the business customers the core need related to the hotel stay is a good sleep and comfort. According to the managers the main selling product of the hotel is the room. As well,the hotel managers see the hotel room as the key part of the experience they are selling. In the regard of a whole - they consider the overnight stay in the hotel as the package. As the result, these packages are creating certain meanings for the overnight stay. While most of the managers are using different statistic tools, such as RevPAR and ADR, still they are trying to grasp the guest's satisfaction through the customer feedback.

Conclusions

In this study it can be noted that hotel managers consider the main business sales of the hotel -hotel rooms. Hotel managers do recognize different customer segments: when speaking about business travelers- they have their business needs while the leisure travelers have expectationsof the overnight stay. By recognizing customer needs and the demand for the experience the hotel managers highlight and focus on the easiness of stay in the hotel. Hotel environment andservices are build to deliver a problem free overnight stay in the hotel room. Hotel guests withtheir unique demands and expectations have an active role in shaping an overnight stay in the hotel to meet their own expectation. Hotel managers tend to think they are selling the hotel room, but customer see it as overall experience of hotel stay. In this regard, from the hotel managers perspective the room in the hotel can be defined as an overnight stay service in the hotel environment.

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4. Business ecosystems of food festivals

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Intro defining the aim of the research
This research aims to deepen our knowledge about the structure and meaning of food festival entrepreneurial ecosystems in transforming rural places. Therefore, the study will contribute tothe emerging but still scarce business research on food festival and their role in place development.

Literature review
Prior research suggests that food festivals may offer creative ways to discover and exploit business opportunities for food manufacturers (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014; Einarsen & Mykletun, 2009; Hjalager & Kwiatkowski, 2018). Thus, food festivals have come to play an essential role in many development and branding strategies that revolve around the commodification of local culinary resources (Gyimóthy & Mykletun, 2009).

Methodology
The study is inspired by ideas about entrepreneurial ecosystems, which are formedas combination of social, political, economic and cultural elements within a region. It heavily draws on primary data from 58 in-depth interviews among vendors at three food festivals organized in Poland in the summer of 2020.

Results and argumentation
The study deliver evidence that challenge the widespread argument that the development of festivals is strictly dependent on local resources. The results show a high connectivity of festivals with external structures and food systems. Furthermore, it shows detachment of festivals from everyday life in rural areas, giving a reason to see festivals as extraordinary occasions withing rural settings.

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)
The results show that food festivals offer creative ways to study business ecosystems in rural areas, and deliver relevant insight how food, tourism and rural settings coexist. Based on the results several implications for theory and practice have been outlined.

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Session 1.5. Workshop: What is decent work in tourism and hospitality?

1. Leading tourism organizations in present time of change

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The tourism industry in Finnish Lapland has changed in recent years. The fast growth of the industry brought challenges to obtain a skilled workforce and then, the Covid-19 pandemic hitthe industry hard and made the future of employment uncertain. The crisis in Ukraine affects tourism in many ways.

The leadership of change is believed to be one of the most important leader roles today, so to study the theme is a socially topical issue. Leaders play a key role in implementing organizational change and creating a positive attitude to change among employees.

Leaders' role in change is to foster employee engagement by enabling positive employee experiences for example giving employee's a possibility to design their own work and to participate in processes.

The aim of this study is to discuss the changes in the managerial work as perceived by the entrepreneurs and managers themselves. The study strives to find out, how the recent drastic changes are being described and understood by those in leader position. Hence, it was natural to choose a phenomenological research approach to collecting and analysing the data.

The research material consists of short written reflections. Leaders reflect on themselves and their own operating models as leader. The first reflection seeks to understand a leader's worldof values for leadership. The second aims to reflect on how responded understand the conceptof managing employee experience.

The research results provide windows for industry leadership and thus provide basis for developing industry leadership skills.

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2. Meaningful Work in Tourism: A Literature Review

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Meaningful work has been identified as an important, albeit controversial, interdisciplinary research topic. It seems, there is rather little consensus over what constitutes meaningful workand why is relevant to pursue it. For example, among organizational scholars, meaningful workis most often described to be something good,

associated with desirable outcomes for both employee (e.g. job satisfaction) and employer (e.g. job performance). Business ethics scholars,on the other hand, view the topic through another lens, as an issue related to the subjective experience, including various points at which ethical considerations and decision-making should be taken into consideration.

As an industry vulnerable to changes, tourism has been influenced by recent global changes in consumer behavior, digitalization, and general economic restructuring, among others. The industry was hit severely by the pandemic causing not only employment loss but also a brain drain of skillful human capital. Regarding the near future, tourism organization will need to put more emphasis on diversity management due the increase of migrant workers and different values and expectations of the new generations entering working life.

The purpose of this research is to summarize and weigh the existing discussion on meaningfulwork in tourism studies. The aim is to gain a proper view on the phenomenon based on existing literature, namely articles published in academic tourism and hospitality journals. The results of the literature review will help identify areas of prior scholarship and recognize aspects of meaningful work that received little attention or remained unexplored.

3. Measuring the impact of tourism employment – Weighing the value of human capital

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Measuring tourism is challenging due to the industry's special nature and difficulties in collecting comparable data. As tourism depends heavily on the human factor, a need for qualitative tools for measuring tourism work is raised.

The authors worked on an extensive study concerning tourism labor deployed by the ministry of economic and employment in Finland. Working with the study has resulted in pondering whether the quantitative measures and statistics are enough to understand the impact of tourism work. Earlier research has raised the question of measuring decent work as part of socially sustainable tourism, for instance. The authors add to this discussion by asking how taking a qualitative standing point to scrutinize the value of tourism work could support developing socially sustainable tourism.

The aim of this study is to bring forward the discussion of measuring or weighing the value of tourism work. The authors ask how methods used answer the needs of today and especially the ones of the future. Literature is used to form the basis for discussion. Authors' own experiences from making the study is used to bring insight to the issue at hand.

The time of the pandemic made visible the importance of tourism work in society. The employees did not only lose their income, also working communities were lost. The lack of workforce is a global, forcing us to consider the ways the value of tourism work to be measured and communicated within and outside the industry.

4. Job Insecurity as a Mediator Between Covid-19 Fear and Work Engagement: An Empirical Study in the Norwegian Service Industry

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Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 as a global pandemic on March 11th,2020 (Cucinotta & Vanelli, 2020). Hospitality has been one of the industries that were damaged most (Baum & Hai, 2020), and Norway had to contend with economic challenges that have neverbeen observed before. Compared to 2019, the measured unemployment rate in the Norwegian hospitality sector increased from 3.4% to 13.6% as of February 2021 (Statista, 2020). Such sorts of structural changes threaten staff members' job security and trigger high stress and an uncertain environment (Darvishmotevali et al., 2017; Shin et al., 2019; Sverke et al., 2002). In a workplace,where human resources perceive or experience the concern of job loss, the importance of keeping or retaining engaged human resources in the organization has become more important. Since the employees characterizing with the three dimensions of Work Engagement (WE) (absorption, vigor,and dedication) (Schaufeli et al., 2006) show favorable attitudinal and behavior outcomes (e.g., Yoo & Arnold, 2014; Ibrahim et al., 2019) investigations should be done regarding the engagementlevels of employees. Besides, according to the survivor syndrome, the employees who remain behind (the ones who don't lose their jobs) might be suffered from the erosion of trust and morale,as well as the increased work pressure, emotional stress, and Job Insecurity (JI) (Van der Voet & Vermeeren, 2017). However, in the Nordic service industry, there is no empiric evidence concerning whether service employees with the concern of losing their jobs are more inclined to show minimized appealing behaviors (i.e., engagement, commitment, etc.). To fill out suchresearch gap, this study aims to test a research model where JI mediates the influence of COVID-19 fear on employees' WE, by testing COR Theory and JD-R Model.

Literature Review

Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined the WE as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. According to the transactional model of stress,the way people perceive a stressful event directly shape their individual outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). COVID-19 caused psychological stress, emotional disturbance, depression,irritability, insomnia, anger, and emotional exhaustion (Brooks et al. 2020; Sorokin et al. 2020). It was reported that perceived COVID-19 crisis decreased the engagement levels of employees (Liuet al., 2021). One possible explanation for this relationship, conforming with COR theory, is that people may step back in an attempt to cope or avoid the loss of energetic resources when they experience stress (Shirom, 2003). Reacting in that way may lead employees to consider mentioned situation as depletion of their personal resources; thus, their WE levels might be declined as it wasproved that personal resources were one of the main antecedents of engagement (Bakker, 2011). Besides, risk at the workplace is considered as job demands (Nahrgang et al. 2011); and based on the health impairment process of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2009), increased level of risk emerged during the COVID-19, may also create decrement in WE. Considering the fact that COVID-19 fear is a stressful situation itself that can be explained as the personal resources depletion, people will be less likely to hinder their ability to engage in their work and workplace and go beyond to serve their organizations. Taken together, the following hypothesize was stated.

Hypothesis 1: COVID-19 fear is negatively related to WE.

Sverke et al. (2002) defined JI as, "Subjectively experienced anticipation of a fundamental and involuntary event related to job loss". Pandemics like COVID-19 increases the level of fear and panic felt by societies. Studies conducted in different contexts showed that people are worried of being infected by the coronavirus (Angus Reid Institute, 2020; Aubrey, 2020; Gerhold, 2020).

Especially in sectors that requires direct physical contact, possibility of being infected by the COVID-19 undoubtedly cause employees to feel in fear. The COR theory points out that stress is increased by the perceived threat of being loss of the valuable resources such as health and job security (Hobfoll et al., 2006). In other words, COVID-19 is one of the determinants of stress as itthreatens valuable individual resources. In a similar vein, the future workforce got depressed and anxious about their future career due to COVID-19 (Mahmud et

al. 2020), and employeesexperienced high levels of JI during COVID-19 (Agarwal, 2021; Pacheco et al., 2020). Accordingly, the following hypothesize was stated.
Hypothesis 2: COVID-19 fear is positively related to employee's JI.
Crawford et al. (2010) suggested that people feel that they are frustrated in their efforts to overcomehindrance stressors, and they become less willing to invest energy to deal with those challenging situations. As it was stated by Wang et al. (2015) "job-insecure employees are not able to be fullyengaged at work, because they are concerned about their job outcomes. Instead, they will experience greater anxiety, anger, or frustration" (p. 1251). In line with the COR theory, people who lose valuable resources might take some actions in order to gain new ones (Hobfoll et al, 2000). In other words, people whose valuable resources are threatened due to the JI, might be looking for a resource gain (e.g., feeling of being successful or valuable to others, status at workplace), even if there is a probability of losing the existing ones (e.g., free time, personal health). Employees experiencing JI may act in a way to secure their employability such as workingharder (Staufenbiel & König 2010). However, Attridge (2009) stated that if those uncommon workefforts last for too long employees might experience some negative consequences such as job burnout; which is the term that is strictly distinguished from and considered as the antipode of WE(Bakker & Schaufeli, 2015).
Even though the linkage between JI and WE has been evident (e.g. Vander Elst et al, 2010; Karatepe et al., 2020), this association, as well as the underlying mechanism between COVID-19 fear and WE has been subjected to scant investigation for Norwegian service industry. Therefore,the following hypotheses are stated.
Hypothesis 3: JI is negatively related to WE.
Hypothesis 4: JI mediates the relationship between COVID-19 fear and WE.

Research Methodology

Sample and Data Collection

Rogaland has been strategically important for cruise tourism for many years. In 2019, Stavanger hosted 460.000 cruise tourists and became Norway's second most visited port. (Innovasjon Norge,68, 2019). Considering the contribution of the region to the Norwegian service industry and experienced economic hitches due to the COVID-19, employees working in the service industry residing in Rogaland were the selected as population of the study. The convenience sampling method is mostly chosen when it is available for the researcher to reach population members whoare conveniently available to participate in the study (Saunders et al., 2009). Due to that reason, one of the non-probability techniques, the convenience sampling method was preferred in this study. As it is difficult to gather data from the field by distributing the surveys under the COVID-19 circumstances, the online survey form was employed, and a sample size of 376 was used for further analysis.

Measurements

The Fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S) that was developed by Ahorsu et al. (2020) used in this study. Item factor loadings of the original study were reported between .66 to .74, and acceptable reliability values such as internal consistency (α = .82) and test-retest reliability (ICC = .72) was reported.
JI was assessed with a four-item scale developed by Delery & Doty (1996). The Cronbach's α values of the scale was 0,82 (Etehadi & Karatepe, 2019).
The short 9-item Utrecht WE Scale (UWES) by Schaufeli et al. (2006) was used to measure the engagement levels of participants. The Cronbach's alpha value for the total nine-item scale variedbetween .85 and .92 (median = .92).

Tests of Hypotheses

The approach proposed by Preacher et al. (2007) was applied in order to test the hypothesized model. Specifically, the presented hypotheses in previous parts of the study were validated by utilizing PROCESS macro that has been developed by Hayes (2013).
In line with the hypothesis, COVID-19 fear was negatively related to employee's WE. The statistical results supported the hypothesized relationship (β= -0.202, t=-3.98 $p < 0.01$), hence hypothesis 1 was accepted. In line with hypothesis 2, COVID-19 fear was positively related to employee's JI. The statistical results supported the hypothesized relationship (β=0.309, t=6.50, $p< 0.01$), hence hypothesis 2 was accepted. Hypothesis 3 states, JI was negatively related to employee's WE. The statistical results also supported the hypothesized relationship (β=-0.206, t=-
4.07 $p < 0.01$), hence hypothesis 3 was accepted. Hypothesis 4 states, COVID-19 fear was likely to have an impact on WE through JI. This indirect influence of COVID-19 fear on WE was verifiedto be considered as proved by the 95% confidence interval which did not hold zero (-0.0848; - 0.0143). Thus, the findings of the mediation analysis proved the existence of JI as a partial mediatorin the direct relationship between COVID-19 fear and WE.

Discussion and Conclusion

The research study testing for appertaining to the linkage between COVID-19 fear as well as JI isnot just consistent with the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) yet likewise gets assistance from various other studies (Vo-Thanh, 2020; Aguiar-Quintana et al., 2021; Bajrami et al., 2021; Chen & Eyoun,2021). The anxiousness of shedding the work in the near future during the COVID-19 pandemic aggravates employee's JI. That is, employees with undesirable assumptions about the continuity oftheir job result in elevated levels of JI.

Service industry employee's JI likewise aggravates their WE. This causes the degeneration of the relationship between lower-level staff and the firm (Karatepe et al., 2020). As COR theory indicates(Hobfoll, 2001), service industry staff who have inadequate work-related resources and/or lose their valued resources while attempting to manage their JI lose their confidence toward their management at the micro and their overall trust at the macro levels. Employees who view that COVID-19 fear appears to be a widespread practice throughout the breakout of COVID-19 display anxiousness or stress and anxiety and for that reason have damaging understandings of WE.

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Session 2.1. Inclusive tourism

1. Self-Directed or Attractions-Directed? Intergenerational Difference of Chinese Female Tourist's Selfies in Digital Society

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Introduction with the definition of the aim of the study

Technological revolution formed the material foundation for the digital society. The most definitive feature of digital society, however, is the extent to which people across the world are now connected by new devices (Redshaw, 2020), such as modern smart phones, global information networks or virtual reality (Dufva & Dufva, 2019). In this way, people in digital society all are in the "superconnected" situation, in which the new 'techno-

social' arrangement is the backdrop of digital society, against which various social issues must be understood (Chayko, 2018).

The tourism sector, also, is very much involved in digital transformations, increasingly qualified as Tourism 4.0 or Smart Tourism (Stankov & Gretzel, 2020; Pencarelli, 2020). The tourist is seen as a complex technology-enabled agent (Munar & Gyimothy, 2013).

Although to date Gretzel et al. (2015) reconceptualized the tourist gaze as facilitated by smart phones and social media, with a focus on selfies, these works have been ignoring intergenerational difference. Evidently, the facts show that young people's attitudes towards traveling selfie are not completely consistent. In turn, middle-aged and elderly female tourists are not completely insulated from selfies. The social development of China's reform and opening up for more than 40 years provides an ideal diachronism and synchronism research approach. The authors subdivide female tourists into different age groups to explore whether and why there are differences in their selfie behavior. We divide tourist selfie pictures into a binary manner, namely self-directed and attractions-directed. Then efforts will be put to answer the research question 1: "What kinds of selfie pictures do Chinese female tourists have? What about intergenerational difference?".

Further importantly, as for "selfies attraction-shading effect" (SASE), it is no use staying at the level of recognizing its existence. On the contrary, the factors lead to SASE and the internal mechanism should be found out. This study produces a typology indicating four principal tourists' selfies styles based on the different level of selfies digital technology identification of popular aesthetic (IPA) and differences between tourism and daily life (DTD). In this way the paper can find the reason of SASE and hopefully to put forward some marketing strategy of destinations. So far, research question 2 is following: "What are the factors result in self- directed or attractions-directed selfies pictures? What about intergenerational difference?".

Based on a step-by-step approach, focusing firstly on female tourists' intergenerational differences, and secondly comparing tourism situations and daily life, this paper is devoted to reveal the complexity and details of tourists' selfies. More importantly, by exploring SASE, the authors want to expound the new characteristics of tourist gaze in the digital society. All of above, we hope that the empirical research on data gathered in China will initiate more profound studies on tourism photography.

For the practical objective, this paper proposes a typology indicating four principal modes which will be used for effective destination marketing in this era when selfies have become one of significant ways of tourists' experiences, even a way of tourism.

Literature review

For tourists, the interplay between networked travel (encompassing a constant dialogue with real or imagined social media audiences) and networked cameras (either directly uploading or facilitating the upload to apps and social media) encourages the increasing production and sharing of visual contents (Gretzel, 2017). Taking a "selfie" has become a ritualistic and routinized practice among tourists (Lo & McKercher, 2015).

In terms of marketing objectives, on the one hand, many researchers think that tourist selfies indeed play a prominent Electronic Word of Mouth on destinations (Chang, L. 2019). On the other hand, some investigations revealed the negative influence about tourists' selfies which are named "selfies attraction-shading effect" (Dinhopl & Gretzel, 2016; Christoua et al., 2020; Tan & Yang, 2021). Specifically, in selfie-taking, tourists become the objects of the self- directed tourist gaze, while physical settings and attractions in the destination are retreating and weaken into a supporting role.

These technology-enabled tourists like documenting and sharing their traveling selfies on social medias, especially Z generation (selfie-generation). Literatures are merely updated with the information on tourist selfies in general, as a form of self-witnessing, self-presentation, self- exploring, self-branding, and so on. But most of these research works are not noticed to compare with whether or why selfie behaviors are different between the tourists of different ages.

The desire to show that one 'was there' as a proof in a tourist's photography appears to be a reason for many tourists' photos in front of 'mandatory' sights. When the tourist destination becomes the distant background, which rapidly or completely disappears from the photo, the self becomes raised as a touristic product. This is so

called “attraction-shading effect”, and destinations will face the challenge of having their sites illustrated in travel photographs shared on social networks. The performance of tourist photography will continue its tendencies of being concerned with the self-raising important research.

Methodology

Firstly, we will mainly draw on the Digital Methods paradigm (Rogers, 2013). Digital Methods invite researchers to follow the medium, that is, consider the Internet not so much as an object of study, rather as a source of new methods and languages for understanding contemporary society. Within this paradigm, one of the authors detects and delves into participants online communities (WeChat Moment, Weibo and QQ Zones), observing and participating in the social practices in order to understand their selfie culture.

Secondly, digital anthropology being an important methodology is used integrally to comprehend the behavior logic of influencer and followers, who actually are immersing themselves in the world of the Internet at any moment and sharing their photos on social medias.

Approached more specifically, the data in the study are mainly collected by qualitative methods such as participatory observation and semi-structured interviews. As for interviews, snowball sampling method is adopted. Participants are divided into five groups, namely post- 60s (born in 1960-1969), post-70s (born in 1970-1979), post-80s (born in 1980-1989), post-90s (born in 1990-1999) and post-00s (born after 2000). But the samples of each group are not identical.

Digital anthropology then is also used to analyze structural characteristics of pictures (sample:165) and text data from observation. In addition, journal analysis promoting reflective capability is fully affirmed.

Results and Discussion

In China, most of post-00s female tourists are preferable to take selfies in a self-directed way. Among the post-90s, the proportion who prefer self-centered selfies is significantly less than that of the post-00s. As for the post-80s and Post-70s, on the one hand, the number of selfies taken in traveling is significantly less than that of other types of traveling photos; on the other hand, the proportion of self-directed selfies in all selfies is also very small. For these middle- aged female tourists, it is very pleasant to take photos at the famous scenic spots visiting of which they have been expecting for a long time, while selfies are only one of the new fashions and not everyone likes it, not everyone can learn it. When talking about the post-60s, selfies are basically embarrassing and rarely touched issues.

Furthermore, for some post-00s tourists who put beautiful selfies on their first motivation in some destinations, few of them are willing to take time to take traditional traveling photos. In some of young tourists’ eyes, the attractions-directed pictures are outdated to do so. That is to say, what kind of selfies being selected is judged based on whether it is conducive to young people’s social interaction and the audience’s cultural identity in their WaChat Moment.

What is interesting is that a small number of post-80s and Post-70s female tourists are very keen on taking self-directed selfies which are meticulously decorated, in line with popular aesthetic standards, and accepting the gaze of familiar people in their WaChat Moment. For them, this is something they dare not do in daily life but can do when traveling.

Conclusions

There is a continuity that Chinese female tourists take selfies from a self-directed to an attractions-directed manner (As shown in figure 1). The function of the former is a social intercourse and a self-brand, while the function of the latter is a normal traveling witness.

Figure 1. A continuity tourists' selfies from self-directed to attractions-directed

Age is one of the important classification indicators of the type of traveling selfies. In general, the younger the tourists are, the more they tend to take self-directed selfies. However, the characteristics of female tourists' selfies behavior is much more complicated than that of divided by the age group. In fact, there are three factors which result in self-directed or attractions-directed selfies pictures, namely level of selfies digital technology (SDT), identification of popular aesthetic (IPA) and differences between tourism and daily life (DTD).

For tourists, the degree to which they show these three factors and how the three factors interact with each other will eventually form different types of selfies. Among the five generations, most of the post-00s tourists have the highest degree of SDT, the strongest degree of IPA and the smallest DTD. Being internet aborigines, the youngest group is most influenced by tourism consumption culture and photography in the digital society. They are more inclined to choose a conducive way to their social life that is, taking self-directed selfies. By contrary, most of the post-60s tourists have the lowest degree of SDT, the weakest degree of IPA and the biggest of ATD. As it should be, there are special tourists who show different degree of SDT, IPA and DTD from the general characteristics of their age group.

The study includes implications for policymakers and marketing practitioners by raising awareness about planning and management for selfies hot spots. We should aim to enhance tourism sustainability, quality of life, and social value.

Practical implications

In order to reveal the occurrence process and the effect of SASE, based on Boston Consulting Group (BCG) Matrix theory, the authors choose SDT (X axis) and IPA(Y axis) to propose a typology indicating four principal modes (as shown in the Figure 2.).

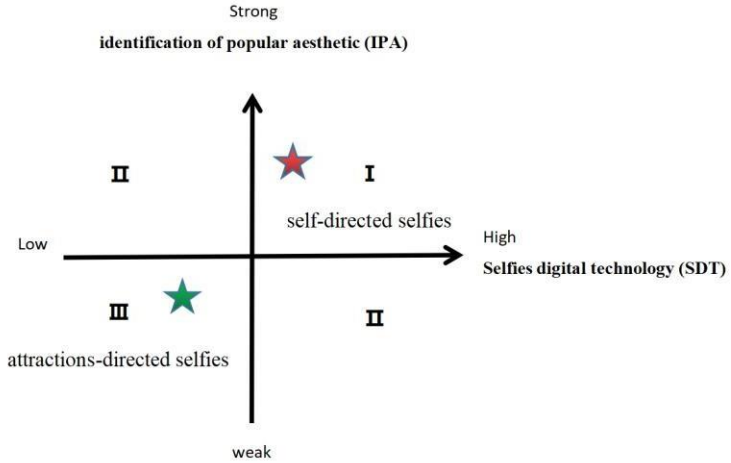

Figure 2. A typology indicating four principal modes

In Table 2, the authors further illustrate the meanings of every quadrant presented in the Figure 2. In fact, Mode Ⅰ vividly reflects the current characteristics of selfies tourism in which the firstmotivation of those young tourists to visit a destination is to be able to take selfies. At the sametime, this kind of destination often shared their common features online—at so called internethot spots. Unfortunately, such destinations often decline quickly due to the lack of in-depth tourism products. So how to make it a sustainable development path is the core task.

Table 2. The illustration of the Modes I-IV

	Degree of influencing factors	selfies style	Tourist	Destination and Marketing
Mode Ⅰ	high SDT, strong IPA	self-directed	most of them are post-00s	internet hot spots; selfies tourism; sustainability
Mode Ⅱ	low SDT, high IPA	mixed	all ages	
Mode Ⅲ	low SDT, weak IPA	attractions-directed	all ages	new marketing methods
Mode Ⅳ	high SDT, weak IPA	mixed	all ages	

As for Mode Ⅲ, some new marketing ideas and theories should be used. Thus, there exists an important step forward in delineating and clarifying the knowledge domain for future research.

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2. Seniors still travel and eat meals, or is it not so among marketers of Scandinavia?

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Introduction

Going forward, the number of older people will increase in most countries in the world. Theproportion of older adults in Norway is rising, with approximately 600,000 people above 67 years old. About half a million of these older adults live at home. The largest increase among the elderly has occurred among those over 90 years old (SSB et al., 2016). The sametrend with a rapidly growing number of elderly people is happening all over the world. In a previous study, food and meals were seen as factors that can reduce loneliness among olderpeople

(Hansen, 2020a). In other articles, the focus has not only been on the elderly as tourists, but also what they think about the future (Hansen, 2020b).

They have several things in common and something that should be mentioned is the joy of theopportunities to travel to new places and eat good food as well as enjoy good drinks with the food. According to Statistics Norway, there was an increase from 2017 to 2021 of travellers inthe age group 67-79 years in Norway (SSB, 2022). During these years, there is a doubling of the number of travellers for those in this group.

Elderly tourists is a term used by researchers in various contexts (Kim et al., 2015), anotherterm is senior foodies (Balderas-Cejudo et al., 2019). Focus in marketing has been directedtowards the elderly, but it has not achieved the great attention sometimes been included in special interest tourism (Nella and Christou, 2016).

Elderly people who appear in pictures are in this article defined as people who visually looklike over 60 years. Visually, pictures and movies are observed on the various web pages discussed in this article. Scandinavia is in this article equals the three countries: Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

In the three Scandinavian countries, different companies are responsible for marketing the countries. Their goal is to highlight the different countries' qualities and market them in the best possible way so that they appear as attractive destinations for both domestic and foreigntourists. This article wants to look at how the different countries direct their communication through photos and video on their websites on the internet.

The aim of this article is how older people appear in marketing in the 3 Scandinaviancountries, and their interest for local food and beverages.

Method

The method is based on a review of the content of the three different countries' websites on the Internet. The three websites are respectively: visitnorway.no, visitsweden.se, and visitdenmark.dk. A review has been made of the pages with a count of photos and videos thatare for the promotion of the individual countries. Counting of photos has taken place in a 3- week period from March 10th, 2022.

Four different categories were created in which the different images could be placed in asimple way.

Pictures that contain older people are pictures that appear in the marketing from Norway (VisitNorway, 2022), Sweden (VisitSweden, 2022), and Denmark (VisitDenmark, 2022) websites to both nationally and internationally markets. All the web addresses referred to in this article can be found on the internet. Photos or movies from other social media (SoMe) arenot included in this survey such as Instagram.

Movies that contain older people are films that include older people who participate in themarketing from the various Nordic websites mentioned in this article.

Pictures of people it is then people who are under 60 years old and who appear in pictures inthe Nordic websites that market the countries to both national and international markets.

Pictures of nature without any people those are all kinds of images that contain nature, including images of the urban environment, objects, etc. that do not contain people at thesame time.

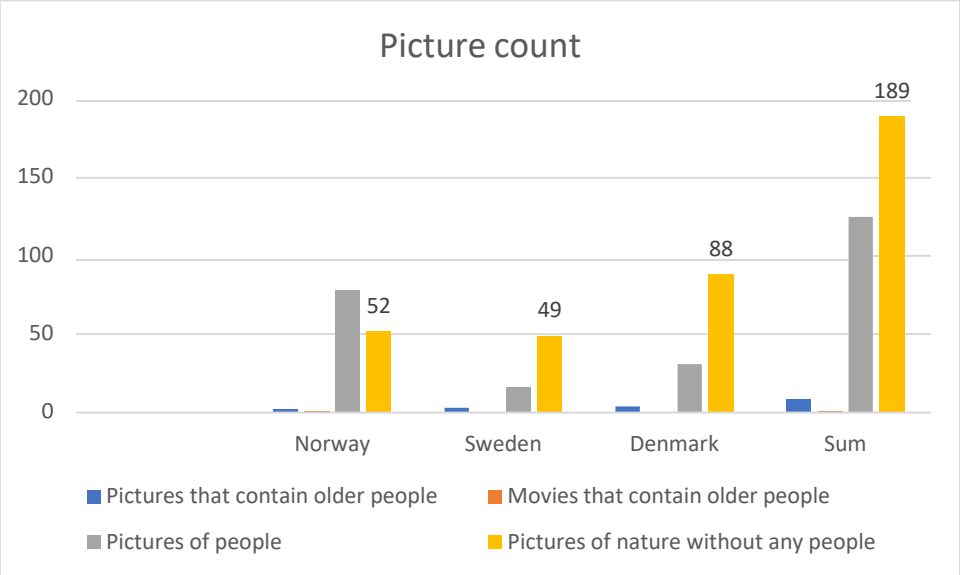

Figure 1 Pictures and film used to market different Scandinavian countries.

Bias

There can be several sources of error. The assessment of photos may have missed people in large photos. The various films may contain people or vice versa and have been placed in thewrong category. An attempt to prevent this, the film was seen several times and pictures counted several times. Another source of error may be the short period of time the number ofimages has been collected during. If the web pages had been overwhelmed throughout the year, then it could be periodic outcomes that could be the cause. Pictures or movies from other sites or apps are not included in these numbers. If this had been included, one would beable to refute or confirm the findings in another way.

Results

The results so far have shown that there is minimal focus on older people in the differentcountries' marketing of the different countries.

The figures are clear that images of nature are in a large majority with 189 images used. The number of pictures with people under 60 is 125. There is a ratio of 66% more pictures of nature than people under 60. Compared to older people over 60 years, there is a clear difference only 7% of the pictures of people contain older people. The total number of pictures is 323 and of these there are 9 pictures of older people over 60 years. This means thatonly 3% of the image contains older people

Discussion

Based on the results, there are several interesting considerations that can be made. The low number of photos with older people both in relation to nature and those under 60 gives the impression that this market is not focused on. In Statistics Norway's population projections, the elderly over the age of 60 are constantly increasing in society. It can be perceived that older people are not prioritized as a market by the various marketing companies when it comes to the use of visual effects such as images and film. ‹ It may seem that the marketing interests are not specifically aimed at seniors in society. Even though elderly have long travel experience, time, money, and interest e.g., for local food and drink. Then they are not chosen as the focus of the marketing campaign not aiming to get more visitors to the countries in this survey. It can be discussed when a whole group of people were almost completely left out if itdoes not show enough diversity or is even discriminatory.

In the article on senior foodies (Balderas-Cejudo et al., 2019), it is concluded that there is a growing niche market that has several facets. The features that this group has include very experienced tourists or travellers, have good finances, have plenty of time to travel, are happyto search for foreign culture, and are particularly interested in local food and gastronomic experiences. There can therefore be a great potential and approach

this group of customers who apparently do not get much attention since they have been left out of the market communication. It may also be the case that the marketing assumes that they reach this groupthrough the measures, including visual effects, that are used today.

Concluding remarks

Targeted marketing towards older people can create a good foundation for companies in localfood and gastronomic experiences, or in other related experience areas. This can be since theyhave good finances, and time to take in such experiences, or just like to have great meal experiences. Since, they might have eaten the best meals and drank the best drinks. On the other hand, it can be a demanding market due to their experience it will be reasonable and assume that they will demand value for money in all aspects of the experience.

Future research should focus more on which groups to market to, and what they want from offers to older people. It should be investigated what potential is both cultural and economicfor companies that provide food and meal experiences in the future to different groups of people.

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3. Accessible for pets but not for persons with a disability? *by Helene Maristuen*

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Introduction and aim of work

The Brundtland – committee developed the term sustainability in 1987 in the report Our Common Future (2021) and a common global consensus decided to work with sustainabilitywithin three areas: environmental, social end economical sustainability. The UN defined 17 sustainable development goals in 2016 and one of the main messages and objectives is leaveno one behind. The UN therefore suggest measures for the most vulnerable people as peoplewith disabilities, refugees, minorities, women, and indigenous people.

The Norwegian tourism -industry is missing millions in revenue according to a chronicle in “forskarsonen” because of bad or no access for people with disabilities. They refer to astudy in Surrey were European destinations lost 142 billion Euro because of inadequate access. The market is large with approximately 20% of the population in Norway which has disability related to age, reduced hearing or vision, asthma, or allergy. The main objective in this study is to collect knowledge about social sustainability in aNorwegian touristic region.

The study has defined two major questions:

R1: What kind of measures within social sustainability does the tourism industry in thisregion?

R2: What kind of measures does the tourism industry in this region within accessibletourism?
The question guide consisted of eight main areas asking about measures at a general level (a), then sub-questions about measures within reduced vision (b), reduced mobility (c), reduced hearing (d) and measures for humans with asthma/allergy or other diseases (e). In addition, one asked about extra staff for PWD and measures within marketing and finally if they have had their products tested by PWD.

Literature review

In UNWTO's report (2017, p.19), they point out that private businesses that integrate business goals with sustainability goals may achieve greater efficacy , cost reductions,increased competitiveness and strengthen their profile within social responsibility.
World Health Organization (2021) reports that about 1 billion or 15% of the population lives with some form of disability and these numbers will increase dramatically due to demographic changes and chronic health conditions. In the Norwegian government's strategy on gender equality for people with disabilities face barriers that are an obstacle togender equality. The strategy (2018) will be a counterweight to this where the vision about an equal society where everyone can participate, contribute and live free and independent lives (2018, p.7). In 2017 (2018), the new Gender Equality and Discrimination Act was passed, which came into force on January 1st 2018. Another important milestone was the obligation of the UN Convention on the Right of Persons with Disabilities in 2013.
Some authors point out (Dary, Cameron & Pegg, 2010) the complexity of facilitating this group conserving that some, i.e. people with cerebal palsy may have needs at different levels from a need of wheelchair to crutches or communication tools to talk. This meansthat a person like this needs an accessible physical environment as well as technology andsocial guidelines compared to a person with reduced hearing who does not have the same need.
In the study by Cloquet et al. (2017, p. 223) it is pointed out that some of the barriers for PWD were that they did not feel welcome at well-known and popular tourist attractions. In the study by Rubio-Escuderos et al (2019, p. 5) it emerges that the feeling of being independent and self-sufficient in travel is something that motivates PWD to travel. The same study shows that they feel dependent on others for travel decisions and this dependence makes them feel like a burden. On the other hand, travel without close familyor friends makes them feel very independent and makes them more aware of their abilities.

Methodology

Research method is qualitative with semi- structured interviews and target group is tourismbusinesses, hence businesses within attractions, activities, and accommodation in a touristicregion of Norway. A detailed interview guide was therefore prepared in advance. Some benefits in this kind of method may be that the interviews are easier to analyze because the same question areas are covered, but at the same time the method is more flexible than structured interviews as it is possible to ask follow-up questions.
The data collection was carried out by telephone interviews lasting from thirty to sixty minutes and it was recorded to ensure that no information was lost. Neuman (2009) points outthat the benefits in telephone interviews is that it is more efficient and lower costs than travelling to seek face-to-face interviews. Given that these are busy business leaders in the tourism industry it was important and most suitable to do telephone interviews. The sample included six different tourist businesses. The study was conducted spring 2021.

Results and argumentation

The study shows that overall, there are few measures for people with reduced mobilty or people in wheelchair. They are not able to visit popular touristic regions on their own like theone Norwegian region in this study. They are completely dependent on having an assistant with them or getting help from an employee in the company they visit.
Two out of six companies offer free tickets for assistants but a free ticket for assistants helpslittle in the sense of feeling independent.
Only the vast majority of companies offer extra staff. Furthermore, the results show that threeout of four companies also do not have dedicated parking for PWD. Dedicating one or two parking spaces for people with disability seems to be a low-hanging fruit that most business owners should be able to implement. This is especially important for people with reduced mobility. Three out of six companies also do not have measure for reduced hearing. With current technology, it should be relatively easy to introduce measures for this subgroup. On most new phones, there are separate settings for right-hand equipment and there are several apps that one

may use. None of the six companies have performed tests with their experiencesagainst the segment of PWD. Inviting the subgroups outlined here to test the experience and provide constructive feedback can also provide good PR and build an image around social responsibility. What if these tourist companies get visitors from tourism bloggers i.e. mystery guest. regarding inclusive tourism? In addition to studies that the article on Forskarsonen refers to (2021) there are several studies (Vila, Gonzalez & Darcy, 2019) that show that PWD are a purchasing segment that can also travel all year round. They point out that Norway is thecountry in Europe with the highest expenditure on disability in high gross domestic product and that Norway is the country in the Nordic region with the greatest market potential.

Paradoxically, and despite this, they found that Norway's official tourism website is the one with the most problems in high accessibility when they tested it with the tool referred to as "the website Accessibility Test". Actually, Norway's website came out the as the worst.

Further, 5 out of 6 companies had not implemented measures for people with asthma/allergiesor other diseases, while the one company that has done so shows particularly great flexibility and willingness to install an app on their phone in order to observe their guests with diabetes. And the fact that the same business owner takes are of and packs asthma medicine for guests in their own bags shows facilitation at a good level. The paradox is that the five who hav not implemented measures for people with asthma/allergies and other diseases allow travelers to bring dogs or pets on their visit.

Conclusion

The UNWTO and the UN have through their sustainability goals and articles focused on sustainability and social sustainability by stating that one should prioritize the most vulnerablepeople like i.e., people with disabilities, refugees, minorities, girls and ingenious peoples. In its strategy for gender equality for people with disabilities (2018), the Government has stated that we must have an equal society where everyone can participate, contribute and live free and independent lives (2018, p. 7) without being discriminated. Innovation Norway has through its labeling scheme for sustainable destinations, set a requirement that (2017, p.9)

"The destination management will work to ensure that the tourism industry facilities public accessibility for people with reduced mobility, vision, hearing and asthma/allergy, and informabout this on their website".

Despite strategies, criteria and requirements, the results in this show that there are few measures that have been carried out goals for people with reduced functional ability. This study showed most measures for people with reduced vision. On the other side there are least measures within marketing and information. The UN (2017, p.19) points out that companies that integrate business goals with sustainability goals may achieve greater efficiency, cost reductions, extra competitiveness and strengthen their profile within social responsibility. The tourism companies in the region studies here should take a note of this. Because right now it seems like the tourist industry facilitate visits for pets but not for persons with disabilities. Wemay conclude that there seems to be a gap in inclusive tourism.

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Session 2.2. Innovation and resilience

1. The Role of Portable Outdoor Devices in Risk Assessment of Visitors to Remote Areas: Continuation Study

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In general, technological innovations are believed to be able to expand and diversify the ways in which their users engage in outdoor recreation (Moore & Driver, 2005). According to Ewertand Shultis (1999), there are five main areas which are influenced by technology most. These areas are access and transport, comfort, safety, communication, and information, which, can beargued, represent almost all aspects of outdoor participation. And indeed, very few outdoor experiences do not require some sort of equipment nowadays (Moore & Driver, 2005), which also helps people to expand their abilities and venture to new destinations. For example, Mooreand Driver argued that GPS and mobile phones could be a great aid in case of an emergency response and could increase the users' confidence and comfort levels, even when not warranted.

The latter point is very important as it shows the downside of overreliance on technology, as these tools might also tempt users to go to places beyond their abilities. Similarly, Ewert and Shultis (1999) argued that some of the effects that technology had on safety in outdoor recreation were longer and more remote visitation of backcountry areas, and a general 'pushingback' on the perceived margin of safety, which also resulted in more risk-taking activities. Goldenberg and Martin (2008) also concluded that, though the use of such devises enabled theuser to communicate and orientate in deeper parts of the backcountry (i.e., remote areas), suchtechnologies should not replace knowledge, as relying on something that consumes energy, which was not always easily accessible, increased risk.

In general, the concept of risk in adventure tourism and the outdoor pursuits is paramount, as, according to

Ewert (1983), adventure tourism can sometimes be treated as a balancing act between real risk and how this risk is perceived. In this case, the former is the risk which can lead to injuries or even death, whereas the latter is the risk known to the participants but not present in reality (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1989). Talking about their origin, Sandman et al. (1993)indicated that both perceived and real risks arose from the danger of an activity and could be influenced by the environment, the type and manner in which equipment was used as well as the characteristics of the involved participants, especially their experience (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1989; Martin & Priest, 1986).

The setting and especially its remoteness could have an influence on the degree or risk (Attarian2012). However, the concept of remote areas is not universal and is defined variously in different countries. What most definitions have in common is that a remote area has few or noinhabitants and is located away from cities or well accessible areas (Public Health Agency of Canada, 2013; Scottish Government, 2005).
Considering the position of the risk in adventure tourism, it comes as no surprise that risk assessment, defined as “a scientific process of evaluating the adverse effects caused by a substance, activity, lifestyle, or natural phenomenon" (Trimpop, 1994, p. 122), plays a very important role in adventure tourism. That is why there is a variety of risk management and assessment methods, including such global standards as ISO 21101 “Adventure Tourism – Safety Management Systems” and 21103 “Adventure Tourism – Information to Participants” (Spinelli, 2013), which apply to professional rather than independent users. Other models, suchas the Five Step Risk Assessment Model (Health and Safety Executive, 2014), can be used by both organisations and individual participants alike and in more than only outdoor setting, which is why it is more suitable for the current research. The five steps of this model are the identification of hazards (Step 1), deciding on who can be harmed and how (Step 2), evaluationof the risks and choice of precautions (Step 3), record of significant findings (Step 4), and review and update of the assessments (Step 5).
However, when assessing risks, it is hard to quantify all the uncertainty (Calow, 1998). When taking risk assessment into consideration there is a wide range of possible outcomes and those can often only be predicted on the basis of full understanding of the scenarios. Therefore, risk assessment will depend on the personal characteristics such as experience in general (Slovic etal., 2000) or in a particular activity (Ewert 1983), which results in differences of assessments of risks in the same situations by different people (Slovic et al., 2000). One of the possible waysto minimise it, therefore, is by using technology.
In 2016, the researcher together with a group of his students conducted a research project in which they examined the role of portable outdoor devices (PODs) in risk assessment during thepreparation and the execution stages of the trip by users, who travelled to remote areas. The research was quantitative in nature, its population being all people, who participated in outdooractivities and used PODs in remote areas. Because the size and composition of the population were unknown, a non-probability sampling (cf. snowball sampling) was used. An online questionnaire was distributed through personal connections and online forums and topic-relatedgroups on social media. The data collection process took place in the first two weeks of January2016 and resulted in 394 valid responses.

The results of the original research indicated that most respondents used PODs during both preparation and execution stages, with smartphones and GPS devices being the most popular types on the whole. At the same time the use of other PODs varied greatly, with the specialist devices such as position trackers and personal locators being used more during the trip itself. Most of the participants also made use of more than one POD in both stages. The most popularreasons for bringing a POD were information and safety, which link to the thesis of Ewert and Shultis (1999) that information increases awareness and, thus, leads to more options and opportunities for the user, whereas safety allows for longer trips to more remote areas.

Turning to the use of PODs in risk assessment, it was conluded that whereas on the whole, therespondents agreed that they played an important role, they mostly used such devices for the first three steps of the assessment process, which are usually comleted in the preparation phase.The professionalism and experience played important roles here.

Another finding was also closely connected to safety. Thus, whereas most people did not solelyrely on their PODs in the remote areas and took other alternatives (e.g., maps, compasses, andwhistles) as their backup or even primary options, 15.8% indicated that they did not have anything else other than PODs. Such behaviour could potentially lead to tragic events, as, according to Goldenberg and Martin (2008), such technologies are prone to failure and shouldnot be used as a substitute for knowledge. This is especially true as these respondents were notprofessional and tended to have less experience in the outdoor sport and in remote areas, whichmade them

especially vulnerable. This also corresponds with the points that risk assessment was linked to experience in general (Slovic et al., 2000) or to experience in a particular activity(Ewert, 1983). An interesting find was that significantly more women than men belonged to this group, which can be clearly explained neither by current literature review nor other resultsas the gender differences were not significant otherwise. Therefore, it should be proposed to research this point further.

All in all, the research confirmed that, indeed, the PODs could be and were used for risk management and in the remote areas in general, which meant that more people could potentiallytravel further and for longer. It has also shown that whereas the majority of respondents did notsoley rely on such technology and used PODs in conjunction with more traditional outdoor safety equipment, there was a group of people who seemed to rely only on PODs. By doing this, such people could potentially underestimate the levels of real risk and put themselves intodangerous situations, which they were not 'equiped' to handle as they tended to have less experience in their sports and remote areas anyway. The latter point can be especially interestingfor remote destinations, as they need to be aware of the potential change in the dynamics with more unexperienced and illequiped visitors venturing further and possibly subjecting themselves to real risks, whereas their 'traditional' target groups (i.e., more experienced people)might be less in danger as they increasingly use the technology to support them.

Nevertheless, the technological progress did not stand still, nor did the rate of engagement withtechnology, which could have been arguably excelerated by the experiences during the first twoyears' of COVID-19 pandemic. However, the degree and how exactly this changed is not completely clear. Therefore, the researcher indends to replicate the original research in Summer2022. The intention is to use the original questionnaire with minimal adjustments in regard to the question composition. The results of the questionnaire survey will be analised and comparedto the origoinal research that took place over 6 years ago.

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2. Value co-creation in online experiences

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Introduction

Aim of this article is to explore value formation practices in the context of online experience encounters. We examine how guests and hosts interact and engage in social practices that maylead to the co-creation and co-destruction of value. A qualitative enquiry through a content analysis was applied to thematically analyze observations, host and guest interviews and guestreflections to explore the value creation and co-creation practices in virtual experiences in a sharing economy platform. This study draws on the theoretical underpinnings of the service- dominant logic (S-D logic) and practice theory. Although there is some research conducted onvalue creation in the sharing economy (Boswijk 2017; Johnson & Neuhofer 2017; Camilleri &Neuhofer, 2017; Priporas et. al. 2016; Sthapit & Bjørk, 2021), little attention has yet been givento value creation in online experiences.

Literature review

Understanding how value is being created, co-created and co-destructed has been and still is an important research topic in marketing (Echeverri and Skålén's 2011; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Vargo and Lusch, 2004; McColl - Kennedy & Lilliemay Cheung, 2018). Although online experiences were initially seen as a way to keep the continuity of business operations in times of COVID-19, both companies and platforms have seen their market potential and implications for sustainability in a post-pandemic future. Considering the globalappeal and exponential growth of online experiences (Cenni and Vásquez, 2021a), there is a need to further understand and theorize value formation within this new online tourism context.

The S-D logic and value co-creation discourses have been discussed in the tourism and hospitality literature (see Chathoth et al., 2016). Shaw et al. (2011) discuss the co-creation in hospitality industry and Chathoth et al. (2013) explore the differences between co-creation andco-production, while Neuhofer et al. (2012) research mobile technology-supported cocreationin hotel and destination environments (Johnson & Neuhofer, 2017). However, not many studiesexplain how interactive value formation or co-creation takes place in practice (see also Echverri& Skålen, 2011).

There are also some critical studies of value co-creation (Appiah, Bonsu & Sarpong 2021; Echeverri & Skålen, 2011). Echeverri & Skålen, (2011) propose a distinction between the co-creation of value and the co-destruction of value during interactive value formation (Echeverri& Skålen, 2011). While co-creation refers to the process whereby providers and customers collaboratively create value, co-destruction refers to the collaborative destruction, or diminishment, of value by providers and customers (Echeverri & Skålen, 2011). According tothese studies, both the co-destruction of value, and the co-creation of value, are important partsof the interaction. (Echeverri & Skålen, 2011).

It is interesting to ponder that what is the role and impact of sharing economy in the context ofonline experiences. The sharing economy consists of a variety of online businesses that use internet technology as a platform for networking and exchanging value of products and services(Molz, 2013; Sthapit, & Jiménez-Barreto 2018). The key catalysts for the growth of the sharingeconomy were the development of internet, social media and web-based platforms (Puschmannand Alt, 2016), like Airbnb Experiences (Belk, 2010) and on the other hand, also the strong need from the travellers side to get closer to the everyday life at the destinations(Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016; Paloniemi, Jutila and Hakkarainen, 2021) in order to gain meaningful social encounters (Cheng, 2016) and authentic experiences (MacCannell, 1973; Wang, 1999). Originally the sharing economy is based on the noble idea of sharing and savingresources (Botsman & Rogers, 2010) and the phenomenon is still characterized by elasticity that continuously creates new kind of value, new markets, practices, and transforms the old structures (Dredge & Gyimóthy, 2015).

Methodology

A qualitative enquiry through a content analysis was applied to thematically analyze observations, host and guest

interviews and guest reflections to explore the value creation andco-creation practices in virtual experiences in sharing economy. A practice-based study was carried out on the practices of value creation in online experiences in sharing economy to learnmore about the phenomenon. The data consists of observations of the virtual experiences, the interviews of 8 online experience hosts, 35 written reflections of online experiences by guests and 8 group interviews with the guests. This study is conducted on the Doerz platform, whichis a platform developed in Finland. The idea is to "go the extra mile to hang out with the localsto do authentic local things together with them" (Doerz 2021). Experiences vary from wine tasting to meditative nature walks, guided virtual visits to places like Rome or Dubai to guitarplaying or baking lessons.

The content analysis method was used in this research as the goal was to learn about the valueco-creation practices in the collected data. The empirical data of this research is analysed withthe help of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (NVivo). With this program, collected data is organised into similar categories. For the data analysis, an inductive approachwas adopted in the coding phase which enables drawing inferences from the observations of qualitative data. The findings are evaluated in relation to the theoretical perspective from whichit derives and to which it may contribute (Törrönen, 2020).

Results and discussion

The study reveals some preliminary ideas of practices that seem to be common in value creation in online experiences in sharing economy in tourism. They are related to hospitality practices,which are being developed during the process and might become close and personal practicesand enhance the experience. The results of the research reveal in line with Andreu et al. 2020 that the guest–host experience is an important concept in value co-creation. Also authenticity,psychological closeness, social presence, intercultural service encounter, empathy, socialdistance and intercultural service encounter are important factors also in online experiences. In particular, the human and personal touch as well as the storytelling skills of the host are essential elements contributing to value creation. There were opportunities for co-creation of a personalized experience for the guests in close peer-to-peer interactions. Technical issues during the implementation were the biggest negative factors, co-destructive elements. Also, more immersive experiences were sought after. For example, there were suggestions of using 360° filming, adding elements of VR (virtual reality) or AR (augmented reality) to the experiences.

Camilleri & Neuhofer (2017) have made a research on guest–host social practices anddimensions of value formation in which they analysed Airbnb guest reviews and host responsesposted in Malta. They propose a theoretical framework revealing six distinct themes of guest–host social practices and their sub-categories, resulting in a spectrum of dimensions of value formation which is used as framework in my research as well. Drawing upon Echeverri and Skålén's (2011) model as a foundation, six distinct practices have been identified in that research which shape guest-host practices and value formation in Airbnb in that case. The practices were labelled as: (1) "welcoming"; (2) "expressing feelings"; (3) "evaluating locationand accommodation"; (4) "helping and interacting"; (5) "recommending"; and (6) "thanking".In their research each of those social practices is completed with the analysis of four value formations, including co-creation, co-recovery, co-reduction and co-destruction. (Camilleri &Neuhofer 2017.) By drawing upon the work and frameworks developed by Echeverri and Skålén's (2011, 2021) and Camilleri and Neuhofer (2017), our study reveals four practices that shape value formation in online experiences. These practices are (1) preparing, (2) space making, (3) sharing sensations and feelings, and (4) hosting and interacting.

Conclusions

A lot of potential can be seen in the future of online experiences. Online experiences can play an essential role in promoting more accessible immersive experiences that can be enjoyed by anyone, regardless of age, physical disabilities, health conditions and financial possibilities. The opportunity to travel virtually represents an alternative for those concerned with climate change and our impact on the planet. Indeed, they offer the possibility to travel sustainable, engaging with places and people around the world. In particular, sharing economy platforms seem to be able to offer direct access to destinations, local people and all these immersive and personal experiences people are longing for in a pandemic world. Online experiences may offer possibilities for exploring destinations beforehand and even get to know locals before actually visiting the place

In this study, the substantial qualitative data provides base for empirical research results and sheds light on practices of value co-creation and co-destruction in virtual experiences. However, being grounded in the

geographical and cultural context of mostly in Finland and only on one platform, the findings are transferable to similar platforms, tourism contexts and destinations. The findings of the study help tourism actors to learn more about the value and practices in online experiences and thus, support the sustainable and innovative development of tourism experiences and businesses.

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3. Taking back the Winter Night in Rondane: Designing and delimiting night sky observation places

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The painting Winter Night in the Mountains by Harald Sohlberg (1914), also known as Winter Night in the Rondane is an important and cherished tribute to the experience of outdoor life in winter.
Sohlberg plassen is a rest place with an observation point to the motif for the painting on the stateroad 27, one of the roads designated and designed by the Norwegian Public Road Administration (NPRA) as a tourist road. In such a place the need for light design that allows experience of naturallight must balance with meeting lighting standards for public safety.

The Nordic region is a nature tourism destination where the seasonal contrasts in natural light are animportant attraction (Ekeland & Dahl, 2016: Heimtun & Lovelock, 2017). The conditions should be optimal given the abundance of sparsely populated rural areas (Carson, Carson & Lundmark, 2014; Dashper & Helgadóttir, 2020). The night sky observation of northern lights is an important niche that has contributed to an active winter season in many destinations (Blundell, Schaffer & Moyle, 2020; Fayos-Solà, Marín, & Rashidi, 2016). Winter tourism draws tourists out onto the roads to skiing areas,second homes and places to observe the winter sky (Falk & Vieru, 2017; Müller, 2021; Dahl & Dahlbakk, 2015).

The dilemma in the Nordic region is that while enjoying the sight of the northern lights does, as otherdark sky and big sky experiences depend on the absence of light pollution, there is a preference for lighting and hence a growing light pollution in the region. Artificial lighting at night (ALAN), especially in winter is widely accepted as important for human safety, well-being, and aesthetic pleasure. In winter destinations, second homes, skiing areas as well as in transport infrastructure contribute to light pollution.

Biological light pollution through artificial lighting in seasons or times of day that are naturally dark,affects humans as well as other species (Challéat et al., 2021; Falchi, Cinzano & Elvidge, 2011).
Astronomical light pollution is steadily increasing and excessive lighting is a growing problem (Sánchez de Miguel et al., 2021). Negative effects of artificial light on biodiversity and stellar visibilityare a growing academic concern while there is lack of recognition of this as a societal problem (Blundell, Schaffer & Moyle, 2020).

This presentation is based on a conceptual study on impacts and mitigation of light pollution conducted by an interdisciplinary research team for the Norwegian Public Roads Administration. Theobjective is to find a balance between necessary and excessive lighting for safety and recreation.

The first stage in this study is a review of research literature to establish the state-of-the-art on light pollution, mitigation through light design and astral or dark sky tourism including northern light tourism and stargazing. In the second stage of the project, we use nature tourism destination management methodologies such as Tourism Opportunity Spectrum (TOS) and guidelines from the International Dark-Sky Association (IDA) to create indicators for identification of feasible night sky observation areas in Rondane National Park and environment. GIS is used

to map the indicators to geographical locations, creating a knowledge base for the third stage in the project, human centeredapproach to destination development based on night sky tourism.

Findings indicate that in tourism research there is still a lack of consensus on definitions and terminology regarding light pollution. Measures such as zoning, establishing night light reserves, and sustainable lighting design programs facilitate experience of natural light. Establishing light zones for different areas based on the degree of vulnerability and protection can provide a framework for implementing and studying such measures, and evaluating their effectiveness (Clark & Stankey, 1979;IDA, 2000; Gaston, Duffy & Bennie, 2015; Jägerbrand & Bouroussis, 2021). The Rondane National Park is geographically, naturally and culturally a prime candidate to test the feasability of a Night skyreserve.

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4. Co-creating innovations for sustainability: Stakeholders and their roles

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Introduction

Higgins-Desbiolles (2006) states that tourism is not merely an industry, but a social force with deep transformative capacities for local cultures and societies. Yet, the industry have traditionally emphasized short-term economic impacts that often contribute to various sustainability challenges in the local communities (Saarinen, 2013). One reason is that the tourism industry, e.g., firms and DMOs have been the only or main partners in destination development. This is problematic since different stakeholder can be affected by tourismdevelopment (Heslinga, Groote & Vanclay, 2019), and therefore, should be involved in decisionmaking. Transformation towards sustainable tourism practices is not an easy task and requires innovation for sustainability (IFS) (Bocken, et al., 2019). There is increasing call for bottom- up processes and involvement of residents in co-creation in innovation (e.g., Saarinen, 2019), however, it is unclear who these residents are, what roles they can play, how to involve them and who should facilitate the process (Høegh-Guldberg et al., 2022). According to Polese et al.,(2018), the practical aspects of co-creation in innovation are relatively unexplored in the literature . There is a lack of knowledge and methods regarding engagement touchpoints, that could contribute to stakeholder's identification and establishment of the most proper relationalstrategies (Polese et al., 2018). This study addresses: Who are the main stakeholders in the co-creation in innovation for sustainability in local destinations and what are their roles?

This is an empirical study of two rural World Heritage Sites in Norway – Vega and Røros – asmain cases. Preliminary findings indicate that there is a wide range and complex net of stakeholders who participate in co-creation of IFS in each destination, playing variety of roles e.g., organizing, facilitating, financing, implementing, promoting, etc. depending on the focus of the innovation.

Literature review

Innovation for sustainability (IFS) is a complex adaptive system, expanding innovation dynamics towards economic and social transformations and requires the involvement of diverse stakeholders (Ramaswamy & Gouillart, 2010). IFS can focus on one sustainability dimension e.g., economic or environmental, combine two dimensions or involve all sustainability dimensions and be more holistic (Ritala, 2019). Besides there are different types of partnershipsand collaborations required in IFS. Collaboration among businesses in the same or related industries is most common, while innovation potential and implementation may depend upon collaboration across different levels, communities of practices and other stakeholders like residents (Saarinen, 2019).

Over the years, the stakeholder approach has been established as an important approach in conceptualizing the relationship between business and society, where dialogue, value creation, ethics, and multi-stakeholder networks have become highly valuable (Bonnafous-Boucher & Rendtorff, 2016). There are different stakeholder participation approaches that can be facilitatedor implemented in different forms, both informal and formal. e.g., public hearings, advisory committees, surveys, focus groups, public deliberation, citizen review, collaboration, civic, work groups, living labs (Høegh-Guldberg, Eide & Yati, 2022). The ability to collaborate with various stakeholders means commitment to interactions that construct solid relationships and make the co-creation of joint value possible. Early studies relevant to the concept of co-creation focused on user involvement in innovation process, while more recent research highlights the need to extend the focus of co-creation in innovation by including a wider range of stakeholders(Hamidi, Shams Gharneh & Khajeheian, 2020). Co-creation seen from a firm's perspective, may "involve the joint creation of value by the firm, and its network of various entities" (Perks,Gruber & Edvardsson, 2012, p. 935). Initiating co-creation with diverse stakeholders can help confirm that developed innovations are following stakeholders' sustainability needs (Moons, Daems & Van de Velde, 2021). Such an approach provides the opportunity to broaden one's perspective beyond individual/organizational opinions and knowledge by interactions and to address broader sustainability issues (Tuncak, 2014). However, co-creation can also be initiated from other perspectives, like e.g. municipality organization, voluntary organization or a small community.

Methodology

This is a qualitative multi-case study. The two cases, Vega and Røros, were chosen because both are Norwegian, UNESCO World Heritage sites, and strategically have worked to achievethe Norwegian Sustainable Destination Mark (provided by Innovation Norway). Vega is a municipality and archipelago, situated in the county Nordland, the region of Helgeland. Rørosis a municipality situated in the county Trøndelag, in an inland and a mountain region close tothe Swedish boarder.
The main data source is semi-structured interviews that took place in 2021. Since the focus is on co-creation in IFS, different local stakeholders working with innovations were selected as informants: firms within different sectors in tourism, local DMO, municipality, WH site representatives, voluntary organizations, and heritage protection organization. The number of interviews done in Vega is 24 (3 informants two rounds) and Røros 16. The interview guide covered themes such as (1) practices and role of the informant in the organizational and destination sustainability work, (2) collaboration and co-creation, (3) innovation and sustainability practices required to increase the attractiveness of the destination.
Data analysis is so far preliminary, the systematic analysis will combine qualitative content analysis, narrative analysis, as well as spiral case analysis moving up and down analytical levels.

Results
The findings will first be elaborated within each case, then across cases, regarding main patternsof who is involved and what are the roles in co-creation in IFS. Some glimpses from the data: Vega: 1) The local World Heritage organization facilitates and partly finances local residentsto continue the culture of eider duck down and educate children and others about the localculture. 2) Fish tourism network in collaboration with an external tour operator, whiledeveloping ideas for new seasons and activities, decided to establish Via Ferrata climbing anddiscovered a need for steps to get down from the mountain. This generated an idea of a newattraction, the Vega steps. The local sport club took responsibility for the idea and financed theimplementation partly by crowdsourcing. The work revealed a need for parking and other service infrastructure, increasing collaboration with the municipality and others. 3) Local food producers initiate collaboration with shops, experience, and accommodation tourism providers,as well as establish their own farm shops and farm cafes. 4) Establishment of skateboard center,with the help of voluntary residents. 5) Living labs organized for residents in smaller villages,orchestrated by the public preservation management organization and the tourism manager(municipality), to co-create the destination strategy.
Røros: 1) The outdoor historic music theatre, to employ the famous branding aspect of Røros “a taste of Røros”, invited a famous chef from Oslo to participate in the developing process ofa new menu, that includes local produce. In addition, other providers of different local food, drinks and crafts are invited to collaborate on new offerings for the attendees. 2) A local museum, the World Heritage Visitor Centre (WHC) and the public/volunteer organization, worked together to create an inclusive event, inviting residents to participate in an outdoor art project. 3) Local experience firms share their resources to be able to accommodate larger tourist groups. 4) Organizations offering nature and culture tours in the area, work together with localIndigenous people to gather authentic information about local area, flora and fauna, and culturalheritage. 5) Local WHC cooperates with schools and local tourism firms in setting up courses about local history and cultural heritage in the area.

Discussions
The preliminary plan is firstly to discuss findings about main types of stakeholders being directly involved in IFS, including those who are actively involved in decisions on one hand and influenced by them on the other. Additionally, to discuss other roles, using stakeholder theory and other partnership perspectives. Secondly, to discuss the patterns of partnerships in co-creation process, in relation to perspectives on sustainability and paradigms of IFS. Thirdly,to discuss the patterns of partnerships more specifically by focusing on the methods and centralfactors enabling or constraining co-creation in IFS.

Conclusions (theory, practical implications, future research)
As analysis is still at an early stage, we cannot yet conclude or suggest implications.

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Session 2.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development

1. Towards Smart and Strategic Place-Brand Engagement

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Introduction

This article sets out the dimensions of engagement with a place brand and illustratrates the interconnectedness of the place-brand actor roles (Quadruple Helix counterparts) with the regional Smart Specialisation Strategy (S4) of the European Union objectives and their strategicsignificance to the place-brand. Special attention will be paid to the role of a university in a place-brand value co-creation ecosystem. The case data is from two development projects thathave been implemented in the province of Satakunta in Finland (2020-2022).

The S4 strategy emphasises the Entrepreneurial Discovery Process (EDP). It is inherently concerned with stakeholder engagement and co-creation and aims to facilitate the identificationof regional strengths and leveraging them for growth and sustainability enhancement (Komninos *et al.*, 2021). Additionally, the ever-deepening influence of technology and data ina dynamic place-brand ecosystem context, in the form of the digital transformation and utilisation of smart technologies including social media, big data, and mobile technologies in place-brand development, is becoming imperative for most organisations targeting economic and sustainability goals (Pohjola *et al.,* 2020; Mariani *et al*., 2018).

Literature review

Stakeholders play a significant role in developing brand identity (Førde 2016; Wallpach et al.,2017). Therefore, it seems logical to view branding as a process uniting the views and aspirations of place-related stakeholders (Braun *et al*. 2013). The place brand can be perceivedas a co-created spatial experience construct where the spatial experience is related to a space that involves people in a certain activity within a context (Rahimi *et al.* 2018).

Studies on place-brand management have attracted increasing interest in recent years (Helmi, Bridson & Casidy 2020; Bose, Roy, & Tiwari 2016). Cities, regions, and countries are increasingly making strategic use of branding. The notion of place-brand identity (here, PBI) iscentral to the idea of place-brand management. Place-brand identity is a joint identity formallycreated for the place to enable it to communicate to external audiences (Anholt 2010; Helmi, Bridson & Casidy 2020, 620-638). Helmi *et al*. (2020) explored stakeholder engagement with a PBI in the context of country branding in a study that included philosophical and concrete engagement (Table 1). Philosophical engagement is reflected by their moral support, future engagement intention, and positive word-of-mouth behaviour. Concrete engagement, on the other hand, is reflected by place-brand partnerships and the internalisation of PBI in an organisation's strategy.

Table 1. Typology of stakeholder engagement with place-brand identity (modified from Helmi et al., 2020)

Stakeholder Engagement with Place-Brand Identity (Emerged from the data)
Philosophical Engagement **Indicates understanding, alignment, identification, and integration with intangible components of PBI; shown through moral support, future engagement intention, and positive word-of-mouth behaviour**
Concrete engagement **Visible behavioural manifestations of engagement with both tangible and intangible PBI components, shown through becoming a brand partner, adopting a visual presentation style, and formally internalising the brand in the organisation**

Dooley and Bowie (2005) adopted a more strategic approach. The alignment of an organisational brand with the elements of a place brand may provide benefits that mutually strengthen the place brand and the organisational brand in the minds of people. One operationalisation of such a strategic approach is the S4-strategy, an effort to boost innovationin regions of the EU (Pasquinelli, 2015). Successful implementation at the regional level relieson the interactive engagement of Quadruple Helix stakeholders (as businesses, research and education organisations, public sector organisations, and the local inhabitants) (Komninos *et al*. 2021).

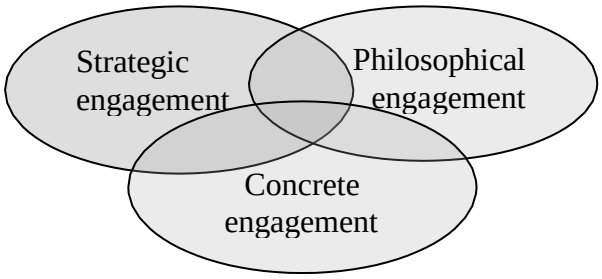

Figure 1. Interlinked place-brand engagement dimensions (based on Helmi *et al.* 2020 but expanded by the authors)

Methodology

The material derived from the case research is connected to a development process carried outin the Digital Nature and Digi-ET projects to create an intelligent smart platform to advance tourism in the province of Satakunta. The findings of this study are derived from responses to a questionnaire completed by local entrepreneurs, staff of the local municipality, and representatives of the third sector, associations, and educational institutions. Twenty (N=20) participants responded to a questionnaire presented in electronic form that utilised semi- structured questions. The secondary material of the study consists of participants who stored data on a digital platform (N=27).

The data were subjected to thematic analysis (Bell *et al*. 2019). This qualitative study aims to understand the phenomenon in a broad fashion: how the commitment of a place to a brand manifests when utilising digital environments. (Longhofer *et al*. 2012.) We consider the knowledge elicited to be new (e.g. Alvesson & Kärreman 2011), so we incorporated new theory alongside existing theory. We applied the typology of stakeholder engagement with place-brandidentity (Helmi et al. 2020) when analysing the data with additional dimensions of digitalisationand smart specialisation. Thematic attempts were made to identify issues related to philosophical commitment from within the survey material, especially from the perspective ofthe benefits identified by the

respondents. The attempts were followed by a comparison of those who were philosophically committed and had stored data on the platform.

Results and argumentation

Philosophical engagement

Respondents were asked what expectations or benefits are associated with digital platforms and the development of the digital customer experience from the perspective of the organisation represented by the respondent. The excerpt below highlights the benefits of the digital platformin terms of business development and economy:

Digital platforms allow customers to explore tourist routes and attractions on their ownin a cost-effective way.
Participant (questionnaire)

The commitment to the philosophical level can be distinguished from the material in the form of various expectations or benefits. Participants expressed interest in e.g. cooperating, taking advantage of digital opportunities, increasing accessibility and sharing additional opportunitiesfor visitors to explore other points of interest in the region.

Concrete engagement

Each destination on the route has its own story, its own world where you can immerseyourself for as long as you want.
Arts route from Kammi to Skantz

The above excerpt describes the route and its locations stored on a digital platform in the formof a unique destination. The site-specific descriptions on the platform are concrete level engament via digital activities. The analysis of the material showed that 27 actors had commenced tangible activity, which currently features 806 places in Satakunta.

Other observations elicited from the survey material included the fact that philosophically committed actors did not necessarily engage in action at a concrete level. In addition, there wereall the time increasingly new participants with concrete commitments joining to the platform.

Strategic engagement
Digital and smart content will convince tourists to travel to Satakunta.
DIGI-ET- project plan

The strategic role of the universities through the projects, becomes apparent in Table 2 below.The table illustrates the roles of the Quadruple Helix stakeholders in the Satakunta region in theenhancement of place-brand engagement in its three dimensions, the strategic, philosophical, and concrete. The project has served to introduce actors in the region to a network and strengthen the international connections of those involved in R&D activity relating to Satakuntathrough their expertise in the intelligent experience economy.

Table 2. Smart & Strategic Place-Brand Engagement - Case Satakunta region

Role: Engagement:	**Academia**	**Public org.**	**Industry**	**People**
Strategic engagement	University as an ecosystem facilitator and a capacity builder	Digital and sustainable transformation booster	Data-driven growth and internationalisation capabilities' enhancement	Participatory means of co-creation to enhance all-year-round services development
Philosophical engagement	University as a sustainability enhancer, the third mission of a university	City/ municipality as a competitive- ness and wellbeing governing body	Innovation for and co-creation for wider service offerings and productivity	Assumed: memorable and meaningful place-bound value co-creation

Concrete engagement	University as an RDI booster and educator through research and data-based approach	Development of cultural & nature attractions, education, arts, sports, and events	Digital products (co-)development, networking, smart and scalable content creation	Visits to sites/destinations, Assumed: Word-of-Mouth behaviour & social sharing

Conclusions

Rapid digital transformation and novel platform solutions enhance and renew place-based experiences, for instance by digitally adapting, blending, and augmenting the physical scalability, social shareability, and co-creational activities.

The strategic dimension of the stakeholder place-brand engagement specifically emphasises the role of universities as boosters of research-based smart specialisation. A university can be an ecosystem facilitator and a capacity builder. Moreover, increased reflection on the smart

specialisation of the region and the role of a coordinator unites all the dimensions (philosophical, strategic, and concrete).

As a practical implication, the findings offer practical ways for place-brand managing organisations to enhance stakeholder engagement with a place brand. Potential research directions include the role of digitalisation in fostering the emergence of strategic place-brand ecosystems.

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2. Local acceptance of tourism-based sharing economy

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Introduction

Tourism-based sharing economy is extremely diverse phenomenon having diverse impacts. On the one hand it allows anyone to be part of and benefit from tourism business, enables resource saving as well as authentic experiences between tourists and locals. On the other hand, it causes disturbance in local communities, unfair competition in tourism business and unclear situation from regulatory point of view. (Baumber, Schweinsberg, Scerri, Kaya & Sajib, 2021; Dredge & Gyimóthy, 2015; Guttentag, 2015; Hakkarainen & Jutila, 2017, p. 185-186.)

Most of the challenges mentioned above are related to the question whether tourism-basedsharing economy is locally acceptable or not. Tourism that is based on interests and acceptance of local communities tends to be responsible and successful (eg Mair, 2015).
Hence several approaches are aiming to give content to the social elements of sustainability.Suopajärvi et al. (2020, p. 144-145) call *social license to operate* (SLO) as a quite recent newcomer to the field. SLO is about gaining acceptance from the local community to an industrial development or business operations.

However, talking about social sustainability alone, without attaching it to other dimensions ofsustainability, allows only unilateral understanding of the matters. As many researchers (eg. Jóhannesson, Ren & van der Duim, 2016, p. 77) point out, it is necessary to question dualisticdistinction between society and nature. Thus, SLO should not concentrate only to acceptance of local people, but acceptance of the entire local community. Jóhannesson ym. (2016) also question the local-global divide and call for relational materialism as an approach to understand the complex and entangled system of globality and locality in tourism and tourismresearch.

When discussing about complex phenomenon such as the sharing economy, critical approachto both *local*, *acceptable* as well as *inclusion* is needed. Inclusion refers to the idea of participation and democracy, and it consists of involvement, relatedness, belonging and togetherness (Isola, 2017). In order to make all these possible, it is essential to ask, on what basis inclusion is defined at each time. Tourism-based sharing economy has evoked lots of contradictory opinions and views. Possibilities and challenges, benefits and harms are not same to all stakeholders. Same thing may be benefit and possibility for some, but harm and challenge to other ones. Acceptability is not univocal, nor is locality, nor inclusivity.

The aim of my research is to critically examine inclusion and local acceptability in the contextof tourism-based sharing economy. My main research question is, what kind of inclusion doestourism-based sharing economy require in order to gain SLO? My method is action research and data consist of action research workshop discussions and my own researcher reflection.

Literature review
Social license to operate (SLO) is about gaining acceptance from the local community to an industrial development or business operations (Suopajärvi et al., 2020, p. 145). It is based on trust and acceptance by local communities and gained through inclusive dialogues. According to many researchers, necessary preconditions for SLO in any context are open interaction, inclusion of local stakeholders, trust, fair distribution of costs and benefits, as well as resilience (Baumber et. al. 2019; Suopajärvi et. al, 2020, Zhang et. al, 2015).

Baumber, Scerri and Schweinsberg (2019) point out the complexity of defining and conceptualizing SLO. The authors also remind, that SLO may be lost, even when once obtained. (Baumber et. al., 2019, 14.) Factors influencing it are not stable and thresholds ofthe factors may also change over time. Thus, maintaining SLO requires adaptation to changing circumstances and changing social values. (Baumber et al. 2021, p.4.) Besides temporality, it is important to notice the spatial dimension of SLO, what is acceptable somewhere, may not be acceptable elsewhere.

Sharing economy challenges concept of SLO in many ways. Acceptance from local community and community respect are key factors in the SLO, but what are the communities in case of sharing economy; geographically defined communities, online communities, or maybe something else (Baumber et al, 2021, p.2)? Number of stakeholders linked to and affected by the sharing economy is huge (see Jutila, Hakkarainen & Päläs, 2020, p. 6) and it varies a lot who are most relevant stakeholders in each context. Hence, it is far from easy to ask whose acceptance is actually gained when talking about SLO in the context of the sharingeconomy. Similarly, it is not clear who actually is the one aiming to gain the acceptance.

Concepts of social license to operate and inclusion are crossing and overlapping a lot, especially in the context of tourism. Inclusion refers to the idea that everyone should be able to use the same facilities, take part in the same activities and enjoy the same experiences despite any personal or cultural features. (Biddulph & Scheyvens, 2018; Harju-Myllyaho & Jutila, 2021, p.1.) According to Isola et al. (2017) it refers to participation, representation anddemocracy, and consists of involvement, relatedness, belonging and togetherness. Thus, bothSLO and inclusion emphasize the role of local communities in the planning processes for operations or actions. Both concepts highlight relationality, complex relations and multilevel entanglements between different actors.

Global ethos of tourism often emphasizes fragile localities and powerful global forces. (Jóhannesson, Ren & van der Duim, 2016, p. 79, 90; Law, 2004, p. 13-14.) This ethos looks down on active agency of local communities. It also simplifies local inclusiveness seeing local communities stable and constant. Relational approach supports the understanding of local communities as spaces where inclusion and exclusion are not limited by territorial edgesand where distances are determined by mutable and multiple relations (see Harvey, 2012, 78).

Methodology

My research is part of a wider research project implementing action research of value creation and responsibility in the sharing economy. Action research is a method emphasizing participatory approach and highlighting the role of local community (Kemmis & Wilkinson, 1998; Garcia-Rosell, 2013). We had representatives of 10 organizations taking part of our action research project: sharing economy platform, accommodation intermediary, host/key service, cleaning organization, Finnish Safety and Chemicals Agency, Consumer Union of Finland, City of Rovaniemi (Construction Supervision), property manager, safari company and constructor.

Inclusive approach to the action research raises up critical questions, such as how to get all those included who are affected by the researched phenomenon. Even though the action research group in our project was versatile with many different viewpoints it is for sure not anall-encompassing group representing sharing economy in its entirety. The biggest challenge was to include those, who mostly protest sharing economy practices. This limitation is important to have in mind when analyzing the results of my study.

We organized five action research workshops. My main data consist of transcript workshop discussions and my own researcher reflections written after each workshop. I analyze the data with qualitative content analysis, with directed approach, where theory or relevant research findings are acting as guidance for initial codes.

Results and argumentation

Workshop discussions as well as my own researcher reflections both highlighted strongly twothemes that seem to be extremely relevant for SLO: situated and contextual nature of the sharing economy and recognizing the relevant stakeholders in each context. The importance of these themes has been noticed by many researchers both related to inclusion and social license to operate (see eg. Baumber et al. 2021, p.4; Isola et al. 2017).

At the moment tourism-based sharing economy seems to be a phenomenon provoking strongdiscussion requiring an opinion for or against it. However, attitudes towards the sharing economy are not stable. It seems to be clear, that SLO for sharing economy is very local.

Similar practices may be widely accepted in a village in Southern Finland, but totally denunciated in a Lappish city. But it can be even more local, vary from house to house in same city. Even same person may accept tourism-based sharing economy in one situation butnot in another. These observations tell about the complex realness of the sharing economy.

Thus, my results highlight the importance of adaptation to changing circumstances andchanging social values when aiming for SLO (see Baumber et al. 2021, p.4).

Isola et al. (2017) emphasize participation and relatedness of different stakeholders when talking about inclusion. Baumber et al. (2021, p. 4) call for further research for the field of social license to better understand the different stakeholders involved in the sharing economy.In previous research me and my colleague (see Harju-Myllyaho & Jutila, 2021) found out thatinclusive approach in tourism requires critical exploration of who are relevant stakeholders in different contexts. My present research supports the arguments above and additionally highlights the importance to understand that relevant stakeholders are not the same in every context. Basic idea of the sharing economy requires three key stakeholders: digital platform, providers offering services/goods on the platform and users buying or renting an access to them. In addition to these three, there are lots of different actors who, depending on the context, may directly or indirectly be linked and related to the phenomenon. Thus, local community may refer to residents of a town, a housing cooperative, community of local tourism companies as well as users or animal population of a local recreation area.

Recognizing most relevant stakeholders and the role of them in each context is essential whenaiming for locally

acceptable tourism-based sharing economy.

Conclusions

Based on my research it seems that SLO for tourism-based sharing economy is extremely local. In future, in some places, tourism-based sharing economy may become part of everydaylife without provoking any bigger discussion, but in some places, it may never gain local acceptance. Thus, gaining SLO should not be taken for granted, but it should also be acceptedthat it may not be gained. Instead of self-evident aim it is good to understand SLO as a state tobe observed, explored and, if needed, to be reacted.

It can also be said that the existence as well as the absence of SLO is extremely unstable. It changes and transforms due to temporal, spatial and contextual factors. Local community is never univocal but there are different voices inside the community. As there are so many different stakeholders included depending on the context, it is possible to argue that SLO is created through individualencounters. This, on the one hand, makes gaining SLO coincidental and sporadic, but also highlights personal encounters and authentic dialogues, which on the other hand may advanceSLO. This also emphasizes responsibility of every stakeholder: everyone can affect the acceptability of his or her own action. But, as SLO is a macro-level concept, it is very important to aim for interaction and networking between several different stakeholders as wellas to recognize the relations between the stakeholders. Based on my research it can be argued that SLO for tourism-based sharing always requires co-operation, openness and transparent interaction (see also Baumber et al, 2020 and Suopajärvi at al., 2021), but they must be applied differently in different contexts. SLO for tourism-based sharing economy is continuously transforming state requiring constant, open and flexible cooperation.

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3. Future narratives from a 'gone destination'

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Introduction

The Arctic tourism imaginaries, aesthetics and expectations are predominantly built on unexplored, pristine and cryospheric components; on snow and ice on land, ice gaps, glaciers,permafrost and sea ice (Abram & Lund, 2016; Maher et al., 2014, p. 290; Varnajot, 2020).
Only wildlife and sparse, often indigenous, human population add some colour to this white, snow-covered canvas where travellers reflect their expectations and preconceived ideas of theregion (Lopez, 1986; Espíritu 2018, p. 26; Kampevold Larsen and Hemmersam, 2018, p.
7). Nevertheless, there is a paradox at play between the Arctic tourism image projected by media and marketing channels and the sad reality creeping up on us through over tourism andglobal warming. To put it bluntly, the Arctic is melting and therewith the prevailing image and narrative of Arctic tourism as such.

Today we cannot not get around describing Arctic tourism without mentioning climate change – which characterizes the Arctic more than any other region on the planet (see Kaján, 2014; Müller, 2015). The only component stable enough to describe the Arctic is the factor of(rapid) change. As Kampevold Larsen & Hemmersam, 2018 , p. 3) put it,

In the Arctic, landscapes and communities seem to be changing faster than anywhere else. The current massive interest in the Arctic pivots around two images: one of the Arctic as a 'canary' for climate change – an image supported by scientific measurementsand observations – and one of industrial development based on resources and strategic potential.

Climate change and the increasing economic interest in the Arctic regions suggest the need for re-evaluating our perception of the Polar regions (Espíritu, 2018, p. 26). With the numberof people flocking to the Polar regions increasing (see Müller, 2015, p. 151; Runge et al., 2020, p. 1), one has to wonder what are their motives for visiting and will they still travel there if global warming progresses to a degree that the changes in the Arctic are visible to thenaked eye? How will the imaginaries and narratives of the Arctic hold up in the face of climate change? What will the future hold for Arctic tourism which, following its current narration, does not look very bright? These concerns and questions inspired the idea for Sarah Müller's (2022) thesis project on the Arctic as a destination at risk of disappearing, which this research article builds on. While the places as such do not disappear, the climate crisis seems to be disrupting and melting, most of all, our imaginaries, expectations and visions of Arctic destinations. This paper draws closer attention to the local narratives of tourism futures and the affects embedded and entangled with the idea of last chance tourism.

Literature review

The future of Arctic tourism has been described with prefixes of *post-Arctic and post-Polar* (Varnajot 2020), referring to the time after the cryospheric components. Post-Arctic tourismtakes as its point of departure the current imagery and tourist attraction systems of the Arcticand views them in the light of climate change. With the Arctic experience being very much dependent on the "cryospheric gaze", how Varnajot (2020, p. 79) words, a certain vulnerability of Arctic destination arises. Therefore, tourist activities tied to and largely dependent on this cryospheric gaze are expected to fade, unarguably posing certain changes to the overall Arctic imagery and image communicated through tourism marketing and also to the destinations themselves. As Varnajot argues, the indirect share of the cryospheric experience through exhibitions could become increasingly important in Arctic tourism whichallows for strong linkages to the segment of heritage tourism to be drawn. This is also coherent with the viewpoint of Lemelin et al. (2010) and their conceptualizations of the Arctic tourist gaze and last chance tourism.

Previous research on *last chance tourism* has drawn focus on travel to destinations "where (usually iconic) features, species or landscapes are perceived to be at risk of disappearing" (Groulx et al., 2019, p. 203) or

changing irreversibly. The term 'last chance tourism' made itsway into the academic discourse, and to the Arctic context specifically, through the popular press (e.g. Lemelin et al., 2010, pp. 479-480; see also Hall & Saarinen, 2010). For instance,
Salim and Ravanel (2020, p. 4) state that it could very well have been the case that
"[m]arketing and the media have been the main reasons for the development of a motivationto see vanishing features" in the first place. While this type of tourism has been deemed
among the dominant travel trends (Forbes, 2018; McCarthy, 2018; Talty, 2017), researchers'interest in people's motivations – among other sociological/psychological components – of travel to endangered destinations have consequently increased (see Eijgelaar et al., 2010; Hindley & Font, 2018).

The future of Arctic tourism has also been coupled with *the Anthropocene* which too sets emphasis primarily on environmental degradation and therewith the vanishing of landscapesand natural attractions (see e.g. Valtonen & Rantala 2020). In a broader sense, the Anthropocene can be viewed as a tipping point into a time period which is characterized as "an uncharted territory full of uncertainties and risks for humanity" (Gren & Huijbens, 2014,
p. 7). This allows for parallels to be drawn to last chance tourism which can also be seen as a transitional phase into a very apocalyptically-depicted, dystopian future (Steffen et al., 2015).In equal measure, Varnajot (2020) and his post-Arctic approach portray the Arctic as having to deal with the largely anthropogenically-induced changes brought upon in a future state (see also Gren & Huijbens, 2019, p. 121). Bennett (2020, p. 4) distinctively draws parallels tolast chance tourism, titling it "ruin tourism" in an Anthropocene context. She touches upon the concept of narratives and imaginaries assigned to those ruins which she describes as not very viable in the context of the futures she depicts. Similarly to the change in Arctic narratives that are called for by Varnajot and Saarinen (2021), Bennett, among others, thus calls for a change in narratives on the Anthropocene; on shifting focus from disaster, destruction, and guilt to a more aesthetically pleasing future and therewith also a potentially heightened willingness to deal with the topic/issue of (climate) change (Bennett, 2020, p. 7; see also Höckert, 2020; Malm & Hornborg, 2014; Simon, 2020; Valtonen & Rantala, 2020).

Methodology

Our research joins the ongoing discussions on last chance tourism and Arctic tourism futures by drawing special attention to local actors' perceptions, viewpoints and experiences in Svalbard; that is, to people whose livelihoods depend on a place labelled with *an expiration date* (Jansen et al. 2020). The Svalbard archipelago, located in the middle of the Arctic Ocean(Viken, 2006, p. 130), was chosen as the empirical context of this study due its reputation as alast chance tourism destination (e.g. Kaltenborn et al., 2020; Palma et al., 2019; Saville, 2019;Watts, 2019). This research project applies a broad narrative methodology, which allowed us to analyse how people organize their worldviews/world and make assumptions about the future with the help of narratives. The findings from unstructured interviews are shared as a narrative from an imagined meeting where experts discuss the future of tourism in Svalbard.

By drawing on discussions within affective atmospheres (Brennan 2004; d'Hauteserre 2015), we explore narratives people assign to Svalbard as a place and tourism destination and what affects the construction of the narratives for the future.

Results and argumentation

The analysis of the empirical material draws focus on three main themes: *global competition and capitalization of the Arctic*, *disruptions in tourist-place encounters*, and *atmospheric alterations of place.* Some of the interviewees share great concern about the uncertain futureof Svalbard as a tourism destination in regards to the ongoing competition and economic development within the Arctic regions. Moreover, new laws and regulations passed on Svalbard are also feared to make it not only harder to plan for the future, but also to reduce the attractiveness of the destination among tourism operators and guests. At the same time, new regulations and more controlled procedures and rules are hoped to help in avoiding the disruptions in tourist-place encounters and this way to enhance the quality of tourists' experiences. The interviewees also share a concern regarding the negative changes in the atmosphere in terms of Norwegization and changing environmental conditions.

Conclusions

By applying a broad narrative methodology with an experimental approach, the paper drawsattention to

local actors' perceptions, emotions and experiences of living in a place labelled with an expiration date. The storyline of this research contributed to the discussions on last chance tourism by shedding light to the complexity and uncertainty of living and working inthe endangered destinations..

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Session 2.4. Entrepreneurship in tourism and hospitality

1. The impact of local food festivals on the rural areas development – case study

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Intro defining the aim of the research

Food festivals are popular socio-economic events centered around food and tasting. The importance of these events in the functioning of the local rural community manifests itself through building a sense of community and place. It is also an opportunity to promote and sellIocal food products. In socio-economic terms, food festivals can bring many benefits to all stakeholders, including contributing to the development of rural areas in which they are held. Rural areas in Poland still need development impulses. The main aim of the research was to identify the way of perceiving the impact of a local culinary festival on the development of ruralareas by particular groups of stakeholders. Taking into account the specificity of the selected festival and its impact on the local rural area – the positive aspects were considered. The research is an attempt to fill the research gap, resulting from the fact that in the context of the impact of festivals, the most frequently studied group of stakeholders are visitors and locals, while vendors and organizers appear only sporadically. There are also few comprehensive approaches to the issues. The proposed research refers to the research carried out by Kwiatowski et al. (2019) on the example of festivals in Scandinavia. The Authors proposed a conceptual model – rural placemaking through events and festivals.

Literature review

There are many examples of research related to the impact of festivals on host areas, including rural development. Undoubtedly, the local festival provides an opportunity to promote and develop entrepreneurship in rural areas (Hjalager & Kwiatkowski 2018). In terms of food festivals, Einarsen & Mykletun (2009) indicate that success depends on embedding institutionsand organizations that produce food and meals based on local food production traditions and local food products. Egresi & Kara (2014) emphasize that tourists participating in small, local festivals spend money that affects the local economy. And while the impact is limited, small festivals do matter, for example as tourist attractions. Also, Folgado-Fernández et al. (2019) emphasize that the impact of small festivals is important for the local economy - not only for the tourism sector, but also due to the consumption of local products. In addition, small food festivals are important for the sustainable positioning of the destination and should be includedin the communication campaigns of these places. Thus, festivals can be strategically used to maintain, create and rediscover rural resources, empower local people, promote rural values, and perpetuate or rediscover somewhat forgotten rural traditions and customs (Kwiatkowski etal. 2019). The use of local food as a means of profiling rural areas is becoming commonplace.In this perspective, local food festivals help to market local resources (Blichfeldt & Halkier 2014). Baptista Alves et al. (2010) emphasize that small food festivals have both economic andsocial impacts, but that the social impact goes beyond the economic

benefits. In terms of broadlyunderstood social effects of local festivals, one should mention the strengthening of sustainablesocial development by building relationships between various social groups living in the samearea (de Jong & Varley 2018). The importance of tradition and culture is also emphasized – not only local, but also national (Pavluković et al. 2017). The socio-cultural needs that encourage rural communities to organize culinary festivals are investigated (Fontefrancesco 2020). It is also emphasized that the participation of residents in local festivals may affect their well-beingand quality of life (Yolal et al. 2016). These various aspects of the festival's impact on rural areas result from the fact that the festival is a kind of ecosystem that connects business, society,as well as culture and many other elements (Hjalager & Kwiatkowski 2018).

Methodology

The research was carried out in rural areas of Western Pomerania in Poland, on the example ofa small local culinary festival in July 2020. It is a cyclically organized festival in which both local people and tourists participate. The studied festival contributes to the development of thearea in which it takes place. The festival promotes the place by attracting tourists, promotes local products and entrepreneurs, and creates an opportunity for the integration of the local community. Individual groups of stakeholders (the organizer, exhibitors and viewers-participants) were asked to assess the positive impact of the festival on the development of ruralareas. The conducted research consisted of three main stages based on three research methods.In the first stage, an in-depth interview was conducted with the organizer (qualitative research).In the second stage, a survey with a questionnaire was carried out. 210 viewers-participants ofthe festival were surveyed using closed questions with answers on the Likert scale (quantitativeresearch). The PAPI (Paper and Pencil Interviewing) method was used. In the third stage semi-structured interviews were conducted with the vendors, combining qualitative research with elements of quantitative research. The main questions about the impact on rural areas were closed with the Likert scale.

Results and argumentation

The research shows that the local population (in the audience-participants group) is interested in the positive impact of the festival on the development of rural areas. This group views this impact positively. This is due to their direct relationship with the studied rural areas. Tourists are visitors from outside the studied rural area, therefore they are indifferent to the developmentof these areas. However, they are aware of the importance of the festival and evaluate its impactpositively. However, it may not be so much the result of a real assessment as the fact that the festival time is for them a time of vacation, rest and entertainment. Exhibitors showed a fairly neutral attitude to the positive aspects of rural development resulting from the culinary festival.As entrepreneurs, they look at them from the point of view of potential facilitations in business.Interestingly, local exhibitors are as skeptical of the benefits as exhibitors from outside the localarea. The organizers of the analyzed festival are residents of the local area. Their observationsabout the positive impact of the festival are consistent with the local participants of the event. The interview shows that the organizers care about the development of the place, not only dueto the positive perception of their events and activities, but also due to their direct relationshipwith the place.

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)

Certain managerial implication results from the conducted research. First of all, the positive impact on the development of rural areas has a positive effect on the image of the festival and the organizer. This impact may also act as a catalyst for further changes in rural development. However, research shows that not all positive influences are visible to the festival's stakeholders, including the local community that is most interested in them. It is worth increasing the knowledge and awareness of stakeholders about the impact of this festival on thedevelopment of rural areas, thus increasing the acceleration effect.

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2. What is the relationship between the tourist individual and the tourist group?

Torvald Øgaard, Svein Larsen, Katharina, Wolff Fifi, Tjan Kvalsvik

This abstract presents ongoing work, and we heartily welcome attendees to present ideas, viewpoints,and critical comments.

Tourists are individuals and may differ in their preferences. Some elements of the tourist product can be customized to individual preferences while other element like location, buildings etc., are difficult to alter in the short run. Understanding preference variance can yield useful information for planners and managers in the tourism industry and inform evidence based strategic decisions.

Individual travel preferences are complex phenomena and thus cumbersome to deal with in full width in diagnostic and strategic planning processes. Current research in preference heterogeneity in tourism settings have progressed along different lines. Some studies have focused on simplifying the structure ofthe data by reducing its complexity through collapsing the number of independent elements into broader categories (e.g., Gnoth & Zins, 2010; Jiang, Havitz, & O'Brien, 2000; Mo, Howard, & Havitz, 1993), whereas other studies have attempted to group together travellers based on homogeneity alongside individual preferences (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992). We sequentially address both approaches. Analyses are based on multi-item preference data from N = 2041 individuals visiting Western Norway during summer months. In the analyses we first simplify the data structure of the preference-data through a factor analytic approach, and then group the tourists into clusters based on the simplified preference-data. These procedures are followed by a validation of the clusters and finally we compare the tourist groups developed in our data to Cohens (1972, 1979) tourist roles.
Findings suggest that this "bottom up" procedure to a large extent group tourists in groups equivalent toCohen's tourist roles.

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3. There is no business like snow business – The Finnish snow culture as a basis for creation of tourism experiences

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Snow, ice and coldness are part of the daily lives of the inhabitants of the world's Arctic regions, such as the Finns, for several months a year. Living in the middle of these elements has left a wide variety of characteristics and behaviors in the culture of the northern peoples. However, according to climate scientists, it is inevitable that, for example, the snow line will rise towards the north also in Finland as the global warming is advancing. It is therefore important to both be aware of and revitalize traditional cultural patterns of behavior based on the cold and snowy climates, as in the future fewer and fewer children will grow into those practices in their daily lives.

Everyday activities based on snow and coldness also offer a wide range of opportunities for the development of the so called "live like a local" tourism products for both domestic and especially foreign tourists. The development of such tourism products based on snow culture supports the preservation of local culture, the local tourism industry and creates compassion for nature and its preservation.

This presentation demonstrates the results of an autoethnographic study, the purpose of which was to find out and categorize how snow, ice and coldness have affected the daily lives of the Finns and what kind of collective behavior patterns (= snow culture) these natural conditions have created. Furthermore, based on these everyday behaviors, the objective was to form categories that describe culturally related activities that could serve as a basis for tourism products. The study also used netnography to find out how Finnish travel businesses have used the snow culture in creating products and experiences for tourists.

As a result of the study, it was possible to create nine different categories of manifestations of Finnish snow culture, which provide a basis for the development of tourism products for both domestic and foreign tourists. According to the observational netnography conducted in the study, the products based on the snow culture of Finnish tourism companies clearly reflect only some of the categories created in this study. All in all, it can be stated that behavioral models based on Finnish snow culture could be utilized in a more diverse way in the experience development of tourism companies.

4. Artisan food producers balance between tradition and innovation in the pursuit of growth

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Artisan food producers act as keepers of local tradition through their craft and offerings. In turn, local tradition gives an opportunity for producers to give their customers unique products and experiences, offering an opportunity to explore a place through novel tastes and context. The combination artisan food producers have with depending on local tradition as well as preserving it, creates opportunities through exploiting their unique tradition to innovate and renew (Holmquist et.al. 2019). This positioningopens up an opportunity to use tradition in new settings, combing elements in a novel way (Petruzzelli & Savino 2015). This paper aims to answer the question of artisan food entrepreneurs' attitudes towardsinnovation within the context of adaptation, renewing tradition in order to develop and grow. In particular, we will explore how artisan food producers discover opportunities for growth, as well as howthey decide which of these opportunities to pursuit. The questions will

be answered by asking a numberof Swedish, Norwegian and Danish artisan food producers, all members of the Culinary Heritage Network through a survey. Data collection starts with 184 Norwegian culinary businesses, before moving on to include Swedish and Danish respondents.

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Session 2.5. Workshop: What is decent work in tourism and hospitality?

1. "Name the 10 most disturbing issues in hospitality work today": Creating a Manifesto for Hospitality

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The aim of this research is to put on the agenda the most pressing issues in hospitality work today by creating a joint researcher-practitioner Manifesto for Hospitality Work. Manifesto is a public declaration of a body of persons, making known certain intentions or proclaiming certain motives in reference to some course of conduct. A Manifesto for Hospitality Work would be a proclamation of experts' opinions in reference to the empirical results of the ongoing Hospitality Worker Employment Survey and their own research and practice in the field – and validated by practitioners.

The study will use a five-step design, based on a Delphi method, which is a process for arriving at a group consensus. Step 1-2: empirical investigation of expert panel opinions of "the most urgent hospitality work issues of our times". Step 1 will solicit from the panel an extensive list of issues, and step 2 will ask the same panel to rank the whole list of collated issues in order of most important. Step 3: Sending the outcome of step 1-2 out to industry practitioners and stakeholders. Step 4: Cross-referencing the results of Step1-3 against key literature of the last decade. Step 5: Arrive at consensus within the working group.

A non-probability intentionally stratified sampling will be used to reach scholars (and practitioners) from hospitality research groups and networks in different parts of the world. The data collection is ongoing. Implications for further research and managerial issues will be discussed at the conference.

Session 3.1. Learning, teaching and education in tourism and hospitality

1. Closing Skills Gaps in Coastal and Maritime Tourism in European Collaboration

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Introduction

Coastal and maritime tourism (later referred as CMT) is one of the fastest growing and the largest segments of the maritime economy, and it forms a significant component of the wider tourism industry (Hall, 2001; Papageorgiou, 2016). In European Union (EU), CMT is the biggest maritime sector in terms of the Gross Value Added (GVA) and employment. In addition, most tourism expenditure takes place in its coastal regions. Over half of the EU's tourist accommodation establishments are in coastal areas and around 2.8 million people were directly employed in the sector in 2018 (European Commission, 2022; European Union, 2021).Therefore, CMT is of major importance in European economy as the competitiveness of the sector is a driver for sustainable growth, jobs, and social cohesion.

Due to these features, a thematic and aligned curriculum is needed concentrating on the specificcharacteristics of CMT in Europe. At present, there are extremely few offers for a sector- specific curricula and courses as well as limited awareness of the specific skill needs. As the lack of skills hamper tourism competitiveness, it is deemed important to close the skills gaps and match the supply of skills with the demand of the labor market. This means that tourism education and curriculum development must take much more thematic approach to CMT to take advantage of new opportunities and increase the missing educational offering. Indeed, investing in people is a prerequisite for sustainable growth and competitiveness in CMT in Europe.

The aim of this paper is to explore the content of a new, thematic curriculum in coastal and maritime tourism developed in European collaboration. The curriculum offers a themed route (cf. Dale & Robinson, 2001) focusing on the characteristics, development, and management of CMT and its niche products and markets. The curriculum is defined as a series of courses packaged in a specialisation module of CMT and integrated into the existing bachelor's degreeprogrammes in European higher education institutions. In this case, the context of the curriculum focuses on the European cold-water destinations (Baltic Sea, North Sea, and the Atlantic Isles) as these destinations have rather different issues in tourism development than their warm-water cousins.

Literature review

A tourism curriculum consists of the provision of different skills and knowledge in the way in which the curriculum has been framed. The key issues for a tourism curriculum involve decisions on which aspects of the tourism phenomenon should be studied and which types of tourism knowledge should be used to approach these phenomena (Tribe, 2005). Severalacademics have outlined the core body of skills and knowledge needed in a tourism curriculum.For example, Tribe (2014) argued that there is a need for two distinct types of tourism curriculum. A vocational curriculum is needed for inducting students into the commercial activities of tourism and satisfying the demands of the business. A liberal, non-commercial curriculum develops open acquisition of knowledge, fosters complex, independent thinking andtransferable intellectual and practical skills as well as adopts a multidisciplinary approach (Dredge et al., 2012; Fidgeon, 2010).

Dredge et al. (2012) stated that balance between vocational and liberal education within a tourism curriculum is an increasingly noteworthy topic of discussion. As stated by Inui, Wheeler, and Lankford (2006), concentrating on vocational education, and addressing tourismmerely as an economic phenomenon renders students less likely to be able to respond to the stakeholders' needs in a developing tourist society. Therefore, the graduates should be to be able to approach CMT as an economic, environmental, and social phenomenon.

Furthermore, in case of CMT, various groups of stakeholders are affected by the decisions on curricula. According to Lewis (2006), a stakeholder informed approach to curriculum development advocates consultation with a wide array of individuals in the local society who are influenced by and who can influence the direction of tourism curriculum decisions at the destination. In other words, the different groups in the local community indicate the values and needs of the community. In particular, designing curricula in stakeholder cooperation should be embraced in the post-COVID-19 recovery phase (Tiwari, Séraphin, & Chowdhary, 2020).

Methodology

When developing the curriculum, extensive research activities were conducted to understand the needed skills and skills gaps in Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Ireland, and the Netherlands. First,desk research was performed: 40 different tourism strategies and 80 existing tourism curriculawere examined to get the wide overview about the necessary sector-specific skills in these countries. Next, data was gathered by interviewing 89 stakeholders related to CMT either individually or in a group of 3-5 persons. They worked as tourism entrepreneurs, in destinationmanagement organisations, non-governmental organisations, and higher education institutions.

The strategies, existing curricula, and interview data were analysed with qualitative content analysis to identify themes and patterns. The emerging themes concerning the needed skills were identified, grouped together and summarised. This process was first performed in each country and then the county-level results were merged in joint European level themes. The European skills, competencies, qualifications, and occupation (ESCO) reference tool was usedas a framework to fit the analysed data. As a result, three sector-specific occupational profiles in CMT were developed during several workshops and discussions by comparative analysis ofthe data in the team of six higher education institutions representing these countries.

When the occupational profiles were ready, the team translated them into a thematic curriculumof CMT in European cold-water destinations. The curriculum with its purpose, key learning outcomes, and course titles was designed. The next stage involved developing the preliminarycourse descriptions including the purpose of each course, the keywords describing the course content as well as the most important learning outcomes. These were elaborated further with the team in multiple workshops and discussions.

Results and discussion

The developed curriculum supports European cold-water destinations to grow as a coherent tourism destination and concentrates to their specific features, multi-sectoral nature, and niche products and markets. The purpose is to provide an aligned and relevant skillset and knowledgenecessary for meeting the challenges and for seizing the opportunities of CMT in European cold-water destinations. When taking the studies, learners acquire specialised knowledge, skills, and competencies relevant to develop and manage CMT in cold-water destinations.

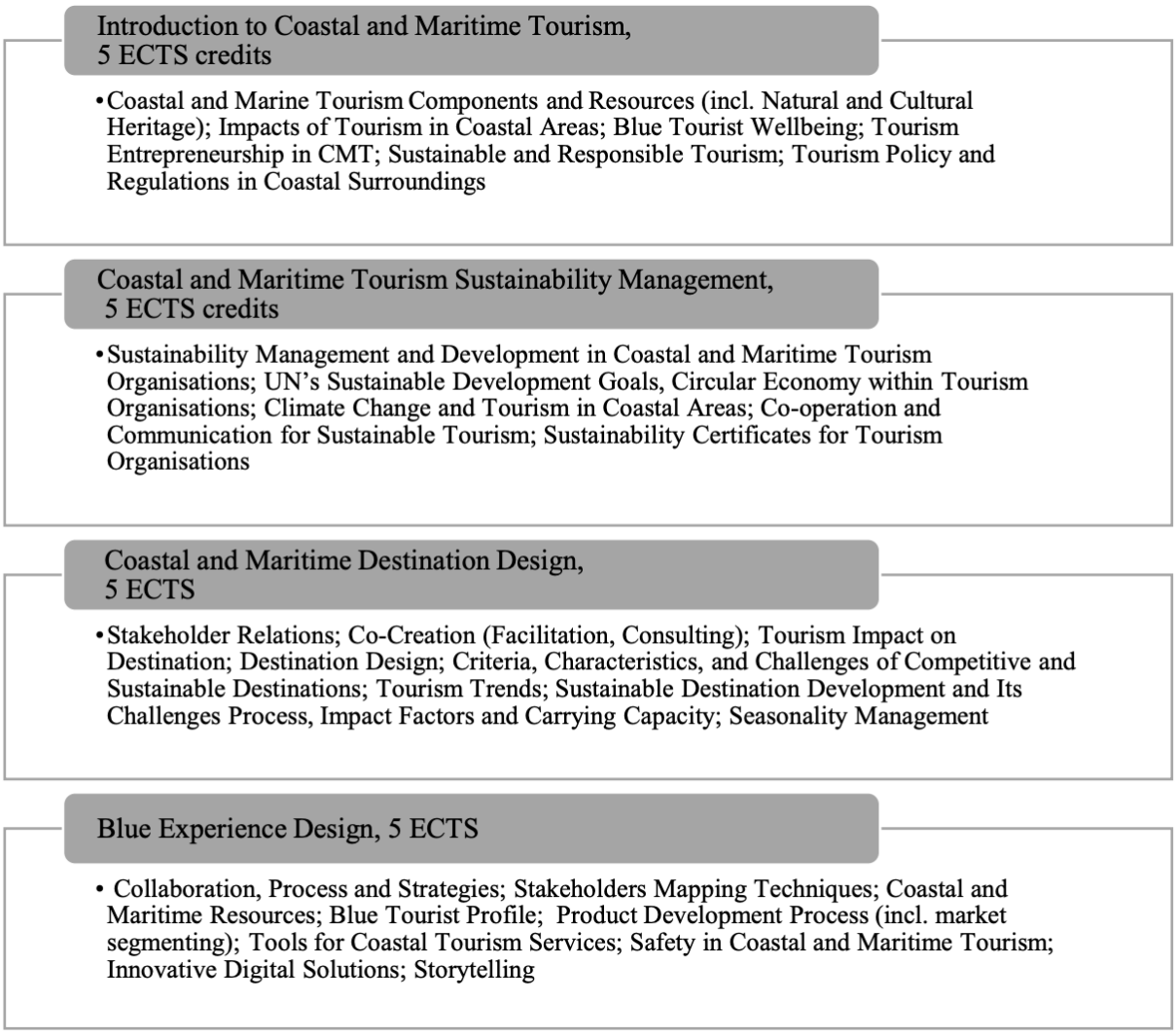

Figure 1. Course contents of the thematic curriculum in CMT

The key learning outcomes are related to understanding the fundamental concepts of CMT, issues and resources available. The curriculum provides learner with knowledge, skills, and competencies for designing and management of sustainable destinations. The learner identifiesand exploits blue business opportunities and resources in an innovative way when developing CMT products and services. The curriculum also provides learners skills in managing and improving organisational level sustainability. In sum, the learning outcomes relate to designingand managing sustainable coastal tourism destinations, operating tourism businesses in this context as well as designing CMT products and services for different segments in a sustainable way. Stakeholder cooperation is the cross-cutting theme in the curriculum.

The extent of the curriculum is 20 European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS)credits. It consists of four separate courses, each 5 ECTS credits. The curriculum is placed at level 6 in the European Qualifications Framework (EQF 6). It can be integrated in the bachelors' degree programmes as a 20 ECTS credits specialisation module or a minor. The courses included are 1) Introduction to Coastal and Maritime Tourism, 2) Coastal and Maritime Tourism Sustainability Management, 3) Coastal and Maritime Destination Design, and 4) Blue Experience Design. The introductory course focuses on the basics of CMT while the three following courses are thematic specialisation courses covering the key themes of CMT (Figure1).

The curriculum is implemented as an international online curriculum that increases flexibility of studying and provides learners with intercultural competences. The curriculum uses innovative digital technologies, methods, and tools as well as open educational resources for skills development. The courses of the curriculum can be

studied in a digital platform at own pace with pre-recorded lectures, a variety of contemporary online activities, and academic sources.

Conclusions

In sum, the curriculum supports the higher education institutions located in the cold-water coastal areas of Europe to specialise in CMT and respond to the skills gaps. Higher education institutions can use the example of curriculum design when planning their educational activities: degree programmes, continuing education, and lifelong learning activities. The tourism organisations can use the information as a guideline to ensure that their employees havethe relevant skillset and in recruiting new employees.

The developed curriculum approaches CMT as an economic, environmental, and social phenomenon. It balances between vocational and liberal education. This balance is particularlyimportant in CMT since the most important economic activities take place at vulnerable sea. Liberal education needs to be integrated in the curriculum to make the graduates able to tacklethe environmental and social issues. In other words, they need knowledge about sustainable tourism development, planning, and management. They should be able to critically address the issues of protection of waters and maintenance of clear water environments, impacts of climatechange, and sustainable use of coastal and marine areas.

In addition to highlighting the need to develop thematic curricula in tourism, the results suggestthat tourism education without borders should be promoted in Europe to harmonise the skill requirements. European cooperation provides a great tool for addressing the skills developmentjointly to reach tourists within and outside Europe to explore its destinations. As Bowan and Dallam (2020) state, it is imperative that educators build channels to support international tourism education and facilitate multicultural development.

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2. Design Sprint Goes China – a case study of competences and cultural lessons learnt in a remote sprint with Chinese students

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Introduction

Students need different skills to thrive in the 21st century and universities must adapt their offering so that they can equip their students with skills that can be transferred to the jobs of tomorrow. Design thinking methods are often applied to the task. Design Sprint (DS) has beena part of the curriculum of Haaga-Helia Porvoo campus since spring 2018 and it has been organised both as face-to-face and online implementations with commissions from tourism, hospitality, and other industries. During the autumn of 2021, it was carried out for the first time for Chinese students through Zoom.

In all Porvoo campus DS implementations, student feedback has been collected using the same questions focusing on what the students have learnt and how the sprint could be developed further. It has been demonstrated (Konttinen & Moilanen, 2021) that the students learn 21st century skills, e.g., collaboration, communication, and creativity through the sprint.The aim of this study is to find out if the same competences come up in the feedback of the Chinese students and if there are differences between Finnish and Chinese remote implementations due to cultural dimensions by Hofstede (1991). While most of the sprint experiences documented (Sprint Stories, 2022) involve students from the West, this implementation offers insights into conducting sprints with students from China.

Literature review

Design Sprint was developed by Google Ventures (GV, 2019; Knapp et al., 2016) to help companies design products and services, test prototypes and get customer feedback for theirideas in just a few days. It means that companies can find out fast whether new concepts are viable, instead of spending months on expensive development. DS is also an innovative learning method for the 21st century skills of collaboration, critical thinking, complex problem-solving, creativity and communication (Konttinen & Moilanen, 2019).

The 21st century skills are the most sought-after competences in the future of work. They areoften also called employability skills (Isacsson et al., 2020), transversal skills (OECD, 2021),or soft skills (WEF, 2020) that enable continuous learning and survival in the future.
Universities need to rethink their curricula and focus on competences to prepare the students to the future so that they can transfer skills and knowledge to diverse contexts in an ever- changing world (Grant, 2021; OECD, 2021; WEF, 2020.) OECD (2021) notes that it is vital to create stronger connections between schools and the labour market, especially in the wake of the pandemic, for students to understand the changing workplace requirements and get skillsets for lifelong learning and strengthening their resilience to change. Already now, in the pandemic recovery, there are huge changes in workplaces due to the permanent shift to hybridwork and the Great Resignation (Cook, 2021), where millions of employees change jobs around the world.

The pandemic expedited the need for a remote sprint as all learning activities went online. Fortunately, even prior to the pandemic, there were guidelines for conducting sprints remotely(Knapp et al., 2020). On Haaga-Helia Porvoo campus, all students take part in a week-long DS. Usually, there are 80-140 students, divided into teams of 7 students. They are supervised by facilitators who coach the students through the sprint process. The supervisors work as a team and share responsibilities. The sprint involves intense teamwork for both the students and supervisors.

When the Porvoo campus curriculum was exported to China, also the method designed by Google was a part of the bargain. It was interesting to see how the completely novel method to the Chinese students would be welcomed in a culturally different setting. Hofstede (1991,5)defines culture as “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”and analyses the learnt and taught norms and values specific to the culture we have been subjected from the birth in the society where

we grow up. Through extensive research, Hofstede produced the model of 6 Cultural Dimensionsand the country comparison tool (Hofstede Insights, 2022a) that can be used to analyse how different or similar the national cultures are. The Cultural Dimensions are Power distance index (PDI), Individualism vs. collectivism, Masculinity vs. femininity, Uncertainty avoidance, Long-term vs. short-term orientation, Indulgence vs. restraint. The scores on the Cultural Dimensions are expressed on a scale from 0 to 100, keeping in mind that the scores are all relative and individuals are unique. When comparing the Chinese and Finnish culture (figure 1), the biggest differences can be found in power distance, long-term orientation, individualism and masculinity.

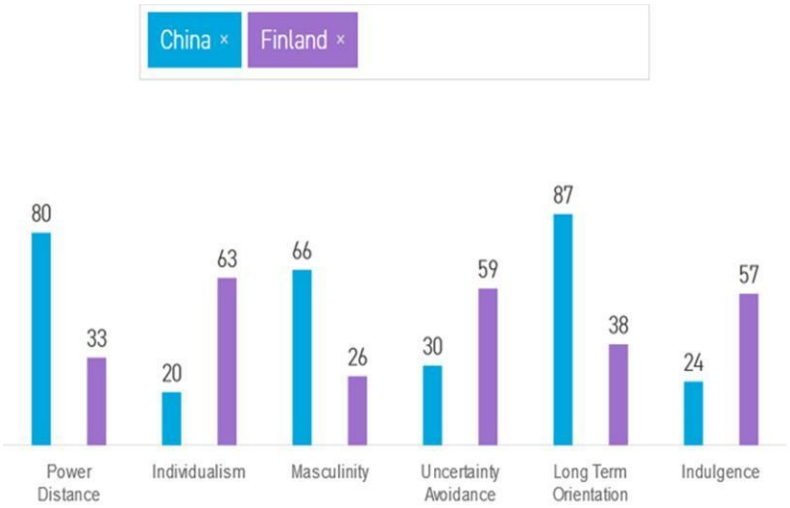

Figure 1. Country comparison China Finland (Hofstede Insights 2022b)

Methodology

The study is based on a case approach where the student feedback from the first remote sprintfor Haaga-Helia students in Finland is compared with the feedback given by the Chinese students for their remote sprint. Similarities and differences are studied. The case study approach (Yin, 2009) was chosen, because it allows looking at the phenomenon from multipleviewpoints, gaining deep insight into a real-life phenomenon and allowing the involvement of the researcher – both authors are deeply interested in developing the implementation of the method and have been involved in both versions of the remote sprint.

The data collection is based on feedback forms, where the students were asked to mention what they had learnt and suggest how to develop the sprint. The Chinese students answered the same questions as the Finnish students. Below, the results are divided into feedback related to the competences learnt during the sprint and the suggestions for development. In theend, the results are reflected with Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions model.

Results and discussion

When asked what they learnt, all Chinese students mentioned they learnt what DS is and howto carry it out effectively. Some mentioned that project-based learning is completely differentto the Chinese education model and gave them knowledge that cannot be learnt in textbooks. Many also mentioned future studies and work and felt that they could use the method in the future, too.

Collaboration and complex problem-solving as a team: All students felt that they had learnt a lot about collaboration and teamwork, and that combining the best ideas from everybody leads to new, useful solutions. In addition, the importance of having common goalsand a co-operative atmosphere came up together with everybody having clear responsibilities and roles to take care of. By helping each other, and learning from each other, they felt they achieved the best results. The team leaders felt they had learnt how to coordinate the relationship between the team members, allocate tasks and motivate the team. Also, the support, guidance and feedback from the teachers and discussions during the process were found positive and encouraging.

Communication and creativity: Some mentioned that their English communication skills had improved: they had learnt to convey their ideas and experiences more clearly in the groupdiscussion with each other and with the teachers. Some students also wrote about the method allowing them to be creative: producing innovative ideas

together with whiteboards, taking notes in different colours, drawing pictures and sketching made the process more visual.
Somebody felt that the method improved her concentration and imagination. If the recommended digital platforms did not work, e.g., due to the Great Firewall of China, thestudents were quick to find creative solutions and similar tools that could be used instead.

When asked *how to develop* the course, some would have liked to have a face-to-face implementation to be able to communicate and carry out interviews in person more effectively. Several students wanted to have direct answers for the sprint challenge and more communication between the teams to learn from each other. Wishes for clearer instructions are typical comments for the groups in Finland, too, and very common for any inquiry learning assignment. The Chinese students are not that used to innovative pedagogical approaches and the active nature of the sprint must have put strains on students more familiarwith traditional teaching methods.

When comparing Chinese and Finnish cultures through Hofstede's Model (figure 1) many differences were discovered. In China, the PDI is extremely high (80): The opinions of managers, bosses and teachers are considered especially important. During the DS, it cameout very clearly that the Chinese students' behaviour towards supervisors was much more formal and respectful than that of the Finnish students. That was reflected in greetings, not leaving Zoom until the supervisor closed the meeting and addressing them directly with the word teacher: *"thank you, teacher".* They were also very eager to ask and listen to the feedback from the supervisors.

China is a collectivist culture with a low score (20) on individuality scale and usually the good of the group is considered more important than an individual's desires and negotiation isoften carried out by teams. The collective mindset was seen in the group tasks carried out effectively. Even if teaching in China is very traditional, based on lectures and assignments, itcan be argued that group work could suit their working style and could be adopted well in their curriculum. However, the students from less vocal, group-oriented cultures might need more encouragement to express their opinion in a group than people from individual cultures.Very often it was the team leader who spoke for the group to the supervisors.

China has a high score (66) on masculine-feminine dimension indicating that society is drivenby competitiveness and achievement. Often success is defined by being the best and competition starts early in life. Chinese people are ready to work hard and even sacrifice leisure to work. That was reflected in the importance of receiving good grades for the course –a couple of students kept asking for better grades even when the grading had already finished. The Chinese students wanted to get good grades so much that they insisted on working in groups of their choosing – unlike their Finnish peers who join mixed teams with students from different degree programmes. Even if the schedule was very intense, only one person mentioned it. In Finland, students often find the DS exhausting due to its intense nature.
However, the Chinese are used to working long hours. They do not express critical views aseasily as Finnish students do because of PDI.

Chinese score quite low (30) on uncertainty avoidance scale, which would indicate that they like risks and changes and are happy with ambiguous and open-ended situations. In addition,they are quite flexible and dislike too much structure or rules, it depends on the situation. In the DS they were happy to start to solve the problem despite being used to traditional teaching. The students followed the instructions carefully. However, independent, pro-activework was challenging, for example, during the timeslot when the students needed to be interviewing informants independently, they came to Zoom to wait for more instructions

China scores high (87) on long term orientation scale, which means that it is a very pragmaticculture indicating that people believe that truth depends very much on situation, context and time - some students even came up with invented dialogues instead of real customer interviews. The Chinese show an ability to adapt traditions easily to changed conditions, a strong tendency to save and invest, and determination in achieving results. The orientation towards future was shown by several students mentioning the future studies and work and feltthat they could use the DS to solve problems and carry out tasks in the future, too.

China scores low (24) on indulgent – restrained dimension, which refers to the fact how muchpeople try to control their desires and impulses based on the way they were raised. Restrainedsocieties can have a tendency towards cynicism and pessimism and do not put much emphasis on leisure time. In addition, they often feel that

their actions are restrained by social norms and that allowing themselves to have something enjoyable is wrong. At least here the studentswere following the deadlines carefully and wanted to accomplish the tasks well, they carried out their work from their dormitories till late in the evening.

Conclusions

Overall, the feedback showed that the Chinese students learnt the 21st century skills, e.g., collaboration, communication, problem-solving and creativity, through DS, just like their Finnish peers. The results were rather similar, with the Finnish students stressing the collaboration with new people and the Chinese highlighting the teamwork aspects and the future potential of the sprint. As Hofstede (2022b) suggests, the biggest differences were found in power distance (e.g., more respectful of teachers, shy to ask questions), long term orientation (e.g., seeing the potential of the method for their future work), individualism (e.g.,willingness to contribute to the common good and teamwork) and masculinity (e.g., striving for high grades with a trusted group). Thus, DS is an agile method for the future skills and canbe adapted to a different cultural setting as well.

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3. Real Problems – Real Competence? Does using real Business Challenges give robust Knowledge: Case Study of Attraction Development Course doing undergraduate research in Stockholm southern Archipelago

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Introduction

This study investigates undergraduate research (UGR) linked to the Swedish part of a Finnish-Swedish regional development project, Archipelago Business Development, henceforth ABD (Archipelago Business Development, n.d.), financed by EU 2016-2019. One of the reasons forundertaking ABD was meagre economic development in archipelagos. Statistics on economic development of the Stockholm archipelago are wanting, but what little exist indicate that whileStockholm city has increased its tourism consumption by roughly 50 % 2005-2014, the archipelago at best had a very modest increase (Onn, 2018).

Part of ABD involves students doing what can be called live UGR projects for archipelago businesses (Onn, 2018; Rytkönen, Degerstedt, *et al.*, 2019; Rytkönen, Larsson Segerlind, *et al.*,2019), simultaneously as both archipelago businesses and student activities are followed by researchers. ABD aimed at helping the actor that is studied while simultaneously fulfilling educational purposes. It is a co-creational attempt to enhance the social as well as economic situation of the residents. In the UGRs, students assess potential business development possibilitiesof archipelago tourism businesses, through literature and empirical studies.

The educational foundation of these UGRs rests on among others Trigwell & Shale who advocate a teaching model that "favours a notion of scholarship as activity; is concerned withthe articulation of pedagogic resonance; assumes a learning partnership, rather than an instructional relationship, with learners; and privileges the work of knowledge creation with students" (2004, p. 529). Healey & Jenkins maintains that "all undergraduate students in all higher education institutions should experience learning through, and about, research and inquiry" (2009, p. 3).

The education part of education-research linkage has been studied in the undergraduate researchliterature, the community engagement-research linkage in *e.g.* the triple helix literature (*e.g.* Leydesdorff & Etzkowitz, 1998), and the community engagement-education linkage in the public scholarship (*e.g.* Hutchinson & Schumacher, 2017) and service learning (*e.g.* Butin, 2010) literatures, whereas the combination of what education and community engagement offers research seems under-researched.

There are a number of examples on undergraduate research being used in regular research (Council on Undergraduate Research, n.d), but what UGR can do for research has not been much discussed. If finding finance, one of the difficulties for research (Gibbons, *et al.*, 1994,
p. 46 ff.), is one of the major problems of higher education organizations, it may be of interest
to see if and in what way UGR may benefit the research activities. If it is a cost-effective wayof undertaking research tasks, it would be an avenue to get the research experience that increases the probability of success on the research grants market, provided experience has any effect in that matter.

The research question of this paper is if and how second semester community engagement-based undergraduate research projects can contribute to the academy's research activity.

As the ABD-project plan only accommodated one batch of UGRs on intermediate level, this paper has a rather small empirical base, but as a pioneer project it is worthwhile investigating, in order to assess potential research benefits for future education-research-synergy development.

Literature review

Education should rest on scientific grounds, often interpreted as having the same person in teacher and researcher roles. However, i.a. Hattie & Marsh (1996) maintain that there is no clearrelationship between teaching quality and research productivity.

In contrast, a growing body of literature *e.g.* the above mentioned teaching model of Trigwell & Shale (2004) suggest learning through researching. Griffiths (2004) identifies four kind of teaching-research links: research led, research oriented, research-based and research informed.Healey (2005) further develop this, looking at teaching activities in two dimensions, student asaudience vs. student participation and research content vs. research process. The teaching- research link that does have positive effects on learning have been found in cases where studentsare engaged in research activities within the frame of their education. (Healey & Jenkins, 2018).[1]

Method

The students in their UGR projects use standard data collection methods like observation, questionnaires, interviews and text analysis, analyse their data, draw conclusions and make suggestions for development of a visitor attraction, either from scratch or as an improvement ofsomething existing. A table of the various projects and methods used by UGRs is found in appendix.

The UGR projects will be discussed in terms of their realizability with respect to the communityengagement aspect in order to check that the undertaken projects are relevant, and hence couldbe part of research. Then epistemic quality is investigated to assess potential contribution to research. The potential contribution of the UGRs are mainly the empirics.

The epistemic quality of UGR empirics will be assessed in terms of UGR reports':

A. observation sentences' (Quine, 1993) likelihood of being true, *i.e.*
   i. correspond to facts and be part of a coherent system of observation sentences,
   ii. if that web of observation sentences (Quine & Ullian, 1970) is sufficiently dense
B. if the authors have presented justified reasons (Lehrer, 1990) for the sentences to be accepted
C. and if it is reasonable to assume that they believe (Gettier, 1963) in them.

The empirics of each UGR are analysed through categorising the empirical material, then assessing it for realizability and quality in the various dimensions of the epistemological model used here. Observation sentences are probed for extension and compared to establishedfacts and relations to other observation sentences, akin to how thematic analysis is undertaken. If they are deemed to be true, then they are assessed for the justifications provided focusing on reasonable research-methods, and thereafter if there is reason to believethat students have not been sincere in their reporting.

Results and argumentation

Most UGR-suggestions are insufficiently grounded on analysis, as may be expected from second semester students. Without exception, no economic considerations were made.
Nevertheless, ideas are possible to at least tentatively assess. All 14 submitted projects are asconceptual ideas deemed feasible.

Turning to the empirical quality of the material of the UGRs, in a few instances, the density ofthe account is acceptable. However, in most cases, there are too large gaps to draw the conclusions suggested by the students. In this study, none of the proposed attraction developments are really based on the observations presented. This has educational implications, but does not render these empirics useless altogether, even if more data are required to secure scientific quality.

When it comes to methods, most of the groups undertook interviews, with two being the average, whilst two groups had none, and four were the highest amount. These give some information on attractions, lodging, transport, restauration on the islands, and some also include island size and the like. With only one observation and very few interviews, these may function as pilot studies, but hardly as sufficient empirics for research. Combining several groups doing UGRs on one island increases the data collected, even if there are someoverlap. As students at this stage are not that skilled in interviewing and lacks good theoretical understanding, there are also some relevance issues.

As for veracity, there is no reason to question interview audio files, if fabrication-risk reasonably can be discarded and the belief criterion is fulfilled. If necessary information is athand, a quick control with alleged interviewees is sufficient, which is the case here.
Transcripts, notes and the like are trickier with respect to fabrication, and it is more reasonable to check the adding up of observation sentences. If not, they are hardly useful.

In the studied case, the best students choose a method that fits their problem, but none of themachieve the sought transparency. Especially the respondent choice is a weak spot, in spite of training in previous courses in statistics and in qualitative approaches. The studied case givesno reason to question the sincerity of students' claims in the material examined. A sample of the interviewees has also verified accounts. In the material analysed here, only one UGR paper comes close to evidently fulfilling the purpose claimed in the paper, but the methodology and method and density of the web of observation sentences are not sufficientfor taking them further into regular research.

Conclusion

The suggestions made by the groups seem feasible but are not thoroughly enough developedto be properly assessed. They all seem to be realisable, but more specifics on economic consequences are needed. As ideation, the process of finding ideas, they suffice.

As may be expected, second semester students are not ready for doing regular research at professional level quality. They need to be better at describing what they do and why, to gain knowledge. They also need to develop the inquiry skills to get a data material that is sufficientin covering the empirical grounds necessary for a given claim. If student research skills shouldbe taken to a level where they can contribute directly to research at the second semester, betterscaffolding is needed, which would require a redesign of the courses they take before the studiedone. Even if the studied papers are not ripe enough for regular research at the second semester,it may be a necessary step towards doing good enough papers later in the students' education.

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4. Have your reality and simulate it too! Comparing two problem-based learning approaches for sustainability education in destination development

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Introduction

The 1972 United Nations Environment Programme identified universities as key players in promoting sustainable development (Wals, 2014). In the context of the enormous global challenges of climate change, poverty, and unequal distribution of wealth, education forsustainable development has become a vehicle for training a new generation of change agents.Unlike traditional knowledge transfer education, education related to sustainable developmentis complex and requires innovative approaches. This has to do with the nature of the challengeof sustainable development, which involves complex and wicked problems. These sustainability challenges require multi-stakeholder solutions and interdisciplinary systemsthinking.

Problem-based learning (PBL) is an active learning approach that is well suited for sustainability education as it facilitates a process of problematization, investigation, andcritical reflection (Hermann & Bossle, 2020). In applying PBL to sustainability education, themain task is to think about how to set up teaching activities to facilitate student engagement with real-world sustainability challenges. While there may be an infinite number of ways to approach PBL for sustainability, this study focuses on two general approaches: one is to expose students to complex problems by integrating them into real-world projects, where theywork closely with actual stakeholders on the challenges they are facing. The other is by simulating real-world problems, where students participate in role-playing activities and act asif they are different stakeholders. In tourism research, most of what is said about "PBL for sustainability" is related to the hospitality industry, which provides empirical support for this study to a certain extent. For example, Rosenkranz's (2022) study conducted a problem-based classroom experiential learning activity in a corporate strategy course at a Swiss university in 2018. His research found that hospitality and tourism education has long combined experiential and problem-based learning because of their positive impact on student outcomes. However, these types of learning have inherent drawbacks - while experiential learning is mostly done outside the classroom and is therefore costly, time-consuming and complex in securing learning outcomes, problem-based learning in the classroom suffers from a realistic abstract.

A large body of literature has established the importance and benefits of PBL for sustainability education, yet few studies compare different PBL methods. Student engagementwith the complexity of actual sustainability challenges is central to PBL, yet it is not clear what kinds of PBL methods facilitate what kinds of learning outcomes. In this study, we contribute to the literature by comparing the experiences and learning outcomes of a student cohort who participated in both a simulation game as well as real-life sustainability projects inthe context of a destination development masters program. This study does not seek todetermine which method

is better but is an exploration of the similarities and differences between a simulation game and real-life sustainability projects.

Methodology

In order to compare the experiences and outcomes of simulation games and real-world projects in sustainability education, this study explores the experiences of students in the Masters in Sustainable Destination Development program at Uppsala University Campus Gotland. We selected the subset of students who took both the Nature-based Tourism elective courses in 2021 and the Project in Multidisciplinary Teams course in either 2021 or 2022. The Nature-based Tourism elective courses contained a simulation game concerning national park creation in Sweden and the Project in Multidisciplinary Teams course assigned students to work with actual tourism industry stakeholders on the challenges they are facing.

We conducted two group interviews, each lasting about two hours, in a semi-structured formatwith 12 students that participated in both the teaching activities. The interview guide consisted of three main themes including “experiences”, “outcomes and sustainability”, and “group dynamics”. The themes were proposed based on the research question and research purpose of this study. This study attempts to compare the process and outcomes of the two sustainability education approaches, and thus, “experiences” and “outcomes and sustainability” are two main themes included in the interview guide. Additionally, in both courses, students were put into groups. In the simulation game, students were not provided with any guidance on how to work with each other, while in the project course, students spent a lot of time getting to know each other in the teams and were provided with guidance and activities (such as personality test). We have observed something interesting related to "group dynamics" in our teaching, and therefore included "group dynamics" as one of the themes of the interview guide. The interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. Then, the data was analyzed via Nvivo by a thematic analysis approach. All the authors participated in the analytical process to identify codes, sub-categories, and generic categories. To maintainconsistency, there was a movement back and forth between the transcripts, codes, sub-categories, and generic categories. To reach a consensus, the research group independently categorized the codes and discussed the findings several times.

Results

A shared view amongst interviewees was that learning experiences are highly dependent on the groups and stakeholder roles or projects for which students were assigned. Relationships between students and prior work experiences also played an important part in the group dynamics. In the simulation game, the way in which the student identifies with the assigned stakeholder distinguishes how much “role-playing” they must engage in. This will varydepending on how much their personal opinion differs from that of the stakeholder assigned. Similarly, in the project course, experience and reflections can be greatly influenced by how much a students’ values and personal interests align with the project they were assigned.

Time was identified by several interviewees as an element that shaped experiences in both case studies. In the simulation game, time restrictions may have prevented deep immersion into roleplaying while in the project course, time restrictions added stress and created barriers to reflection for both stakeholders and students. Overall, there was a sense of agreement among interviewees, that the two cases might not be comparable in all respects and have different focuses and learning outcomes.

In the simulation game, students identified the understanding of various perspectives and stakeholder goals as a vital learning outcome. During the course of the game, students had to take into account several viewpoints, some of which might represent opinions that do notalign with their personal beliefs. Another important learning outcome and motivation influencer in the simulation game was the ”unrealness” of the game. Knowing that their actions and decisions won’t have an impact on the ”real” world increased the tolerance and acceptance of otherwise unpopular opinions and final compromises that were brought up during the game. This included “outplaying” the game to ensure that all students passed the course without having to do any additional assignments. Finally, students reported an increasein their negotiation and communication skills due to the discussion rounds and interaction needed to negotiate contradicting positions.

The theme of communication competencies recurred in the findings for the project course. Interviewees describe increased competency in intra-group communication and stakeholder communication. Being able to combine the students’ academic environment with the realities of the business and organizations highlighted

the knowledge and skills students already carry with them. The students noted the impact that their work will have on their collaboration partner's business led to an increased feeling of motivation and responsibility.

Overall, participants involved in the project course demonstrated an awareness of personal and professional development. Students appear to be empowered and encouraged in their existing expertise. However, at the same time, some participants also noticed challenges and hesitation from their collaborative partners. Not all business representatives were open to sharing details of their company, and some did not prioritize the project course which resultedin late meetings or lack of communication.

The results indicate that both the simulation game and project course have great potential to achieve learning outcomes and encourage the development of existing or new competencies among students. It also became evident that while there are certain similarities between the two types of exercises, they offer different learning experiences with pros and cons in both cases.

Discussion/Conclusion

Both approaches contribute to students' learning experiences and competencies in different ways. This study was designed to examine three themes from the two teaching methods: "experiences", "outcomes and sustainability", and "group dynamics".

When examining students' learning experiences, common results surfaced for both methods. Group dynamics, time limitations, and the influence of personal values and beliefs all greatly influenced the individual learning experience of the students. Divergent results concerning students' learning experiences were observed in the lack of "realness" in the simulation game that impacted negotiation dynamics. In the project course, students found motivation in being able to contribute to an actual solution in the real world.

When considering the outcomes and sustainability theme, there were improved competencies that emerged in both cases, such as communication and negotiation skills. Additionally,students engaged with varying sustainability perspectives and expertise in both cases which exposed them to the realistic complexity of wicked problems. Differences in outcomes also emerged between the two methods. In the simulation game, students accepted an outcome that differed from what they would have wanted in real life; specifically, not placing additional protections on the area with the highest pressure for natural resource extraction. In the project course, students had an opportunity to see the value they bring to sustainability challenges with the skills they learned throughout the master's program.

The theme of group dynamics was quite similar in both cases, personal relationships established between students prior to their involvement influenced their experience and led to additional challenges. In the simulation game, the strong personal bonds between students created a reluctance to compete against each other, which was amplified by no group wanting to be the reason that another group failed the simulation.

Essentially, PBL outcomes may be dependent on specific cases and individual student orientations toward those cases, even across different PBL learning methods. Consequently, the generalizability of the utilized teaching activities for broader sustainability education is not clear, making it essential for educators to take the described challenges into account.

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Session 3.2. Work force and resilience

1. Temporary Workers and Labor Productivity in the Hospitality Industry: A Global Outlook

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Introduction and literature review

Seasonality is regarded as one of the most severe problems in the tourism industry. Literaturehas documented the negative seasonal congestion on the environmental and socio-cultural sustainability in world popular destinations (Cuccia & Rizzo, 2011; Park et al., 2016). From economic aspects, seasonal demand prevents hotels from optimizing capital structure (Sikveland, Xie, & Zhang, 2022), negatively affects financial performance of the hotel industry (Pegg et al., 2012; Zhang, Xie, & Sikveland, 2021), and thus increases the probability of business failure (Falk & Hagsten, 2018; Vivel-Búa *et al*., 2019).

In response to demand fluctuations, firms adjust inputs such as labor to operate efficiently. The tourism industry is one of the industrial sectors with the highest number of seasonal workers. Tourism firms employ temporary labor to meet the demand in peak seasonsand especially for routine tasks, resulting in lower production or services costs (Aleksynska and Berg, 2016). However, on the other hand, casual employment makes it difficult for tourism firms to maintain quality employees, influencing the services and product quality (Pegg et al., 2012; Falk & Hagsten, 2018). Therefore, there is a tradeoff between the benefits and losses of using temporary workers in the tourism industry.

Despite a wide discussion on temporary workers in the tourism industry, few studieshave empirically assessed the impact of temporary employment on hotel productivity.

Therefore, the main objective of this study is to fill in this gap. We use the data on 6,124 hotels covering 115 countries between 2006 and 2021 to fulfill the research purpose. Labor productivity equals the ratio of value added to the sum of full-time equivalents (FTEs) of temporary works and full-time, permanent workers. Considering the non-linear relationship between labor productivity and the share of temporary workers, we set four quantile dummiesfor hotels with temporary workers. Our estimation results indicate that hotels with 5.68% temporary workers have a 12.7% greater labor productivity than hotels without temporary workers. We further derive managerial implications of our findings for hotel managers.

Data and methodology

We use the data from the World Bank Enterprise Surveys (WBES) conducted between 2006 and 2021 (Enterprise Surveys, 2021). The surveys employed a uniform stratified sampling methodology to generate samples that represent private sectors, including the hotel industry in the sample countries. During the sample period, there were several survey waves. For eachwave, some countries were selected to collect the firm-level data. After deleting hotels with missing values, we obtain 6,124 hotels covering 115 countries located in different regions and at different levels of economic development.

Key variables

The choice of the key variables flows the mainstream of literature (Inchausti-Sintes, Pérez- Granja, and Morales-Mohamed, 2021; Klijs, Peerlings, and Heijman, 2017; Park *et al.*, 2016),on labor productivity and temporary employment. The surveys include questions about the number of permanent, full-time workers hired by a firm and the number of short-term (i.e., for less than a year) employees. Firms further reported the average length of temporary employment in months. From answers to these questions, we obtain the number of full-time equivalents (FTEs) for temporary employees. Labor productivity equals the ratio of value added to the sum of FETs and permanent, full-time workers. The logarithmic labor productivity (*Productivity*) is used in the models to avoid kurtosis and skewness. Labor productivity measures the efficient utilization of resources such as human capital and fits wellwith the research purpose of this study. For a labor intensity industry such as the hospitality sector, labor productivity is a feasible measure of operational efficiency. Additionally, labor productivity is less

likely affected by firms' accounting and financing decisions, making it more comparable for firms across countries (Park et al., 2016; Li, 2020).

Labor productivity is probably also affected by other factors in the production function, such as capital, intermediary inputs, and technological changes (Inchausti-Sintes, Pérez- Granja, and Morales-Mohamed, 2021). However, the substitution of labor by capital is limited in tourism (Klijs, Peerlings, and Heijman, 2017). In the surveys, firms answered equations about whether they owned land or building, which may affect the substitution between labor and capital or other intermediary inputs. Accordingly, we include a dummy variable (*Capital*) based on the ownership of land and building. A time trend (*Trend*) is created to capture technological changes in production during the sample period, as proposedby Inchausti-Sintes, Pérez-Granja, and Morales-Mohamed (2021).

Dividing the number of FTEs by the sum of FTEs and permanent, full-time workers yields the share of temporary workers (*Temporary*). Using the continuous variable *Temporary* in a model indicates a linear relationship between the share of temporary workersand productivity, which may be too restrictive. To test whether this relationship is non-linear,we set dummies for firm groups regarding their temporary employment. We treat hotels without temporary employees as a separate category (*Temporary-Q0*). Hotels with temporaryworkers are grouped to four quantiles with respect to the values of *Temporary*, namely from the 1st, lowest quantile (*Temporary-Q1*) to the 4th, highest quantile (*Temporary-Q4*).

Model specifications

For the continuous variable *Temporary*, we first estimate productivity against this variable and Capital; this is Model A1. Adding the control variables (***X***) representing firm-specific variables leads to Model A2. We further add other control variables such as market conditions (***Z***) and obtain Model A3. Different models are estimated for the purpose of robust test. Adding dummies for fixed effects and an error term (U_{ii}) yields model specifications as follows:

$$Productivity_i = a_0 + a_1 Temporary_i + a_2 Capital_i + FixedEffects + U_i \quad \text{(Model A1)} \quad (1)$$

$$Productivity_i = a_0 + a_1 Temporary_i + a_2 Capital_i + \sum_{k=1}^{m} b_k X_i + FixedEffects + U_i \quad \text{(Model A2)} \quad (2)$$

$$Productivity_i = a_0 + a_1 Temporary_i + a_2 Capital_i + \sum_{k=1}^{m} b_k X_i + \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k Z_i + FixedEffects + U_i \quad \text{(Model A3)} \quad (3)$$

where *i* denotes firms in the sample. Fixed effects composed of year dummies and countrydummies.

We further take the non-linear relationship between temporary workers and productivityinto account. Replacing *Temporary* in Models A1, A2, and A3 and the four quantile variableswith *Temporary-Q0* as the base gives rise to the corresponding versions of Model B:

$$Productivity_i = a_0 + a_1 TemporaryQuantile1_i + a_2 TemporaryQ2_i + a_3 TemporaryQ3_i + a_4 TemporaryQ4_i + b_1 Capital_i + FixedEffects + U_i \quad \text{(Model B1)} \quad (4)$$

$$Productivity_i = a_0 + a_1 TemporaryQ1_i + a_2 TemporaryQ2_i + a_3 TemporaryQ3_i + a_4 TemporaryQ4_i + a_1 Capital_i + \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k X_i + FixedEffects + U_i \quad \text{(Model B2)} \quad (5)$$

$$Productivity_i = a_0 + a_1 TemporaryQ1_i + a_2 TemporaryQ2_i + a_3 TemporaryQ3_i + a_4 TemporaryQ4_i + b_1 Capital_i + \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k X_i + \sum_{k=1}^{n} d_k Z_i + FixedEffects + U_i \quad \text{(Model B3)} \quad (6)$$

For market-condition variables, Informal-Competitor is a dummy variable for firms that competed against unregistered or informal firms. The population of the city where firms are located represents both demand and supply conditions. Thus, two dummies for locations (small or medium cites) are incorporated in the model specifications.

Empirical results and conclusion

Temporary is significant in the three models (1-3) and with a negative sign, indicating an inverse relationship between the share of temporary workers and labor productivity. The sizeof the coefficient of *Temporary* ranges between –0.0033 for Model A1 and –0.0038 for Model A2. Since *Temporary* is measured in percentage points,

one-unit (i.e., 1%) increase in*Temporary* causes a reduction in labor productivity between –0.0033% and –0.0038%.

The estimated results of model (4-6) demonstrate the estimates of dummies for quantiles of temporary employment, with quantile 0 for hotels without temporary employment as the base. *Temporary-Q1* is only significant in Model B1, while *Temporary- Q3* and *Temporary-Q4* are insignificant in all the regressions. *Temporary-Q2* is significant inthe three regressions (4-6). Model B3 shows that labor productivity in quantile 2 is about 12.5% higher than that in quantile 0. For quantile 2, the share of temporary workers is about 5.68%, which may represent an optimal intensity of temporary employment. In other words, hotels in quantile 2 effectively reduce labor costs by using temporary workers and meanwhileavoid lowering labor quality, resulting in high labor productivity.

Although the effect of temporary can be both positive and negative as we discussed, ourempirical results using enterprises data from 115 countries support the statement that a certain number of temporary workers (if not too much) increases tourism firm's productivity by cutting the operation costs

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2. Implementing inquiry learning at Haaga-Helia Porvoo Campus

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Haaga-Helia Porvoo Campus has implemented inquiry learning as its pedagogical approach since 2011.Inquiry learning is based on socio-constructivism where learners create knowledge together. Inquiry learning was chosen because e.g. digital technology allowed an instant access to information, new generations demanded experiences, activities and interaction in learning, and employers asked for graduates with meta or soft competences that could not be reached in more traditional class room teaching.

The aim of the study was to gain an understanding of how students in different programs experienced theirlearning through inquiry learning with industry commissioned projects. Even though, inquiry learning had been the pedagogical approach on the campus, the approach had been implemented and interpreted in various ways. Thus, there was a need for a study focusing on how students perceive the approach and its benefits and weaknesses.

In this study, empirical data were collected from students of all the six programs carried out on the campus.The method to collect data was focus group. A teacher group involved in pedagogical development created an interview guide based on the themes of inquiry learning on the campus. Results showed that it was difficult for students to define inquiry learning; however, they could list a few attribute to describe it. The attributes related to learning by doing, learning through projects and active learning, among others. Inquirylearning had phases on Porvoo campus, but students were not able to define them very clearly. Students saw that teachers and students roles had changed from the more traditional teaching: teachers were more coaches and students were responsible

of their own learning. Furthermore, students found benefits and drawbacks of inquiry learning on Porvoo campus. Students appreciated to work in teams, but saw that inquiry learning requires a lot of work.
As Haaga-Helia is in an on-going change process where e.g. the course supply is partly standardised, results of this study helps Porvoo campus to revise its interpretation of inquiry learning and develop it further for the coming years.

3. A media place approach to resilience in tourism studies

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Sustainable development has been in focus ever since the publication of Our Common Future in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development. Sustainability agendas have been adopted by actors in the tourism system at all levels. Furthermore, a range of articlesand books have been written on its application to tourism, disregarding the fact that tourism cannever be fully sustainable due to its reliance upon travel (Butler, 2017, p. 3). This paper contributes to research on sustainable tourism development by advancing a resilience perspective adapted to current challenges in tourism practice. There are clear connections between sustainability and resilience as both concepts deal with change. Sustainability commonly deals with change based on conservation, while resilience deals with change based on adaptation and transformation (Lew et al., 2017).

Contemporary research on resilience generally builds on Holling's (1973) seminal paper in which he introduces resilience in ecological systems to explore the resistance of natural systems to disturbances of natural or anthropogenic causes. Since the 1970s resilience has been adopted by a number of subjects and disciplines (Folke, 2004), and more recently tourism studies. Given the wide application of the concept to several disciplines, there exists a plethora of definitions and applications of resilience thought. Several definitions focus on the ability to adapt and dealeffectively with change (Luthe & Romano, 2014) which also provides a useful departure pointfor this article.

Within the field of tourism, most studies on resilience consist of applications to different cases(Butler, 2017) in which system theory provides the overarching approach, or a heuristic or metaphor to explore resilience in different contexts (c.f. Berbés-Blázquez & Scott, 2017). System theory and specifically the socio-ecological system theory approach is a common theoretical departure point to resilience in a multitude of subjects, and dominates resilience thought today (Colding & Barthel, 2019). The theoretical approach has consequences for the conceptualisation of resilience, and sets limits to the analyses and usability. The boundaries ofresilience though have lately received some criticism. Resilience fails to take account of politicsand power relations, and it overlooks conflicts over resources, and the importance of power asymmetries (Brown, 2014, p. 109). There has therefore been a general call for theorydevelopment within resilience studies (Brown, 2021), but also within tourism studies (Lew 2013; Lew et al., 2017). In response to the call for theory development on resilience theory, theauthors of this article argue that there is a need to adress partnership fields or rather an interdisciplinary approach to expand the knowledge. This is in line with Darbellay (2019) who argue that interdisciplinary approaches are needed in order to address complex societal issues. While other researchers argue for a postdisciplinary approach in order to tackle global problems(cf. Munar, Pernecky & Feighery, 2016; Pernecky, Munar & Feighery, 2016). Coles, Hall andDuval (2016) argue therefore that the problem needs to be in focus and the knowledge (disciplines) relevant for the problem is more flexibly applied. As a new approach to advance the knowledge of resilience in a tourism context, this paper proposes to apply theories derivedfrom media studies.

Thus, the purpose of this conceptual paper is twofold: to discuss the ontological underpinningsof resilience in tourism studies from an interdisciplinary approach, and to argue for a media place approach to resilience that

explores both the constitution of resilience in tourism places and how resilience is molded by the politics of media practices.

Media studies have so far had scattered contributions to tourism studies as argued by Månssonet al. (2020). Tourism research rarely connects to theory development in media studies and viceversa since they advance in different arenas. In line with Månsson et al. (2020) and Waade (2020), we claim that media studies have more to offer to tourism studies. By applying theoriesof mediatization and geographies of communication - a subfield within media studies - to the developing corpus of resilience in tourism studies, this conceptual paper highlights the value ofa media studies approach to the conceptualization of resilience of tourism places. From an interdisciplinary standpoint, these theories are used to showcase the interconnectedness of media, place and resilience which the dominant social ecological system approach to resilience in tourism has failed to incorporate into its corpus.

This paper follows Jaakkola's (2020) advice on the design of conceptual articles in which the order and role of argument, concepts, and theories are essential. The research design of this paper applies theory adaptation as an approach to revising established knowledge by introducing supplementary theories as frames in the conceptualization (cf. Jaakkola, 2020). In this paper, we turn to media studies to show the need for an interdisciplinary approach to tacklecomplex current issues.

By adopting an interdisciplinary approach this paper develops a broadened discussion about resilience in tourism studies as the established approach does not give enough understanding ofthe interconnectedness of media, place and resilience. Firstly, research on resilience and specifically resilience in tourism are firstly presented as a focal theory of the paper. Given the popularity of resilience in several disciplines, the presentation is based on a broad range of journals with different disciplinary backgrounds. Studies on resilience and tourism werecollected to illustrate central conceptualisations in key journals in the field of tourism as *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Tourism Management* and *Contemporary issues in Tourism*.

Secondly, a media place approach to resilience, based on theories of meditization and geography of communication, is presented as these theories offer a supplementary approach toresilience in tourism places. The theories were chosen due to their ability to address the observed weakness in the conceptualisation of resilience in tourism. In one sense, the proposed approach also provides a critique of mainstream conceptualisation of resilience based on a natural sciences approach. Hence the proposed media place approach offers an interdisciplinarysocial science approach to resilience.

Thirdly, even though this research is conceptual, the approach is illustrated with data collectedin Mediearkivet, the largest digital news media archive in Scandinavia, during the covid-19 pandemic. For the purpose of illustrating the established natural sciences and media place approaches, the data is presented as counter narratives to visualize differences.

The paper concludes that the dominating socio-ecological system approach to resilience in tourism studies, assumes an ontology of a system constituted as a subject with clear boundaries.Even if a system has interactions, relations and dependencies, it is delineated by its spatial andtemporal boundaries. Whereas the proposed media place approach follows changes and dependencies between mediatization of tourism places and changes in the overall understandingof resilience of tourism places. The role of mediatization and its significance for changes in places are put at the centre of the analysis. Additionally, the approach assumes that a tourist place is constituted as a verb that is constantly created and recreated in a process.

The media place approach is a response to the general call for theory development within resilience studies and more specifically within tourism studies (cf. Brown, 2014; Lew 2013; Lew et al., 2017). The approach showcases the advantages of conceptualising resilience in tourism studies in a larger mediatized context that follows changes in the world over time.

Hence, the paper concludes that resilience in places must also be conceptualised ontologically as a fluid concept that evolves over time. To understand sudden and long term changes in tourism place resilience, special attention must be given to nodes or flows of information that connect the media systems and constitute places. These information flows provide insights intothe resilience of places as they evolve and not just when they are in unbalance. Consequently,a media place perspective highlights the different reasons that are part

of triggering the unbalance addressed in the socio-ecological system approach.

The proposed interdisciplinary approach formed on theories belonging to partnership fields bring new answers to complex questions that can not be solved from a single disciplinary perspective. However, this does not dismiss the common general socio-ecological approach totourism resilience. Different approaches to resilience provide complementary perspectives thatcontribute with different understandings to resilience in tourism studies. The authors of this paper, therefore, agree with Brown (2021) that argues that resilience in the social-ecological system relates both to interactions in a broad sense as well as resilience as a process. The mediaplace approach accentuates mediatized interactions and processes vital to resilience in places. By applying an interdisciplinary perspective, in this case media place research, on resilience research in tourism studies this paper has contributed to a broadened understanding of place resilience.

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4. Building service quality: Education and training challenges in small tourism companies in Iceland

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Purpose

This research addresses education and training planning and execution challenges, with an emphasis on service and service quality, in small tourism firms in Iceland. The aim of the research is to shed light on the challenges that managers of tourism companies face when itcomes to training staff to strengthen services and quality, and at the same time point out possiblesolutions in that regard.

Literature review

Tourism revolves around cocreating value through service (Lai et al., 2018).Although scholars are not unanimous on how to define service, there is a consensus that focuson service is imperative for organizations to create a competitive advantage and differentiationon the market (Ali et al., 2021; Grönroos, 2015; Zeithaml & Brown, 2014). Service howeverdoes not happen instrumentally; vigorous focus and planning is needed as well as nurturing andtraining of employees (Asgeirsson et al., 2020; Gummesson, 1987; Zeithaml & Brown, 2014).It has been recognized that hospitality and tourism differ somewhat from other serviceindustries. For instance, in the tourism sector, service performance (i.e., the moment of truth)often lasts longer than in other sectors, as is the case for a mountain guide who must be available24/7 on a tour, acting not only as a guide but also a morale leader for a group of tourists.Furthermore, a hotel becomes travelers' home, for an extended period, with prolonged andseveral distinctive service instances. It is therefore even more imperative for companies withinthe sector to have highly trained and skilled people, to action planned service and push forcustomer satisfaction (Crick & Spencer, 2011; Ford & Sturman, 2018; Reisinger et al., 2001). Training and / or education in tourism has often been divided into two parts: internal trainingand external training. Internal training refers to organized training throughout the career, fromthe reception of new recruits, with the aim of increasing professional skills. Here, short courses,simulators or training areas and mentor systems are often used, which are useful in strengthening employees' knowledge of the company's working methods. External trainingrefers to courses that support and strengthen staff in building new knowledge, general orspecific (Ford & Sturman, 2018). However, this is not necessarily a simple task, as the industryis characterized by high staff turnover, seasonality, and often multinational and multiculturalcomposition of staff (Walmsley et al., 2020). Investment in education and training of employeesis often expensive in proportion to the scope of operations, as most companies in the industryare considered small companies (Zehrer, 2009). The location of companies can also be aproblem for them when it comes to education and training, especially in more scatteredsettlements where it can be more difficult to find resources for courses. Therefore, there hasbeen an increasing focus on online courses, shorter or longer, where it can be implemented inmore than one language, staff can be approached at any time and do not need expensive facilitiesto perform. Although the initial cost is high, the material can generally be used for a longerperiod (Ford & Sturman, 2018).

Research methods

The discussion is based on a qualitative methodology. The emphasis of qualitative research methods is to gain an understanding of the meaning that people place in lifeand to describe people's experience of their situation (Bryman, 2016). Data were collected in the summer of 2020 and the winter of 2021 through semi-structured interviews and analysis of available data. The interviews were recorded and transcribed and coded using techniques of grounded theory.

The selection of interviewees took place with a targeted sample (Bryman, 2016). A total of 32interviews were conducted. The interviewees were either owners and managers, human resources managers or marketing managers of tourism companies as well as educators. Six interviewees worked in hotels / accommodation establishments, two operated restaurants, two worked in car rentals, five in entertainment companies, four in travel agencies. Thirteen interviewees were classified as educators and came from universities, trade unions or educational centers.

Conclusions: The main conclusions are that the barriers to education and training within smallertourism companies are mainly related to the main characteristics of the tourism industry, i.e., that it is seasonal and that it means that it is difficult to find qualified staff. Training and preparation of staff to deal with the challenges of day-to-day work to enhance and maintain service quality often takes place in an unorganized manner. In this way, decision-making and management support play a key role in educational work and preparation to promote successfulactivities. There are possibilities for e-learning and training for employees and regional co- operation of companies for such training. Such an approach can be useful for a multinational group of employees, in addition to which it can be organized so that there is no need to attend lectures or seminars at a specific time. On the other hand, the cost of planning and establishinge-learning can be daunting for smaller businesses.

Limitations of the study

It can be considered as a limitation that this is a qualitative approach.The discussion does not provide an overview of the state of affairs but provides insight and highlights questions and worthy research material.

Practical value

The study underlines the importance of educational work for the developmentof service quality in tourism companies. The results highlight challenges and opportunities in the educational work of smaller tourism companies and are used to improve education within them. At the same time, the key factors that are important for the success of educational work in smaller companies are emphasized.

Theoretical value and contribution

The theoretical value of the discussion lies in its novelty inthe Icelandic context. Educational work within Icelandic tourism companies has not been researched before, therefore, data is placed in the context of international research and thus proposed in the development of an interdisciplinary field of tourism.

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Session 3.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development

1. Biodiversity and tourism: the institutional landscape of international cooperative initiatives

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Recent decades have witnessed alarming rates of biodiversity loss worldwide. Despite global efforts to reverse this negative trend, countries have largely failed to achieve the goals set out by the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD). At the same time, an increasingly complexinstitutional landscape has emerged across multiple issue areas of global environmental governance (Hale, 2020). This is manifested through a myriad of public, private and hybrid international institutions and initiatives taking an action to halt biodiversity loss by addressingCBD objectives of conservation, sustainable use of and access to, and benefit sharing. A numberof these initiatives focus on sustainable tourism as a means to achieve CBD objectives. To thisdate, few studies analysed performance of international collaborative biodiversity initiatives focusing on tourism.

The main aim of this study is to examine the landscape of international collaborative biodiversity initiatives focusing on tourism and discuss how the CBD can harness the potentialof this emerging landscape and better orchestrate the efforts of international collaborative initiatives in addressing sustainable use of biodiversity resources.

In recent years, many scholars have analysed orchestration and fragmentation of the institutional landscapes involving non- and sub-state actors (Biermann et al., 2009, Abbott et al., 2016, Ostrom, 2012). Empirical studies addressed multiple environmental governance areassuch as biodiversity, climate or energy (Negacz et al., 2020; Sanderink & Nasiritousi, 2020; Widerberg & Pattberg, 2015). However, the literature on biodiversity initiatives focused on tourism often focused on initiatives in a single country (Catibog-Sinha, 2010; Wight, 2001). Therefore, there is a need to examine the international initiatives active in this area.

To reach this aim, we use the BioSTAR project dataset of more than 300 biodiversity initiatives(Negacz et al., 2020), compiled by applying semi-automated content analysis and expert interview validation. In order to analyse the evolving institutional landscape and formulate policy recommendations, we present characteristics of initiatives focusing on tourism, including, among others, their actor constellations, governance functions, thematic focus areas,and objectives related to biodiversity. We compare these against other biodiversity initiatives included in the database.

The preliminary results show that there is an increase in the number of hybrid initiatives involving both state and non-state actors. The main governance functions of the initiatives are information sharing and networking as well as operational activities. They focus on sustainable use of biodiversity resources. We discuss these findings in relation to ongoing scholarly debates in global biodiversity governance on orchestration and polycentric governance as well as the role of sustainable tourism in halting biodiversity loss.

We conclude that international cooperative biodiversity initiatives focusing on tourism have a potential to contribute global biodiversity objectives stated by CBD. Based on our results, we formulate recommendations on how these initiatives can be supported in achieving their goals.

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2. The role of conflicting logics in sustainable destination development: the case of Christiansø

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Introduction
Developing and implementing sustainable initiatives in destinations is seldom a smooth and straightforward process. This paper intents to explore how stakeholders mobilize various logicsto deal with the green transition of a small tourism destination by analyzing the research question: *How does tension between conflicting logics influence the green transition of a smalltourism destination?* Being aware of the role of stakeholder logics in green transitions is important for academia and for practitioners developing and implementing various kinds of sustainability initiatives around the world.

Literature review
The conflicts and frictions between various stakeholders involved with and influenced by sustainable development have been studied in different empirical areas and from a variety of theoretical perspectives. Getz & Timur (2005) examines how the views of numerous stakeholders such as industry, residents, special-interest groups, and tourists needs to beconsidered when developing and implementing different sustainable initiatives and strategies through a stakeholder balancing process. Drawing on the literature on sustainable tourism development, Byrd (2007) investigates how stakeholder inclusion and involvement are incorporated in the basic concept of sustainable tourism development. Hultman & Säwe (2016)discusses the marketization of sustainable tourism, problematizing the win-win consensus of sustainable tourism discourse – that an increased focus on sustainability automatically will leadto new business opportunities. They argue for the acknowledgement of social complexity and tensions between different stakeholders in relation to sustainable tourism development.

Methodology
The study is based on a single case study of the small Danish island, Christiansø located in theBaltic Sea. The island is inhabited by approximately 90 people and has around 45,000 guests each year. Currently, Christiansø is moving towards a green transition of the island. At least three initiatives are in the pipeline, all having varied consequences for the different stakeholders. One initiative is to replace the energy supply which currently runs on fossil fuels(diesel) with a more renewable energy solution. The second initiative is the implementation ofa new and more climate friendly osmosis water filtering system for transforming sea water intodrinking water. The third initiative is to rethink the sewage installation so that wastewater willnot go directly into the sea. Also, the use of garbage sorting and self-sowing is increasing.

As analytical framework, this paper draws on the 'orders of worth' framework by Boltanski &Thévenot (1999, 2006). Boltanski & Thevenot have identified six orders of worth or logics thatpeople draw upon when justifying their actions or attitudes in different situations and contexts.The six logics are the inspired logic (creativity and passion), the domestic logic (generation andhierarchy), the celebrity logic (recognition and reputation), the civic logic (general will and solidarity), the market logic (competition and desire) and the industrial logic (efficiency and performance). The framework has been supplemented with an additional logic, the green logic (sustainability and renewability) (Thevenot et al., 2000) which will also be included in the analysis.

To capture the tension, controverses and comprises between logics mobilized by stakeholders involved with the green transition of Christiansø, this paper empirically draws on qualitative interviews, observation, and documents. Interviews are conducted with key stakeholders such as the administrative manager, inhabitants (both indigenous people and newcomers), representatives from tourism companies and tourists. The interviews method is inspired by the critical incident technique (Chell, 2004; Flanagan, 1954) aiming at identifying specific situations that the respondents see as critical to the green transition. Examples of a critical incident could be a meeting, an informal discussion in the local pub etc. To get a better understanding of the various green initiatives, the island will be visited. Additionally, public meetings will be observed to gather data about the tension between different stakeholders as they emerge real-time through their interactions. Moreover, documents such as tender documents, political documents and hearing material will be included to

also cover the politicalprocess around the green transition of the island.

Results

In this section, the preliminary results are presented consisting of three themes: 1) The green transition's interference with the private sphere, 2) Challenging the authenticity and aesthetic experience 3) Indigenous people versus newcomers.

The green transition's interference with the private sphere

The inhabitants are worried that the process of transforming Christiansø into a greener island will interfere with their daily lives. There is a discussion about where all the workmen should stay and where the heavy equipment should be placed during the construction work. One suggestion is to use the kids' football field as the construction site which leads to controversesbetween the green and industrial logics on one side against the inspired and civic logics on theother side. How a compromise can be settled is not yet clarified.

Challenging the authenticity and aesthetic experience

The tourism experience at Christiansø is a highly authentic and aesthetic experience. The tourism actors are worried that the island will turn into a big, messy, and noisy construction sitewhich will ruin the authenticity and aesthetics of the island. They fear that this will lead to a huge decline in the numbers of visitors and thereby make it difficult to run a business. This represents a conflict between the green and industrial logic against the market logic. However,a compromise seems to be within reach as the process of transform Christiansø into a green island can be made into an attraction and thereby become a reason to go. Hence, by emphasizingthe branding potential (both regarding the process and result) that the green transition contains,the opinion logic can be mobilized to propose a compromise.

Indigenous people versus newcomers

Overall, the island is populated by two groups of people. The first group consist of people fromfamilies who have been living at Christiansø for many generations. Originally, Christiansø wasa fishing community whose industrial logic is still dominating. Climate and sustainability is notthere biggest focus and they have difficulties seeing why the old diesel generator should be replaced. The second group consist of newcomers who have moved to Christiansø to get out ofthe treadmill that they associate with living in the big cities and having a career. They have moved to Christiansø to live out the good life, have their own garden, being a part of a small community and caring about the climate and the environment. They represent the green and civic logic which is difficult to merge with the industrial logic employed by the indigenous people.

Conclusion and practical implications

Overall, the preliminary results indicate that green transition of small destinations such as Christiansø is seldom a straightforward process. One reason is that different stakeholders mobilize various logics which will lead to controverses and conflicts among them. Hence, the study indicates that the orders of worth framework by (Boltanski & Thévenot, 1999, 2006) is a powerful framework for studying controverses, conflicts and compromises between stakeholders involved with green transition processes.

Furthermore, this study reveals that destination managers and others who are involved with green transition processes should be aware of the underlying logics applied by different stakeholders and the consequences for successful green transitions. And they need to develop strategies to cope with, balance and establish compromises between the logics.

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3. What happens if residents do not map? Rethinking “Public” and “Participation” in Public Participation GIS

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Involving residents in the process of planning for destination development is a key factor in understanding the challenges. Public Participation Geographic Information Systems (PPGIS) is put forward as a successful method that enables the collection of the needs and wants of the public. Our aim in this paper is to challenge the current understanding of the success of PPGIS by critically evaluating the public and participation aspects of the method. Extant literature underpins the importance of including knowledgeable and highly interested participants in PPGIS studies as that is likely to lead to higher participation rates and data that could be “valuable” in decision-making processes. Broadly, there seems to be a consensus among scholars over the importance of including residents in PPGIS studies as they are not only affected most, but they also have better geographical knowledge of the places they live in. In this paper, we report on a PPGIS study focused on mapping residents’ perceptions of places that needed transportation improvements in Malung-Sälen, Sweden. We, in collaboration with stakeholders at Malung-Sälen municipality, distributed an online PPGIS survey to the residents between November 2021 and January 2022. Surprisingly, despite the hegemonic view of PPGIS studies including residents being successful, findings from the study show a relatively low response rate and engagement in mapping. Thus, there is an imperative need to rethink how to involve and assess the success of PPGIS studies in general and more so those focusing on residents. In other words, what happens if residents do not map?

4. Boosting Smart Place-Brand Engagement – University as a Strategic Facilitator

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Introduction

This article sets out the dimensions of engagement with a place brand and illustrates the interconnectedness of the place-brand actor roles (Quadruple Helix, QH, counterparts) with the regional Smart Specialisation Strategy (S4) of the European Union objectives and their strategic significance to the place-brand. The engagement of the QH actors is considered vital in the dynamic networks of the knowledge economy aiming for innovative and sustainable outcomesaffecting regional innovation clusters (Carayannis and Campbell, 2009; Miller *et al.* 2016). Therole of the QH stakeholder engagement is especially relevant in connection with the regional development policies of the European Union, eg. the Cohesion Policy, and the sustainable development of regional innovation clusters. Special attention will be paid to the role of a university in a place-brand value co-creation ecosystem as the central knowledge-creating anddisseminating actor that facilitates the systemic place-brand creation within the user-centric innovation structures (Carayannis and Rakhmatullin, 2014). The case data is from two regionaldevelopment projects that have been implemented in the province of Satakunta in Finland (2020-2022).

The S4 strategy emphasises the Entrepreneurial Discovery Process (EDP). It is inherently concerned with stakeholder engagement and co-creation and aims to facilitate the identificationof regional strengths and leveraging them for growth and sustainability enhancement (Komninos *et al.*, 2021). Additionally, the ever-deepening influence of technology and data ina dynamic place-brand ecosystem context, in the form of the digital transformation andutilisation of smart technologies including social media, big data, and mobile technologies in place-brand development, is becoming imperative for most organisations targeting economic

and sustainability goals (Pohjola *et al.,* 2020; Mariani *et al*., 2018).

Literature review

Stakeholders play a significant role in developing brand identity (Førde 2016; Wallpach et al.,2017). Therefore, it seems logical to view branding as a process uniting the views and aspirations of place-related stakeholders (Braun *et al*. 2013). The place brand can be perceivedas a co-created spatial experience construct where the spatial experience is related to a space that involves people in a certain activity within a context (Rahimi *et al.* 2018). The sustainableand smart co-development aiming for multi-level governance in a regional ecosystem context, eg. in the case of a place-brand, requires QH engagement and cooperation (Carayannis and Rakhmatullin, 2014).

Studies on place-brand management have attracted increasing interest in recent years (Helmi, Bridson & Casidy 2020; Bose, Roy, & Tiwari 2016). Cities, regions, and countries areincreasingly making strategic use of branding. The notion of place-brand identity (here, PBI) iscentral to the idea of place-brand management. Place-brand identity is a joint identity formallycreated for the place to enable it to communicate to external audiences (Anholt 2010; Helmi, Bridson & Casidy 2020, 620-638). Helmi *et al*. (2020) explored stakeholder engagement with a PBI in the context of country branding in a study that included philosophical and concrete engagement (Table 1). Philosophical engagement is reflected by their moral support, future engagement intention, and positive word-of-mouth behaviour. Concrete engagement, on the other hand, is reflected by place-brand partnerships and the internalisation of PBI in an organisation's strategy.

Table 1. Typology of stakeholder engagement with place-brand identity (modified from Helmi et al., 2020)

Stakeholder Engagement with Place-Brand Identity (Emerged from the data)
Philosophical Engagement **Indicates understanding, alignment, identification, and integration with intangible components of PBI; shown through moral support, future engagement intention, and positive word-of-mouth behaviour**
Concrete engagement **Visible behavioural manifestations of engagement with both tangible and intangible PBI components, shown through becoming a brand partner, adopting a visual presentation style, and formally internalising the brand in the organisation**

Dooley and Bowie (2005) adopted a more strategic approach. The alignment of an organisational brand with the elements of a place brand may provide benefits that mutually strengthen the place brand and the organisational brand in the minds of people. One operationalisation of such a strategic approach is the S4-strategy, an effort to boost innovationin regions of the EU (Pasquinelli, 2015). Successful implementation at the regional level relieson the interactive engagement of Quadruple Helix stakeholders (as businesses, research and education organisations, public sector organisations, and the local inhabitants) (Komninos *et al*. 2021).

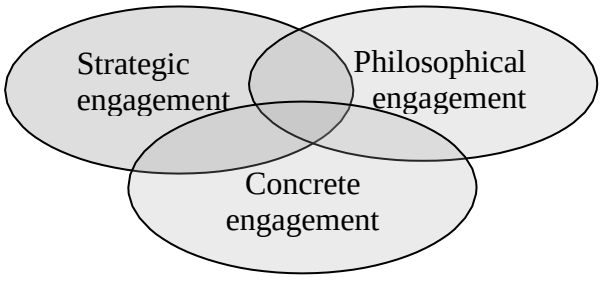

Figure 1. Interlinked place-brand engagement dimensions (based on Helmi *et al.* 2020 but expanded by the authors)

Methodology

The material derived from the case research is connected to a development process carried outin the Digital

Nature and Digi-ET projects to co-create an intelligent smart platform to advancetourism and related ecosystem collaboration in the province of Satakunta. The findings of this study are derived from responses to a questionnaire completed by local entrepreneurs, staff of the local municipality, and representatives of the third sector, associations, and educational institutions. Twenty (N=20) participants responded to a questionnaire presented in electronic form that utilised semi-structured questions. The secondary material of the study consists of participants who stored data on a digital platform (N=27).

The data were subjected to thematic analysis (Bell *et al*. 2019). This qualitative study aims to understand the phenomenon in a broad fashion: how the commitment of a place to a brand manifests when utilising digital environments. (Longhofer *et al*. 2012.) We consider the knowledge elicited to be new (e.g. Alvesson & Kärreman 2011), so we incorporated new theory alongside existing theory. We applied the typology of stakeholder engagement with place-brandidentity (Helmi et al. 2020) when analysing the data with additional dimensions of digitalisationand smart specialisation. Thematic attempts were made to identify issues related to philosophical commitment from within the survey material, especially from the perspective ofthe benefits identified by the respondents. The attempts were followed by a comparison of thosewho were philosophically committed and had stored data on the platform.

Results and argumentation

Philosophical engagement

Respondents were asked what expectations or benefits are associated with digital platforms and the development of the digital customer experience from the perspective of the organisation represented by the respondent. The excerpt below highlights the benefits of the digital platformin terms of business development and economy:

Digital platforms allow customers to explore tourist routes and attractions on their ownin a cost-effective way.
Participant (questionnaire)

The commitment to the philosophical level can be distinguished from the material in the form of various expectations or benefits. Participants expressed interest in e.g. cooperating, taking advantage of digital opportunities, increasing accessibility and sharing additional opportunitiesfor visitors to explore other points of interest in the region.

Concrete engagement

Each destination on the route has its own story, its own world where you can immerseyourself for as long as you want.
Arts route from Kammi to Skantz

The above excerpt describes the route and its locations stored on a digital platform in the formof a unique destination. The site-specific descriptions on the platform are concrete level engament via digital activities. The analysis of the material showed that 27 actors had commenced tangible activity, which currently features 806 places in Satakunta.

Other observations elicited from the survey material included the fact that philosophically committed actors did not necessarily engage in action at a concrete level. In addition, there wereall the time increasingly new participants with concrete commitments joining to the platform.

Strategic engagement

Digital and smart content will convince tourists to travel to Satakunta.
DIGI-ET- project plan

The strategic role of the universities through the projects, becomes apparent in Table 2 below. The table illustrates the roles of the Quadruple Helix stakeholders in the Satakunta region in theenhancement of place-brand engagement in its three dimensions, the strategic, philosophical, and concrete. The project has served to introduce actors in the region to a network and strengthen the international connections of those involved

in R&D activity relating to Satakuntathrough their expertise in the intelligent experience economy.

Table 2. Smart & Strategic Place-Brand Engagement - Case Satakunta region QH ecosystem

Role: Engagement:	Academia	Public org.	Industry	People
Strategic engagement	University as an ecosystem facilitator and a capacity builder	Digital and sustainable transformation booster	Data-driven growth and internationalisation capabilities' enhancement	Participatory means of co-creation to enhance all-year-round services development
Philosophical engagement	University as a sustainability enhancer, the third mission of a university	City/ municipality as a competitive- ness and wellbeing governing body	Innovation for and co-creation for wider service offerings and productivity	Assumed: memorable and meaningful place-bound value co-creation
Concrete engagement	University as an RDI booster and educator through research and data-based approach	Development of cultural & nature attractions, education, arts, sports, and events	Digital products (co-)development, networking, smart and scalable content creation	Visits to sites/destinations, Assumed: Word-of-Mouth behaviour & social sharing

Conclusions

Rapid digital transformation and novel platform solutions enhance and renew place-based experiences, for instance by digitally adapting, blending, and augmenting the physical scalability, social shareability, and co-creational activities.

The strategic dimension of the stakeholder place-brand engagement specifically emphasises the role of universities in the QH context as boosters of research-based smart specialisation. A university can be an ecosystem facilitator and a capacity builder. Moreover, increased reflectionon the smart specialisation of the region and the role of a coordinator unites all the dimensions(philosophical, strategic, and concrete).

As a practical implication, the findings offer practical ways for place-brand managing organisations to enhance QH stakeholder engagement with a place brand co-creation. Potentialresearch directions include the role of digitalisation and the platform economy solutions in fostering the emergence and the governance of strategic place-brand ecosystems.

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Session 3.4. Sustainable Behaviour in Tourism and Hospitality

1. Opportunities and Challenges of Using Local Food Products in Restaurants

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Introduction and Literature

Local food products used for tourism can have enormous positive impacts for a region and be a step towards more sustainable tourism (Hall & Gössling, 2013). On the one hand, tourists useup to a third of their budget for food (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Skuras & Dimara, 2005; Telfer &Wall, 2000) and, hence, if this is spent on local food, there is a strong direct economic impact (Bessière, 1998; Duram, 2011). There is also a strong multiplier effect that stakeholders – suchas local producers – benefit despite not being tourism stakeholders (Hjalager & Johansen, 2013; Ohe & Kurihara, 2013). In addition to economic benefits, there are social cultural effects such as strengthening a regional image (Miele, 2006; Long, 2004, Kim, Park, Fu & Jiang, 2021), local pride (Long, 1998 & 2004; Seidel, 2018; Hall & Gössling, 2013) and keeping local customs and traditions (Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Long, 2004). Also on an environmental level production and transport chains are short (Engelhaupt, 2008; Pratt, 2013; Stanley & Stanley, 2014; Eriksen, 2013), less packaging material is used (Duram, 2011; Kim & Eves, 2012; Sims, 2009) and, hence, less waste produced (Long, 2004) - all of which have positive impacts on the environment (Cavagnaro, 2018; Pratt, 2013; Feldmann & Hamm, 2015).

Hence, it is not surprising that tourism and/or government stakeholders put more effort into theoptions of integrate local food into their tourism and/or leisure products (Tomassini & Cavagnaro, 2020). The following research is based on initiatives of provincial governments in Northern Netherlands (Friesland, Drenthe and Groningen) and of regional (tourism) stakeholdergroups. These stakeholders have launched several initiatives, all with the main aim of integrating local food into tourism and leisure products. In the bigger context, potential food festivals, opportunities of local food boxes and marketing campaigns were research. This extended abstract focuses on one sub-project. The aim behind this project was that restaurants should use more local products, hence, the research was focused on opportunities and challenges of using local food in restaurants.

Yet, the term 'local' is not a characteristic as straight forward as it seems. (Tourism) Literatureargues when a (food) product can be identified as local. Definitions differ from being non- existent (disappearing due to globalisation) (Hall & Mitchell, 2003), currently being used or known for the region without having a relation to the region (Long, 2004), or to extreme as being grown, processed and sold in the region within a radius of 15, 30 or 50 miles (Hall & Gössling, 2013; Sims, 2009; Kirwan & Maye, 2013; Pamukçu, Saraç, Aytuğar, & Sandıkçı, 2021). A definitions commonly in the industry (Tomassini & Cavagnaro, 2020) is a productionchain of a maximum of 75 kilometres. Hence, for this project a local food product is defined ascoming from the same region/province (grown, processed and consumed by end producer) witha maximum of 75 kilometres (within the Dutch borders).

This project of integrating local products into tourism falls within the total vision of the governments and stakeholders to become more sustainable and regional, even more so with theCovid-crisis coming in in the middle of the duration of the project. The effects of this (tourism)crisis kept all stakeholders even more to the vision of a more regional and sustainable tourism industry. This is not only a trend in the Netherlands but now emerges

as international tourism trend (Fountain, 2021; Williamson & Hassanli, 2021, Postma, Cavagnaro & Spruyt, 2017). Hence, this research project is also relevant for other regions that want to integrate local products into their tourism industry.

Accordingly, this research project had the purpose to answer several questions:

- What local foods are available (quality, quantity and variety) to the restaurants within aradius of 75 kilometres?
- What are the needs and wishes of the restaurants (regarding quality, variety, delivery,customer demand, process) to use more local food?
- What are the possibilities and needs of the producer side to match the needs and wishesof the restaurants?

Methodology

Several research methods were used to answer the different research questions.
To discover the local products, a detailed search in the internet but also through observation was done to discover all the local food producers. These included farmers and fisheries but alsoprocessing farms like cheese dairy or bakeries. These were processed in a map and on the webpages it was checked which produce they offer, added up with structured qualitative surveyswith the producers on which products (raw or processed) they offer in what season, at what quantity etc.

For the needs and wishes of the restaurants and the needs and possibilities of the producers, different stakeholders of the restaurants respectively the producers were interviewed. To be precise, the development in the area is small scale, this implies that most restaurants and/or other hospitality providers with a restaurant are often micro businesses with four to five permanent employees (including the entrepreneurs themselves). Hence, the interviewees were conducted with the owners and/or the cooks. The producers indeed were often small scale, too,with few responsible employees, each with a specific task. Hence, for both the hospitality and the producer side, it was a challenge to conduct interviews due restricted availability. In the end, however, interviews with the restaurants stakeholders were conducted both before and after the completion of the producer inventory. Interviews with the producers were conducted after the interviews with the demand side.

Results and argumentation

The first question required an inventory of which products were actually available to the restaurants. The answer to this question was by far the most remarkable for all stakeholders ofthe project and came as a huge surprise to the restaurant stakeholders, who had expected that there was not much possible supply for them in the area: In total, there are almost 120 producersin the region who are capable of delivering the needed product quantities at the demanded quality standard. Indeed, the offer is of such variety that it could basically cover most needed produce for the restaurants. There are of course some exemptions such as tropical fruit, rice and/or coffee, but the surprising conclusion is that there is sufficient supply from producers in the region.

A second surprise is that not only raw produce is available, but that also produced and processedfood can be offered to the restaurants. Note again that the restaurants are small-sized with limited personal and, hence, buy also processed food products. Among the available products are cheese and other dairy products, bread, cake and cookies, spices, tea, fruit jam, juice, alcoholic beverages, sausages and other prepared meat products. Indeed, several of the producers stated to have specialised more and more in preparing and processing their produce directly due to customer demand and own passion. This means that also a lot of processed foodproducts are available of which the stakeholders knew nothing or even indicated this as reasonfor buying at a national wholesaler.

Concerning the products itself, the main limitation from the producers side but also main opportunity is seasonality. Some restaurant owners believe that certain dishes are requested allyear around by their guests. However, the vast majority of ingredients can be provided by the producers for most of the year, which the restaurants were not aware of. It should be noted thatit is possible for the producers (considering their production capacities, economic efficiency and from a sustainability standpoint) to produce more goods than they do at the moment if demand increases. For the restaurant stakeholders a calendar was put together with a detailed seasonal list of all available products.

Considering the characteristics of the products product, the restaurant stakeholders needed certain characteristics of the product (among others, freshness, date of expiration, value and useof the product). After the were presented with the producers and products in the region, the restaurant owners clearly stated that the offer fulfil their wishes, hence the product characteristics matches with their needs. In the end, the main issue related to this availability ofproducts was neither the variety nor the volume nor the quality of product supply, but rather ofcooperation. Neither the restaurants nor the producers actually knew from each other or considered a cooperation in detail (often believing that the supply of one side and the needs ofthe other would not match) show that the most important item is a set up a cooperation.

As the availability of products is clear given and the wishes and needs concerning the productsthemselves can be fulfilled, the question arrives where the challenges lie and these are not directly in the products but in the acquisition and logistics of the products. The restaurant owners set three main preconditions to source their products local: Firstly, the acquisition process should require as little effort and time as possible. Secondly, the acquisition price (for the same quality) must not be higher than the prices of the wholesaler. Thirdly, the delivery ofthe goods needs to be flexible and take place when requested.

These three conditions indeed set up the main challenges for integrating local food in the restaurant's menus. The first main issue is that no logistics system is set up, yet. There are twosides that need to be tackled here: the ordering process and the transport. A limitation is that capacities to organise the logistics are limited, both at the restaurants and at the suppliers. Thismeans that there is also no time to check different providers and/or make several orders at different places. Hence, a logistics system needs to provide an easy ordering process, preferablywith a direct contact person (as preferred by the restaurant stakeholders).

The restaurants are not much involved in the logistics in general and also have no transport means but also limited storage space (particularly for products that need cooling). Most providers do not have transport means either but use a third party for logistics and transport. Inaddition to this, if there has to be a regular delivery several times a week (as required by the restaurants) the quantities get too small for an efficient and reasonably-priced delivery. At the moment most producers can deliver once to twice per week, but would be able to provide dailyif logistics could be arranged.

However, there is also an opportunity in this outcome: if several providers and restaurants witha close area participate, a logistics system could be set up that enables delivery several times aweek of smaller quantities to several restaurants, hence, keeping transport and supply efficient.Hence, a lot of participants in a small area are required in addition to using already existing logistics systems in the area. Indeed, after the research it turned out that a radius of 16 kilometreswould be sufficient to provide the needed goods and the possibility to use existing logistics systems.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is wise to reduce the radius for a project of this kind, at least during the start- up phase. It became clear that in Northern Netherlands within a radius of about 16 kilometres, most necessary products for the restaurants can be acquired. (If there is a lack of products due to weather conditions or increased demand, the radius can be gradually enlarged.) This would be the main solution to both reduce costs and food miles.

Challenges to fulfil the needs and wishes of demand and supply side were not the products butin logistics. Hence, a system for ordering and delivering needs to be set up. It is important thatthe acquisition process is as easy and efficient for stakeholders as possible due to the small sizeof the businesses and, therefore, their available resources. Accordingly, the following need to be considered when setting up the logistics: direct supplier-restaurant contact, reliability of delivery, frequent delivery and price, both in terms of product and transport. The main learningoutcome of the project is that there are much more opportunities for collaboration andpossibilities to integrate local food in the restaurant's menu than expected, but demand and supply side were not aware of each other. Hence, an important task of governments or other organisations that would like to facilitate the integration of local food need to foster communication between these small scale stakeholders.

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2. The influence of values on motivations for sustainable behaviour. Theory and evidence from the Dutch SME entrepreneurs in tourism

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Introduction

The tourism industry causes sustainability changes globally, in both a positive and negative manner. Sustainable entrepreneurship is seen as essential in the transition towards a more equitable and environmentally healthy planet (Eikelenboom and de Jong, 2019). There is, though, limited understanding of which factors determine the motivation of entrepreneurs to actsustainably in general (Garay, Font and Pereira-Moliner, 2017; Shephard and Patzelt, 2011) and in in (tourism) SMEs in particular (Crnogaj et al., 2014; Spence, Gherib and Biwolé, 2011). Motivation for sustainability is a key element, because entrepreneurs determine the strategy ofthe company based on motivation (Lashley and Rowson, 2010). Values influence sustainable behaviour and help to

understand whether or not individuals will show sustainable actions (Steg, Perlaviacute and van der Werff, 2015; Van der Werff and Steg, 2016). The main aims ofthis paper are twofold: First, to identify different types of motivations of tourism SMEentrepreneurs to engage in sustainable behaviour. Second, to identify the individual values of tourism SME entrepreneurs and analyse their influence on the different motivations to act sustainably. In doing so, this research fills the gaps about the roles of values and motivation inthe tourism industry in general (Font, Garay and Jones, 2016), and for micro and small sized tourism enterprises in particular.

Literature review

For-profit companies are often seen as both the cause of and the solution for the unsustainablestate of affairs in the contemporaneous world (Gast, Gundolf and Cesinger, 2017; Schalteggerand Wagner, 2011). Given that individual entrepreneurs determine the strategic direction of the SME company (Lashley and Rowson, 2010), it is crucial to have an in-depth understanding of the determinants of sustainable entrepreneurship and sustainable business.

Research suggests that values and motivations are potentially important concepts to explainthis individual sustainable behaviour, because they are significant internal and individual- level factors (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002; Stern, 2000) and foster sustainable entrepreneurship (Parrish, 2010).

Values, defined as guiding principles in one's life (Ros, Schwartz and Surkiss, 1999), are considered to be general, stable and fundamental antecedents of both current and future behaviour. They indirectly influence an individual's preferences and behaviour and in combination with other more direct causes of sustainable behaviour such as specific norms, attitudes and motivation (Steg, 2016; Steg, Lindenberg and Keizer, 2015; Steg, Perlaviciute and van der Werff, 2014). Typically, entrepreneurs with a high hedonic and high gain value orientation have a lower propensity to implement pro-social and pro-environmental measuresthat require effort such as time, money, knowledge, etcetera. Individuals with high altruistic and high biospheric value orientations are more prone to behave sustainably even if this costsefforts to do so (De Groot & Steg, 2008).

In this study we define motivation as why an individual does something and where the individual choses to engage in a certain behaviour. In the Value-Belief-Norm Theory of supportfor social movements (Stern et al., 1999), motivation is connected to the formation of personal norms in the framing process of sustainable behaviour. It is positioned as a more direct antecedent of sustainable behaviour than values. Hence, values and motivation do not have thesame position in the causal model of sustainable behaviour. Font, Garay and Jones (2016) offera categorization of motivation that is suitable for the aim of this research because they focus onSME entrepreneurs in tourism. In explaining the entrepreneur's sustainable behaviour, they highlight three dominant motivations, namely cost reduction competitiveness, sociallegitimization, and lifestyle-value drivers. The first motivation, cost reduction competitiveness,refers to taking measures that lead to operational and internal benefits. It is the most referencedmotivation for organizations, making the 'business case' by implementing pro-social and pro-environmental measures leading to direct savings, improved positions in the market and/or other economic benefits (Carusak et al. 2016; Font, Garay and Jones, 2016; Gast, Gundolf andCesinger, 2017). The second motivation, social legitimization, refers to taking measures that are visible or expected by others. It connects to social capital theory, where doing what is expected by others or being part of public concerns leads to an improved public image of the enterprise and therefore higher legitimacy (Carusak et al. 2016; Font, Garay and Jones, 2016; Gast, Gundolf and Cesinger, 2017). The third motivation, lifestyle-value drivers, refers to taking pro-social and pro-environmental measures due to habitual and non-habitual personal choices. The high altruistic and/or biospheric value orientation of the entrepreneur makes considering the wellbeing of others and the environment an intrinsic part of their doing business(Carusak et al. 2016; Font, Garay and Jones, 2016; Gast, Gundolf and Cesinger, 2017).

Methodology

Primary data was collected by a carefully designed survey following Dillman's Tailored Design Survey Method (Dillman et al., 2014) recommendations. The population of this study included Dutch owner-managers of micro and small-sized accommodations. 344 companies responded to the questionnaire, representing a 14.87% response rate. More than half of the respondents were female (52,5%), between 41-60 years of age (57,6%), had more than three years of work experience in the accommodation industry (more than 85,5%) and had less than16 rooms in their property (74,1%). A comparison of the early to late responses was done in order to evaluate potential nonresponse bias and no significant differences were found.

Motivation to act sustainably was measured using the scale of Font et al. (2016). Value orientations were measured using the Environmental-Portrait Value Questionnaire (E-PVQ) developed by Bouman, Steg and Kiers (2018). This study controlled for gender and age of theowner-manager (Font et al., 2016; Garay and Font, 2012; Terjesen et al., 2009), tenure measured by the number of years the entrepreneur has been working in the

accommodation industry (Font, Garay and Jones, 2016; Lashley and Rowson, 2010) and the size of the establishment measured by the number of rooms in the accommodation (Garay and Font, 2012).

Results and argumentation

All three models show a good fit of the model to the data (Table 1, appendix). Model 1 was statistically significant (with X^2 (d.f. = 7, N = 344) = 108.98, $p < 0.001$), indicating that the model was able to distinguish between respondents who did and did not report to implementingsustainability measures due to lifestyle-value drivers motivations.

Model 2 was statistically significant, X^2 (7, N = 344) = 30.356, $p < 0.001$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between respondents who did and did not report to implementingsustainability measures due to social legitimization motivations.

Model 3 was not statistically significant, (X^2 (7, N = 344) = 8.167, p 0.32), indicating that the model was not able to distinguish between respondents who did and did not report to implementing sustainability measures due to cost reduction competitiveness motivation.

The main topic of interest in our study concerned the relationships between the different owner-managers' values and the different motivations to act sustainably. A positive relationbetween altruistic and biospheric values and lifestyle-value drivers motivation to act sustainably was found. Altruistic values are an antecedent to social behaviour, as biosphericvalues are to pro-environmental behaviour. The lifestyle-value drivers motivation for actingsustainably includes individuals who portray an intrinsic concern for the environment and society overall (Carasuk, Becken and Hughey, 2016; Tamajon and Font, 2013).

Based on this importance adhered to the locality of the accommodation (Kornilaki & Font, 2018) one would expect there to be a positive correlation between altruistic values to societal legitimization motivation, which in this sample in fact was lacking. The negative relation to biospheric values was even astounding, as taking care of the wellbeing of the natural surroundings of the organization would be something that is regarded positively by (direct) stakeholders (Carasuk et al., 2016; Font, Garay and Jones, 2016; Tamajon and Aulet, 2013; Carasuk, Becken and Hughey, 2016). A possible explanation could be that entrepreneurs motivated to act sustainably act according to the perceived expectations of the business stakeholders to maintain a good image (Font, Garay and Jones, 2016; Carasuk, Becken and Hughey, 2016). The environment is not a vocal stakeholder (Clifton and Amran, 2011) and may thus be perceived of lesser importance to them. This same line of reasoning could be used to understand why there would be a positive relation to gain values: a good standing for the entrepreneur and their organization in the eyes of stakeholders falls under the explanation pertaining to the gain value orientation (De Groot & Steg, 2008). Since a cost saving focus forentrepreneurs with cost reduction competitiveness motivation to act sustainably (Font, Garay and Jones, 2016) was anticipated for this population of accommodation owner-managers, it was unexpected to not find a relation between gain values to this motivation to act sustainably (Steg, Lindenberg and Keizer, 2015). It is unclear what the reason for this occurrence was.

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)

This paper contributes to understanding the motivation of SME accommodation owner- managers pro-environmental values and how these connect to the motivation to act sustainably in their organizations. We have seen that the main motivations for acting sustainably were due to lifestyle-value drivers motivation, because it protects the environment and it is a personal lifestyle choice for them. The prioritized pro-environmental values of the entrepreneurs in this sample showed hedonic, altruistic and biospheric values to be more dominant than gain values.

This data has implications for how we understand accommodation SMEs in tourism as it builds on existing research by adding pro-environmental values. Since the manner a SME isoperates is seen as an extension of the owners' personal norms and values (Font, Garay and Jones, 2016), this may prove to be an important way to nudge them towards more and bettersustainable behaviour.

Table 1

Independent variable	Dependent variable: Motivation to act sustainably		
	Model 1: Lifestyle motivation	Model 2: Legitimacy motivation	Model 3: Competitiveness motivation
Control Variables			
Age of entrepreneur	-0.05	0.35	-0.02
Time in industry	**-0.62****	0.20	-0.06
Number of rooms			
Gender	**-0.73***	0.28	0.54
Value Orientation			
Hedonic values	-0.28	0.09	0.19
Gain values	**-0.44****	**0.50***	0.25
Altruistic values	0.32	-0.26	0.05
Biospheric values	**1.19****	**-0.79****	**-0.54***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

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3. Worries, values, and traits of tourists abroad during covid-19

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Introduction
Swedish people are known for travel abroad during their summer vacation, but this was not thecase during the summer of 2020 (Roos, 2022). Despite this, there were people who decided to go abroad, which may seem strange considering the spread of covid-19 and practical barriers. Although domestic distances in Sweden often can be longer than traveling abroad, it can still be seen as an extraordinary act to cross national borders in these circumstances. The aim of thisresearch is to explore what characterize people who decided to go abroad during the summer vacation in 2020, in terms of perceived risks/worries, human values, and personality traits.

Literature review
Perceived risk refers to beliefs of potentially negative consequences from using or not using a product or service (Mitchell & Greatorex, 1993; Murray & Schlacter, 1990). From the literaturereview, four factors are identified as perceived risk factors related to vacation abroad during covid-19: (1) Worries for the disease (Pennington-Gray and Schroeder, 2013), which includes both receiving Covid-19 and spreading the disease to others. (2) Worries for a less pleasant tourist experience (Larsen, Brun, & Øgaard, 2009). This can either be related to worries about practical barriers (such as quarantine, travel bans, and Covid-19 tests) or worries that the Covid-19 has a negative impact on the cultural and social atmosphere at the travel destination. (3) Worries for that the travel not should be accepted by most people that stay at home. (i.e. worriesabout social recognition and the fear of not being seen as responsible) (Cialdini, 2001). (4) Worries for the private economy, because of Covid-19 (Travel Daily News, 2020). According to Oosterhoff and Palmer (2020), perceived risk of covid-19 is positively related to social distancing. Therefore, we expect the general tourist worries of covid-19 to be lower among people who decided to travel abroad during their vacation 2020, compared to the rest of the Swedish population.
Human values are defined as coherent systems that underlies and helps to explain individual decision making, attitudes and behavior (Rokeach, 1973). The study is based on Rokeach´s theory of terminal values (Rokeach, 1973) and Schwartz theory of basic human values (Schwartz, 1994). According to Oosterhoof and Palmer (2020), self-interest values are negatively associated to social distancing during covid-19. Bojanowska et al. (2021) have foundthat self-interest in terms of hedonic values has decreased during covid-19, while people valuingsecurity, conformity, humility, caring, and universalism more. A similar pattern was reported regarding changes in human values related to the Global Financial crisis (Sortheix et al., 2019).From the previous literature we assume that international tourists, compared to domestic tourists, are more concerned about the pleasure of one-self rather than the welfare of others.
The most popular model of personality traits is the Five Factor Model of Personality (FFM). The five traits are degree of Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeablenessand Neuroticism (Costa and McCrae, 1992). According to Qian and Yahara (2020) and Roos (2020b), there are foremost people with a high degree of Conscientiousness and Agreeablenesswho act to prevent the spread of covid-19. People with a high degree of Conscientiousness appreciate to a greater extent recommendation from authorities to reduce the spread of covid- 19 (Carvalho, Pianowski & Groncalves, 2020; Prentice, Zeidan, & Wang, 2020). People with ahigh degree of Extraversion also have difficulties with social distancing (Carvalho, Pianowski& Groncalves, 2020). According to Costa and McCrae (1992), people with a high degree of Neuroticism tend to be more worried for uncertain and unforeseen events in general. In additionto disease and the spread of infection during the summer of 2020, there was uncertainty in termsof vaccines and restrictions (Prentice, Zeidan & Wang, 2020). From the literature review, we expect tourists abroad to have a higher degree of Extraversion and a lower degree of Conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Neuroticism, compared to people who stayed in Swedenduring the Summer of 2020.

Methodology

The research method was a web-survey. Panel-members were selected in order to represent the Swedish population regarding age[1], gender and residential area. Only people with summer vacation in 2020 were included in the analyzes (n=727). The data was gathered through Qualtrics survey, a well-established survey organization. The period for data collection was September 28–December 9, 2020.

Tourist abroad was measured through a dichotomous variable: "Have you been abroad during your summer vacation in 2020 (June 1 - August 31)?" (Response categories: "Yes" or "No"). The measurements of perceived risks during Covid-19 included worries related to disease, tourist experience, social recognition, and private economy. The construction of the scale was influenced by the "Tourist worry scale" (Wolff & Larsen, 2013). Human values weremeasured through Rokeachs 18 terminal values (Rokeachs, 1973) and Schwartz (1994) two value-dimensions ("self-transcendence versus self-enhancement" and "Conversation versus openness to change"). Personality traits were measured by BFI-10 (Rammstedt & John, 2007). Independent t-tests were performed in order to compare the two groups (1) People who were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (n = 197) and (2) People who were not abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (n = 530).

Results and discussion

The overall perceived risk related to covid-19 is lower among people who traveled abroad during their summer vacation of 2020, which corresponds to previous research (Oosterhoff andPalmer 2020). People who traveled abroad during the summer vacation in 2020 are more concerned about practical barriers (such as travel bans) than getting sick or spreading Covid-
19. Compared to the people who had vacation in Sweden, they were more worried about beingwelcome at the tourist destination and how other people would judge their travels afterwards (table 1).

Table 1. Perceived risks related to Covid-19 among tourists abroad and others

	People who were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (N=197)		People who do not were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (N=530)	
	m	sd	m	sd
Worries for the disease				
Receiving covid-19**	2,82	1,26	3,12	1,30
Spreading covid-19	2,96	1,25	3,10	1,30
Worries for the tourist experience				
Inaccessibility/travel ban***	3,30	1,20	2,95	1,29
Worse social and cultural atmosphere	2,98	1,16	2,99	1,09
Not being welcome***	3,11	1,20	2,60	1,18
Worries for others' perceptions***	2,73	1,28	2,13	1,20
Worries for the household economy	2,82	1,21	2,86	1,29
Worries for Covid-19 in general**	3,34	1,17	3,60	1,15

Note: Survey-question: Regarding your summer vacation 2020 (June 1 to August 31). "To what extent have the following concerns affected your choice of locations… Where I have been during the summer holidays 2020 has been affected by…" Significance levels: * p<0,05, ** p<0,01, ***p<0,001. Statistic tests: Independent t-tests. Source: "Roos web panel on the coronavirus" (Roos, 2020a).

[1] *People who were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 were significantly (p<.05) younger than people wo do not were abroad during the Summer vacation of 2020. Since our sample is overrepresented by people who has been tourists abroad during the summer-vacation of 2020, the mean age of the sample is also lower than the mean age in the Swedish adult population.*

Tourists abroad valued excitement in life and self-enhancement higher than people who stayedin Sweden, while people who stayed in Sweden stated that self-transcendence and the welfare of the society was more important, e.g. peace in the world, national security, and equality (table2). The findings correspond to previous research (Bojanowska et al., 2021; Oosterhoof & Palmer, 2020; Sortheix et al., 2019).

Table 2. Human values among tourists abroad and others

	People who were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (N=197)		People who do not were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (N=530)	
	m	sd	m	sd
A comfortable life	4,40	0,73	4,37	0,71
An exciting life**	3,71	0,99	3,45	0,96
A sense of accomplishment	3,76	0,90	3,65	0,90
A world at peace*	4,36	0,90	4,53	0,69
A world of beauty	4,28	0,86	4,26	0,79
Equality□	4,22	0,95	4,36	0,81
Family security	4,48	0,83	4,56	0,76
Freedom	4,62	0,71	4,65	0,62
Happiness	4,49	0,75	4,46	0,69
Inner harmony□	4,37	0,80	4,48	0,75
Mature love	4,42	0,83	4,46	0,79
National security□	4,36	0,86	4,48	0,73
Pleasure	3,96	0,94	3,87	0,94
Salvation	2,47	1,33	2,43	1,26
Self-respect	3,77	0,96	3,88	0,90
Social recognition□	3,39	1,06	3,23	0,98
True friendship	4,39	0,84	4,48	0,71
Wisdom	4,08	0,85	4,15	0,78
Self-transcendence vs self-enhancement□	2,59	1,03	2,42	1,05
Conversation vs openness to change	3,48	0,89	3,43	0,87

Note: Survey-questions: Value-items 1-16: "How important are the following to you?" Scale: 5-point, from "Not at all important" to "Very important". Value-items 17-18: "How well do the following statements describe you? I see myself as someone who..." (17) "... thinks more about myself than about others" and (18) "…is open to change and to leaving the past behind. Scale: 5-point, from "Disagree strongly" to "Agree strongly". Significance levels: □ p<0,1, * p<0,05, ** p<0,01, ***p<0,001. Statistic tests: Independent t-tests. Source: "Roos web panel on the coronavirus" (Roos, 2020a).

Tourists abroad during the summer of 2020 had a lower degree of Neuroticism in their personality than those who stayed in Sweden, which implies that they are less anxious and handle stress better (Costa and McCrae, 1992). This corresponds to our expectations. However,in contrast to what we expected from previous research (Carvalho, Pianowski & Groncalves, 2020; Prentice, Zeidan, & Wang, 2020; Qian and Yahara, 2020; Roos, 2020b), we did not find a significant (p<.05) difference between the two groups regarding Conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Extraversion (table 3. We suggest further analyses that control for age, as well as income and education (Roos, 2022b). Furthermore, we suggest that the results are compared to personality traits of people traveling abroad during circumstances before covid- 19.

Table 3. Personality traits among tourists abroad and others

	People who were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (N=197)		People who do not were abroad during the summer vacation of 2020 (N=530)	
	m	sd	m	Sd
Openness	3,17	0,93	3,18	0,93
Conscientiousness	3,55	0,81	3,63	0,78
Extraversion	3,25	0,90	3,21	0,96
Agreeableness	3,50	0,73	3,57	0,71
Neuroticism*	2,62	0,97	2,79	1,04

Note: Survey-question: "How well do the following statements describe you? I see myself as someone who..." (e.g. Openness) "…has an active imagination", (e.g. Conscientiousness) "…does a thorough job", (e.g. Extraversion) "is outgoing, sociable", (e.g. Agreeableness) "is generally trusting", (e.g. Neuroticism) "gets nervous easily". Scale: 5-point, from "Disagree strongly" to "Agree strongly". Significance levels * p<0,05. Statistic tests: Independent t-tests. Source: "Roos web panel on the coronavirus" (Roos, 2020a).

Conclusions

Through the study, the tourist industry gain insight into how covid-19 affects different targets,as important input in marketing communication and strategic decisions. For society in general, the study contributes to understanding the spread of covid-19.

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4. Social comparison in tourism

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Several studies have investigated attitudes toward tourists within frameworks such as social exchange theory (e.g. Ward & Berno, 2011) and the theory of reasoned action (e.g. Lepp, 2007). Such studies tend to find positive attitudes towards tourists, often correlated with the expectations of improvement of economic conditions for local communities as a function of tourism (e.g. Madsen, Wigger & Vinogradov, 2018). At the same time, Genc and Genc (2022) argued that "making sense of tourist behavior and creating appropriate marketing strategies is one of the most important competitive strategies" and maintained that it is important "to reveal social comparisons within understanding tourist behavior and tourism marketing".

The present paper applies a social comparison perspective in asking 1) how tourism- and service workers view tourists, and 2) how tourists perceive tourists from their home countries compared to themselves.
Two surveys was performed. In the first, which took place in Penang, Malaysia, some 450 service works filled in a questionnaire on their views on tourists. The second survey was done among tourists in Bergen (Norway). Of some 1750 tourists approached, 1666 were willing to fill in a 4-page questionnaire about "aspects of being a tourist".
Findings from the first study indicate that service workers tend to hold rather positive views of tourists, although they tend to view tourists as different from themselves in systematic ways. Findings from the second study indicate that, no matter where tourists come from, they think of tourists along (at least four) dimensions; Agreeableness, impoliteness, preference for individuality and spending (of money). In addition, tourists tend to think that they themselves are more and more agreeable than their compatriots are as tourists.
These results will be discussed in terms of their theoretical and practical implications.

Session 3.5. Workshop: Advancements in Event & Festival Research

1. Finnish Rhythm Music Festivals: Post-Pandemic Market Situation

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In 2019, up to 370 rhythm music festivals were arranged all around Finland. Most of them were verysmall and only twenty-one had more than 30,000 visits. Five of the largest festivals were owned by international corporations, but the biggest market share was in the possession of the media company Nelonen Media Live.

The COVID-19 restrictions caused a drastic decline in the number of festivals in 2020 and 2021. Yet, there were several intriguing changes in the Finnish festival market. During the pandemic, Tuska metal festival announced its co-operation with Superstruct Entertainment, giving indications that the festival market remained an attractive part of investment portfolio since Superstruct is owned by theventure capital company Providence Equity Partners.

Another exciting trend was the number of new festivals. The cancellation of all the largest festivals opened the market for newcomers. In the two pandemic years, 52 new festivals were arranged (29%of them were touring ones). In 2022, at least 48 new festivals are introduced meaning that the Finnish festival market is exceptionally turbulent.

The increase of touring festivals is changing the competition as well. In 2022, RH Entertainment isthe biggest festival organiser by numbers, arranging 26 festivals. The company has concentrated heavily on developing touring festivals.

The pandemic has changed the Finnish festival market. Interesting festivals and festival organisersare being introduced, and the number of touring festivals is growing. Furthermore, it seems that despite the pandemic, festivals are still attracting international investors.

2. Needs, Needs Satisfaction and Happiness in an Event Context

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Research about relations between personal well-being and the collective wellness of humanity and our planet is necessary for a better future. When individuals pursue aims, they find satisfying and pleasurable, they may, at the same time limit the attainment of well-being by others. It is therefore important to study how factors that foster individual well-being can be aligned with factors that facilitate collective wellness. This line of research may hopefully, indicate a sustainable way forward without conflict with others who aspire to live a happy life. This study asks the question if participation in an event influences happiness and, if so, how is this effect related to hedonic and eudaimonic need satisfaction. Furthermore, we are interested to study if nature relatedness, environmental concern (NEP) and consumption activities related to the event have effects on satisfaction and happiness.

The study focuses on event participants to describe and analyze how environmental attitudes, conceptualized as the New Environmental Paradigm and personal needs, based on theories related to self-determination theory- SDT-(Ryan, Decy, 2000), Maslow's motivational theory and the cognitive-experiential self-theory (Epstein, 1990) affect consumption, satisfaction and happiness among event participants. Consumption of goods and services has previously been pointed out to affect both levels of satisfaction and happiness. These relationships will therefore be included in the study. At the same time, consumption is the cause for significant environmental impacts, why they should be considered in light of the consumers' underlying environmental attitudes. Meanwhile, people who are satisfied with an event experience are likely to perceive increased happiness. This study applies the theoretical framework of hedonic and eudaimonic satisfaction to explain increased levels of well-being among event participants.

The data consists of a random sample of event participants at an event in Sweden. Confirmatory factor analysis and Structural equations modelling are used to analyse the data and test the relationships. Conclusions about important predictors of happiness are drawn and recommendations for the event industry are discussed.

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3. Sport, events and organised outdoor activities - environmental considerations in permission processes

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Research has over the last decades repeatedly requested more empirical evidence on environmental sustainability from events. Parallel to this, the number of events and the volume of people visiting the Swedish mountains have increased, both in winter and summer. This trend was strengthened during the pandemic when even more visitors found their ways to the mountains looking for open-air events and activities. This development raises questions about sustainability, over-tourism, regulations and future development, especially in sensitive nature areas. The aim of this paper is to analyse the importance of assessment and environmental considerations connected to organised nature-based outdoor recreation and sport events. This is done by studying one of the most tourism- and event-intense regions in the Nordic countries namely the Jämtland region - a Swedish mountain area including mountain resorts such as Åre. A study has been undertaken looking into all the applications from 2011-2020 including sport events and organised outdoor activities in the Jämtland region. This paper investigates public documents from the county administration board, data that seldom has been analysed, and the work will contribute to add insights on the assessment of environmental sustainability and answer the question: Do environmental issues matter when it comes to governmental.

4. Event sustainability according to Swedish event organizers – mapping communication of sustainability

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Over the past decades, event organizers have been working more intensely with sustainability initiatives. During this period, events have also been pointed out as an arena for changing consumer behaviors into more sustainable behaviors (see Jutbring, 2017). This could be linked to e.g. transport, food, health or consumption behaviors. One (of several) communication channels to inform and influence consumers (i.e. event participants) is the event home page. This is where presumptive participants and spectators look for information, tips and inspiration related to future or past event experiences.
This study maps how events communicate and prioritize sustainability on their home pages. This includes the understanding of what type of sustainability that is communicated and prioritized and in what way. The home pages of 33 large annual sport and outdoor recreation events in Sweden were included in the sample. Web crawling was used to download the content from the events. Glossaries compiling words associated with event sustainability (economic, social, and environmental sustainability) were used to analyze the content quantitatively.
The results show that many events are relatively unspecific and general when communicating about sustainability. Furthermore, social sustainability is overrepresented in comparison with e.g. environmental sustainability. Some of the most common topics that are covered are related to health, togetherness, security & safety, climate, disabilities and waste. This study contributes both with methodological insights in the festival and event field as well as a basic understanding of how sustainability is framed and communicated by event organizers.

Session 4.1. Destinations and resilience

1. Social sustainability and second homes: Accommodating the utilization of second home owners as a resource in local place- and business development

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During the last decade, there has been a rapid increase in the number of second homes in the Nordic countries. This increase has coincided with a gradual shift from traditional low-amenity cabins to high-standard second homes (SH). Combined, these developments have resulted in an increased presence of SH owners in the communities in which these second homes are located, challenging the social sustainability by causing discontent and rising conflict levels between SH owners and the permanent population.

Prior research has however shown that when the local population perceives the advantages of the SH development to outweigh the negative effects, they are more positive towards both the SH development and SH owners. Creating more positive effects for the local community from SH development can thus contribute to improve the social sustainability of these rural second home areas. One approach to this can be to facilitate the utilization of SH owners as a resource in local place- and business development. Previous studies show that SH owners possess relevant knowledge (higher education, leadership/boardroom experience, entrepreneurial skills, etc.) and have access to financial resources and relevant external networks. Similarly, case studies have indicated that there is an interest among SH owners to utilize these resources in their SH municipalities, but that the infrastructure to facilitate such resource exchange is lacking. The aim of this project is therefore to develop initiatives that facilitate the utilization of SH owners as a resource and conduct a cross-case study to measure the effect of implementing such initiatives.

2. How networks between DMOS promote sustainable and resilience

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Responding to challenges and vulnerabilities facing the tourism sector, this paper explores how networks between Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) influence sustainability and resilience, in Norwegian tourism destinations. This study aims to fill the gap in the literature, as there is scarce research addressing networks between DMOs. The study is also consistent with the Norwegian national strategy on environmental certificationschemes, sustainability certification being one of them. DMOs work for local destination actors collectively, to support local marketing and local actors' efforts to become more sustainable and resilient. We focus on the position of a focal DMO in the network of DMOs in the national context. Taking DMO as the unit of analysis, we explore how the ego-network of the DMO to other DMOs might enhance the DMOs support roles. Particularly, we address how a focal DMO's degree centrality and clustering in the network of DMOs might promote a focal DMOs ability to support local destination sustainability practices and resilience.

This study aims at contributing to Destination Management Organization (DMOs) literature, specifically local DMOs whose literature is not highly explored. Moreover, a previous study reveals a gap in knowledge collaborations, between DMOs, and whether local DMOs networkrelationships with other DMOs can help promote sustainability and resilience in a local destination. There exists a challenge in knowledge management in tourism between organizations. The main reason is the existing competition for tourists between destinations, which exist as rather competing actors. In addition, there are few studies focusing on resilience and sustainability in tourism as a function of existing social networks as well as fewer studies that apply quantitative methods for resilience assessments, planning, and management in the tourism field.

We are expecting to collect data from the Norwegian tourism sector. We will do this in twophases, firstly is the collection of network data from DMOs, followed by survey data collection in Norway later this year.

3. Engaging workshops as a method in design of field experiments and behavioural interventions: The case of climate-friendly food choices at a Swedish mountain tourism destination

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It is widely recognized that food consumption is a key contributor to climate change, making up around a third of emissions in developed countries. Tourism and hospitality, which accounts to around 8% of global greenhouse gas emission, is of high relevance in food consumption. Nudging or "boosting" consumers to choose more sustainable food and beverage options would be one way to reduce the industry's overall climate footprint. Field experiments in a natural setting provide the ultimate test to examine if such interventions could have the intended "boosting" effect. However, conducting a successful field experiment involves several challenges. Engaging the company partner is one key challenge where scientific quality criteria as well as practical and business-related issues in the implementation of the experiment must be understood and negotiated. Through two initial workshops using Open Space and Design Thinking as facilitating workshop methods, more methodologically valid and practically effective behavioural interventions have been identified. Two restaurants serve as case in our study and restaurant staff, managers and researchers participated in the workshops. Our findings so far, show that staff knowledge on sustainable food as well as on guest satisfaction are key factors for the implementation of the field experiments. Results from this study will have practical implications for tourism providers aiming to trigger more sustainable behaviour. Further, this study advances knowledge on the challenges and opportunities food service providers in tourism face in offering more climate-friendly choices to their customers.

4. A synthesis of safari operator's resilience towards climate change: a multiple case study

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Introduction
The tourism industry can be described as a multidimensional system which is influenced by various drivers of change, in which the impacts of climate change as the driving forcechallenges the capacity of responsiveness of tourism enterprises continuously (Saarinen & Tervo, 2006; Becken, 2013; Hambira, Saarinen, Manwa & Atlhopheng, 2013; Tervo-Kankare,Kajan and Saarinen, 2018). Through the gathering of reliable data, researchers recognised the vulnerability of the African continent towards impacts of climate change (Brown et al., 2012).One of the main assets of the tourism industry are natural resources. Unquestionably this is alsoa key aspect of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe, where natural resources build the foundationfor development (Saarinen et al., 2012; Dube & Nhamo, 2019). The phenomenon of climate change became an evident threat to the nature-based tourism sector with its various Safari Operators in Zimbabwe. Tourism enterprises, such as Safari Operators, are not able to avert thisphenomenon from happening and are challenged with the complex and multidimensional natureof this global driver of change. Zimbabwe, as a country with a low-income level and lack of political stability, is expected to be more vulnerable and less resilient (Dube & Nhamo, 2018).Research which is centred around capacity of resilience of Safari Operators as individuals within a socio-ecological system (SES) against the effects of climate change is relevant in overcoming the common lack of understanding.

This research aimed to explore the capacity of resilience of Safari Operators in nature-based tourism, to adapt to the impacts of climate change in three main tourism areas in Zimbabwe: Victoria Falls National Park, Zambezi

National Park and Hwange National Park. Specifically,it investigates the impacts of the phenomenon in question on Safari Operators, the requirementsof a resilient system incorporated in the three cases, emphasising on the dimensions ofpersistence (vulnerability) and adaptability/preparedness as well as the impacts of the system specific influences of Safari Operators, focusing on economic and political factors.

Literature review

The available literature on the concept of vulnerability suggests a close alignment to the conceptof resilience (Adger,2006; Scheyvens & Momsen, 2008; Proag, 2014). The terms should not betreated as synonyms, however research implies common parameters between both concepts, such as the changes experienced by the SES, responsiveness, and adaptive capacity. Both concepts coexist and are constantly in a state of change, therefore they are inseparably linked to each other (Scheyvens & Momsen, 2008). The concept of vulnerability is therefore importantto consider within the context of the research as it is significant for the definition of resilience as well as determining the resilience capacity of the SES in focus. The systems whoseresponsiveness to the impacts of climate change and its resilience capacity is focused on, are the three nature-based tourism sides, perceived as interrelated SES's.

The concept of resilience already emerged in the 60's, with Holling (1973) revolutionising thisnew field of research in 1973 (Holling, 1973). Since then, literature comprises of multiple perspectives, whereas three of the most common ones are engineering resilience, ecological resilience as well as evolutionary resilience (socio-ecological resilience). Engineering resilience defines resilience as one balanced state of being, measuring it by analysing the resistance to a disruption and the pace of returning to this one balanced state of being (Holling, 1996; Folke, 2006). Ecological resilience takes multiple balanced states of being into account.Here resilience is measured by analysing the capacity to withstand a disruption until adapting to a new balanced state of being (Adger et al., 2003). With this, the question rises 'what is an ideal and desired balance state of being for a system when operating in a complex and dynamicenvironment such as the nature-based tourism industry?', what might be socially desirable is undesirable ecologically for example. On the contrary, evolutionary resilience often also referred to as socio-ecological resilience differentiates itself from earlier introduced perspectives (Davoudi, 2012; Folke et al., 2010; Carpenter, Westley & Turner, 2005). Here it is assumed that a balanced state of being is simply an illusion as all components of a SES are continuously exposed to change, which necessitates constant adaptation, transformability, andinnovation within the system. Within the framework of the study, resilience is defined as the ability to predict and withstand disruptions (climate change), to reorganize itself with essential functions, structures, identities being retained and where room is given for innovation and transformability to

Overview of characteristics on resilience

	4 Dimensions			
Davoudi, Brooks and Mehmood, 2013	① Transformability	② Persistence	③ Adaptability	④ Preparedness
Hartman, 2018		Condition 1	Condition 2; Condition 3; Condition 6	Condition 4 Condition 5

Source: Author

Figure 1 Overview of characteristics on resilience

reach a new perhaps greater balanced state.

Within resilience thinking it is essential to be explicit about 'resilience of what' and 'resilienceto what' (Sellberg, Wilkinson & Peterson, 2015; Carpenter et al., 2001). The resilience of whatwithin this research concerns the Safari Operators. Contrary of previous studies conducted in this field, where the focus was mainly on resilience of destinations, this study emphasises the need to study the capacity of resilience on the level of individuals. Over the past years, severalresearchers have attempted to establish the characteristics that create a resilient system (Biggs,Schlüter & Schoon, 2015; Djalante, Holley & Thomalla 2011; Folke, 2016; Davoudi, Brooks & Mehmood, 2013; Hartman, 2016). Research mostly focused on these characteristics from a destination or larger systems point of view. The characteristics that are argued to build or enhance resilience can also measure the capacity of a system to be resilient to a specific change.Davoudi, Brooks and Mehmood (2013), created a four-dimensional framework of the aspects that build resilience. According to the researcher's resilience is develop taking into consideration the four dimensions of persistence (being robust), preparedness (learning capacity), transformability (being innovative) and lastly adaptability (being flexible). The dimension that was additionally

included was preparedness, claiming that within a multidimensional adaptive socio-ecological system, to enlarge the capacity of resilience a system is dependable on its learning capacity. The authors further acknowledged the internationality of human action & intervention within this dimension, a first beginning of recognizing traits of an individual. Even though numerous researchers have attempted to illustrate the characteristics of resilience, showcasing a great variety of opinions, one characteristic is a constant, adaptation or referred to as adaptive capacity. Hartman (2018) has accumulated key findings within the literature to introduce a set of six key conditions to operationalizethis mainly theoretical concept. Here yet again adestination point of view was adopted. The four-dimensionalframework of Davoudi, Brooks and Mehmood (2013), can be applied within the six key conditions Hartman (2018) describes. The approach of Hartman (2018) appears to be a more practical one and will be considered within the instrumentdesign. Nevertheless, the leading theoretical framework of the study is the four-dimensional framework for resilience building (Davoudi, Brooks & Mehmood, 2013).

Methodology

A multiple case study approach was utilized, seekingto research common parameters instead of solely comparing case results. Online semi structure interviews represent the data gathering method. By snowball sampling respondents were recruited to takepart in the study and nine (9) participants divided amongst the three study areas in focus took part.Responses were analysed using primarily deductive coding, establishing strong linkages to the theoretical framework guiding the study. The interviews were conducted with some constraints, of performing themonline during the current Covid-19 pandemic.

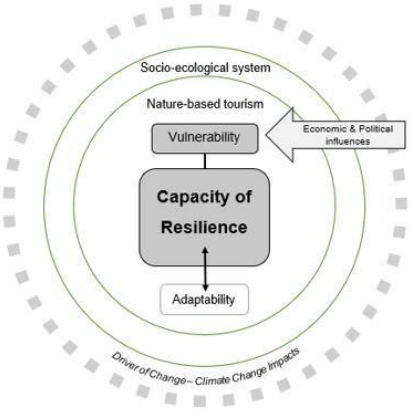

Figure 2 Conceptual Framework

This tempered the research results as the sample was in a mindset of crisis management. Furthermore, as commonly experienced when conducting a case study approach a lack of generalisability for all areas of the tourism industry based on the focused scope of the researchis present. Nevertheless, the goal of conducting a case study approach is never to accomplish generalizability but rather to add a case perspective to the available literature.

Results and discussions

Despite the differences in case study areas, numerous common parameters among the threecases were identified. The most prominent finding influencing the overall requirements studiedas well as all dimensions in focus is the human dimension. These distinct factors of theindividual in focus such as cultural background, history as well as personality, reveal animmersive short come in resilience literature. The findings of the research clearly showcase the significance of this new dimension. Despite the fact that the added dimension of preparednesshints towards these human actions which should be considered (Davoudi, Brooks & Mehmood,2013), the researcher shares the opinion that this factor does not justify the magnitude of influence it has on the capacity of resilience towards driving forces. It is further argued that inspite of other shortcomings within the requirements which build resilience, the humandimension can overcome these to a certain extent and serves as an essential dimension. Despite the results indicating low levels of certain requirements that build resilience, the case of Safari Operators shows a generally strong level of resilience towards the impacts of climate change. Despite the minor shifts within the system, the factors of economic and

political nature have atremendous impact on the responsiveness to change of the Safari Operators in question.Regrettably counteracting these issues are farfetched aspirations from the participants. Thefindings, showcase the added value of facilitating a case specific research within the wide fieldof resilience studies solely focusing on larger system approaches. These findings provide a morein-depth inside into the factors influencing, creating and developing the various requirementsthat build a resilient system.

Conclusion

This research makes a conceptual contribution as the multiple case study clearly highlighted the importance of a human dimension within resilience literature which should be continuously incorporated in conceptual frameworks when researching parts or the general capacity of
resilience towards a driver of change. Additionally, a contribution to the understanding of the perspective of an individual within resilience literature is provided. In the literature a mainly larger system perspective approach, such as focusing on tourism destinations as systems was adopted. Therefore, the study contributes to existing literature in showing a specific case perspective which can be generalised to a certain extent to a wider context. Furthermore, it contributes to the awareness as well as perception within the African context of the driving force in focus, climate change. Here the phenomenon is largely disregarded as an imminent threat. The participants felt empowered and heard during the data gathering process which supports future policymaking processes and strategy formulation. This awareness as well as new understanding will contribute to the industries knowledge database, particularly the nature-based tourism sector to create further holistic perspectives of the issue as well as add to the generalisability of the available concepts within this field.

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Session 4.2. Responsibility

1. Facilitating Participatory Approaches To Sustainable Tourism Development

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Introduction

This study aims to provide an understanding of facilitative practice in sustainable tourism development (STD). Literature in the field employs the concept of facilitation with regard to a responsibility that governments are charged with (Chili & Xulu, 2015; Ruhanen et al., 2015; Shone et al., 2016) or a task that non-governmental organizations and businesses take on (Baniya et al., 2019; Eyisi et al., 2021). To governments, it is governance and public policy that lend a facilitating capacity (Dredge & Whitford, 2011; Whitford, 2009), while in businesses context, approaches such as Corporate Social Responsibility (Dwyer & Lund-Durlacher, 2018) can facilitate the engagement of stakeholders for STD (Timur & Getz, 2009). These uses of facilitation have a degree of anonymity and disembodiment in common and convey the sense that entities or organizations rather than people assume roles and responsibilities in participatory tourism development processes. In the field of design, researchers have argued that approaches to participatory practice are always inherently linked to the person facilitating them (Akama, 2015; Light, 2010) and that "practitioners must never 'scrub' themselves out" (Akama & Prendiville, 2013, p. 32) from happenings in participatory environments. Therefore, this study draws attention to the tourism researcher as a facilitator of STD and encourages reflexivity on the dynamics between researcher and their methods.

Literature Review

Facilitating participatory processes in STD has been a responsibility that—next to political or economic entities—tourism researchers have been taking on. The works of Liburd et al. (2020), Duedahl (2020), and Ren et al. (2021) are examples of how collaborative and interventionist orientations leverage "the participatory nature of communicative interaction between people" (Heape & Liburd, 2018, p. 239) for STD. Although complex stakeholder collaborations and participatory approaches neither initiate themselves nor unfold on their own, there is little trace of researchers as facilitators and their entanglements with participatory spaces. As Hall (2004) and Tribe (2006) have identified and Ateljevic et al. (2005) encouraged us to do otherwise, the roles of researchers remain largely hidden.

Tourism researchers have been calling out a culture of caution around reflexivity and beware not to slip into states of 'self-indulgence' (Ateljevic et al., 2005; Cohen, 2013; Crossley, 2021) when presencing themselves in their research. They refrain from being too revealing about their own subjectivity, positionality, and practice (Cohen, 2013; Crossley, 2021; Hall, 2004; Khoo- Lattimore et al., 2019). At the same time, there's been an acknowledgement of the value of diverse ways of knowing of researcher and participants (Cohen, 2013; Kato, 2019; Ren et al., 2021) as well as embodiment (Ateljevic et al., 2005; Feighery, 2006; Swain, 2004), emotion (Ali, 2011; Crossley, 2021; Pocock, 2015), and moment-to-moment interaction (Heape & Liburd, 2018) in tourism research. These are critical points of reflexivity when working with others.

A view to design research where the practice of the facilitator has long been of interest (Aguirre et al., 2017; Lee, 2008; Light, 2010) provides an alternative lens to considering the tourism researcher's role in participatory approaches to STD. This offers an opportunity to exercise reflexivity with a view to facilitative practice and participatory methods. In design context, facilitation has been defined as "the art of moving people through processes to agreed-upon objectives in a manner that encourages participation, ownership and creativity from all" (Sibbet cited in Light & Akama, 2012, p. 62). More recently, design researchers have referred to facilitation as a practice of mediation (Mosleh & Larsen, 2020) or an act of participatory orchestration as the facilitator

employs different methods for engagement (Aguirre et al., 2017). On the relation between the facilitator and their ways of working, Light & Akama (2012) have argued that "we cannot know participative methods without the person or people enacting them" (p. 61), pointing to a unique entanglement of the facilitator with the space for participation. Facilitation becomes a mode of participation (Salmi & Mattelmäki, 2019) in development itself and is, at once, a responsibility towards those involved.

Methodology

Bridging collaborative design (co-design) as known from the Scandinavian tradition with principles of STD (Duedahl, 2020), tourism co-design is an emergent participatory methodology in tourism research that aims at "transformational change and an unfolding of tourism's contribution not to itself [..] but to a better worldmaking with others" (Liburd et al., 2020, p. 2). This is done by employing design methods that leverage interactions and interrelations between people through exploring, revealing, and addressing issues and nuances in STD processes (ibid.). Whitham et al. (2019) state that collaborative design research practice as such seeks "new ways of connecting people to shared and individual futures" (p. 3), enabled through facilitative practice and participatory methods. In order to bring these entanglements to attention, reflexive accounts relating to responsibilities in a participatory research project with a Danish culture festival and teaching tourism higher education in Denmark will bepresented.

Results & Discussion

The issue with facilitative practice is that it is difficult to fit into neatly predetermined roles and not easily taught or passed on. One has to experience it and experiment with it in order to become aware of the roles and responsibilities that it entails. During my own experiences of and experiments with facilitation in tourism co-design, I encountered situations in which I began to understand that methods don't exist in vacuum but build on reciprocal trust, that it is not only possible but necessary to challenge what we (think we) know, and how tourism intersects with participants' lives.

Cultivating presence and trust

Conducting fieldwork on the social dimension of STD at a Danish culture festival, I developed a method that allowed participants to comment on the meanings and values of volunteering in writing. My attention rested on facilitating the method, and I was frustrated to notice how, despite several impromptu iterations, the volunteers weren't interested. Only when a volunteer suggested that I stop "PR-ing my project" did I start engaging with the volunteer community. Writing was supposed to overcome language barriers but instead served to separate me from the community. Once I had reoriented my focus towards engagement, I was able to recognize the "safe space" that my method was probing into and adjust my mode of inquiry towards conversation. This helped overcome a moment of "reciprocal mistrust" in STD (Timur & Getz, 2009, p. 221) and instead establish a deeper relating that a pre-designed method alone couldn't.

Challenging what is taken for granted

To embrace designerly exploration and experimentation as integral aspects of tourism codesign, my co-teacher and I took students on an alternative tour of the university town. Our intention was to unpack the micro-details of a tourist experience of the town, and so the experiment started with giving students abstract themes such as "tall", "purple", or "inbetween". We asked them to interpret their theme, associate it with a location, and facilitate a small experiment in relation to it. The whole method was an act of reappraising the known as the unknown (Heape & Liburd, 2018) by means of discovery, but equally and unexpectedly, it allowed us to rethink what it means to be learning together and facilitate learning in higher education. Already having established a "safe space" in class, we were able to challenge each other to alternative "ways of being, knowing and doing in tourism" (Boluk et al., 2019, p. 849).

Considering facilitation as 'being with'

In both contexts, facilitative practice enabled encounters with knowledges that were culturally, geographically, generationally, and in more ways diverse. These knowledges surface through, participatory methods designed and facilitated by facilitators, us, but these methods are not about us. They are with us. And with the participants who are agents of their everyday lives that tourism intersects with. Once I realized this, I began attuning to other ways of knowing and being in the world that exceeded what I individually could imagine. Alternative tourism futures can then be built by and with "ordinary people in open and serendipitous ways, harnessing their experiences, knowledge, relationships and social capital and inviting inventiveness to tackle seemingly

insurmountable problems together" (Akama, 2015, p. 182) – which is what participation for development of desirable tourism futures is about.

Conclusions

In the end, "participation is not a simple matter of faith but a complex issue involving different ideological beliefs, political forces, administrative arrangements and varying perceptions of what is possible" (Midgley et al., 1986, p. ix). Facilitative practice is responsible for bringing them into play in a safe space by means of participatory methods where those involved can be relentlessly present, tinker (Ren, 2021) with the unknown, but also bring to the table what they already do know. Facilitating participatory approaches to STD requires a keen degree of reflexivity to get entangled in and, at times, disentangle from the unforeseeable unfoldings of participation. In that setting, it is the responsibility of the tourism researcher to step and invite into a space of possibilities (Heape & Liburd, 2018) where more sustainable and desirable futures are negotiated, created, and rehearsed in dialogue.

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2. Memorable nature experiences of future tourists – a study based on visualized and written material collected from Finnish adolescents

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Introduction

While opportunities to connect with nature in everyday life have decreased in urbanized societies, natural settings have become increasingly commodified and marketized spaces for nature-based tourism (Chen & Prebensen, 2017). The COVID-19 pandemic has boosted the long-standing trend of outdoor recreation popularity in many countries including Finland (Metsähallitus, 2021). Meanwhile, younger generations' decreasing contact with nature has raised concerns. In urbanized societies, young people are living increasingly sedentary and technologically centred lives (Soga & Gaston, 2016). In particular, Kaplan and Kaplan (2002) have described the adolescent years as a "time out" in people's preference for the natural world.

Recent studies have indicated the benefits of nature on our psychological, physical, and social well-being and health. Interacting with nature increases self-esteem and mood, relieves stress, and improves the ability to concentrate and perform mentally challenging tasks (Bratman et al.,2015; McMahan & Estes, 2015). Natural settings encourage exercise (Shanahan et al., 2016), and exposure to a diverse microbiota enhances immune regulation (Haahtela, 2019). Shared nature experiences strengthen social bonds and promote social cohesion (Jennings & Bamkole,2019). Positive nature experiences also help to build an empathetic relationship with nature andpromote environmentally responsible behavior (Rosa & Collado, 2019).

To facilitate memorable nature experiences to future tourists, it is important to understand howyoung people experience being in nature. Understanding their perceptions of human-nature- relationships may also help to create responsible practices and develop desirable tourism futures. In this study, we examine how adolescents describe their memorable nature experiences and what kinds of well-being effects they associate with these experiences. The study is basedon visualizations and writings created by 15–16 years-old Finnish participants (N=21).

Literature review

Experience in nature has been defined in several ways, from general “time to spent in natural areas” to more specific descriptions such as the intentional and non-intentional “person-natureinteraction”, “self-directed and other-directed” interaction, or “consumptive, mechanized, and appreciative” activities in natural environments (Rosa & Collado, 2019, p. 2). Research has indicated that subjective experiences in nature are not simply positive or negative but may include different evaluations of the elements constituting the experience and meaning-making between personal and social aspects of the experience (e.g., Beery & Lekies, 2021). Research of lived experiences draws from the phenomenological philosophy emphasizing the value of persons’ subjective accounts of their lives. Phenomenology encourages researchers to an interpretative, discovery approach towards these descriptions (e.g., Bannon, 2016). Phenomenological analysis aims to discover the essential meaning of an experience by responding to questions: *what* was experienced and *how* it was experienced (e.g., Lindseth & Norberg, 2004; Neubauer et al., 2019)?

Verbalizing inner experiences may be challenging. Using different visual means in the material collection is beneficial for concretizing abstract meanings and non-verbal side of the experience. Visualization is a participant-driven and an inclusive method well-suited to conduct research among young people. Images created by participants work as starting points for writtendescriptions of the experience. (Martikainen & Hakokõngäs, 2022.) Drawing methodology has also been used in tourism research to understand peoples’ impressions and perceptions of persons, places or things encountered or imagined in tourism (Hunter, 2011).

Methodology

The material consists of different visualizations (drawings, paintings, photographs and collages)and writings in which the 15–16 years-old participants (N=21) depict their memorable nature experiences. In the writings, the participants were asked to describe the situation of the picture, its’ effects on their well-being and mood, and why do they like to/not like to spend time in nature. The data was collected from pupils in two art-oriented classes in a secondary school inthe city of Lahti, Finland, in spring 2020. The participants gave their written consent to voluntary take part in the research. The data was analysed using hermeneutic phenomenological analysis in which the visualizations and writings were analyzed as a single meaning unit. The similarities and differences between individuals’ visualizations and writings guided grouping the results based on the contents of memorable nature experiences and their well-being effects.

Results

Participants provided a rich collection of depictions of memorable nature experiences. All participants wrote that they prefer to spend time in natural settings, and most of them depictedpositive nature experiences in images. Half of these experiences had taken place in their nearbynatural settings, and half during travels or trips at summer cottages, elsewhere in Finland or abroad. The participants typically described forest and aquatic environments (e.g., lakes, shores) while nature experiences abroad were located in mountainous environments that cannotbe found in Finland (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Painting of a sunset in mountains (Participant 9).

Based on the findings, memorable nature experiences arise in a wide range of situations from everyday life to travels far away. Memorable experiences arise while having adventures in natural settings – being in novel environments, exceeding one's own limits and overcoming difficulties. Meanwhile, some adolescents described how they encountered small wonders of nature in their daily lives and used all senses to observe them.

The beauty of nature was a common theme of memorable nature experiences. The images oftenhighlighted the visual aspect of the experience by depicting vast, harmonious landscapes unfolding from the viewer's perspective. Small details of nature, such as flowers, were also included in the visualizations. Some adolescents depicted magical, fascinating and extraordinary moments in nature (Figure 1). These experiences can be very meaningful and include feelings of connectedness to a broader reality.

The sunsets were stunning every day, but this was absolutely the greatest. When the sun set, I had a very amazing feeling. During the day, I had done many things, for example I had been skiing downhill, but in the evening my mood calmed down. I did not focus on anything else thanthe sky. I almost had a nostalgic feeling, and I felt super happy. (Participant 9)

Images and writings also demonstrated adolescents' respect towards and willingness to protectnature. Some participants described their experiences of feeling themselves small in nature or being at the mercy of nature. Spending time in natural settings helped them to put difficult issues of their lives in perspective and reminded them that humans are not at the center of the world.

Almost all participants highlighted the effects of nature on their well-being. The most commonthemes of the memorable nature experiences were calming down, relieving stress and uplifted moods. Natural environments enabled not only sharing happy moments with close people, butalso retreating from everyday life and its social interactions and expectations. Nature served both as a refuge and as a source of recreation for adolescents.

It was a lovely snowy and sunny day. I walked a lot and photographed interesting sites. I felt very lively and I was in a good mood while breathing fresh air. The weeks before the vacationhad gone bad so nature helped me to restore strength and cheer up. (Participant 20)

Conclusions

Based on the findings, participants of this study have positive experiences of nature. They recognize psychological, physical and social well-being benefits and often refer to them when justifying why they like to spend time in natural settings. Positive memorable experiences encourage adolescents to continue interacting with nature and gaining well-being benefits.

The findings can be used in facilitating memorable nature experiences for future tourists. In general, however, there is a greater decline in young people's connection with nature than thereis among the participants of this study. As memorable nature experiences arise in a wide rangeof situations, it is important to provide possibilities for various kinds of experiences taking intoaccount tourists' previous experiences and relationships with nature. Visualization methodology could be one of the participatory approaches used in co-creating and reproducing memorable tourism experiences. Offering young people memorable nature experiences provides one means of increasing empathetic relationship with nature – and promoting responsible behavior and more sustainable tourism futures.

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3. Literature review: Responsibility in the Tourism Sharing Economy

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Introduction

The development of the digital platforms and tourism trends highlighting locality have contributed to the strong development of the sharing economy in the tourism sector. The original sharing economy approach was based on the idea of resource efficiency, i.e. the allocation of additional resources to those in need (Frenken & Schor 2017; Koopman et al. 2015; Lahti-Selosmaa 2013; Botsman & Rogers 2010) and it has partly been transformed intoa commercially profit-making, platform-mediated business. The increasing sharing economy has brought new service providers, challenged the competitive situation in the sector, as wellas the regulation of the traditional hospitality business, and opened the discussions in the areas of the corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Etter et al. 2019). While a stream of literature has developed around the responsibilities of tourism sharing economy stakeholders, there is a lack of a review of the literature of this emergent field.

The phenomenon of the sharing economy has been described as a disruptive because it has changed the accustomed social and economic order. At a very low threshold, private consumers can act as service providers without setting up a business, and use the digital platform provided by a large global company as a marketing and sales channel (Guttentag, 2015; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2015) and compete with more traditional actors in value creation. The platforms have been considered to be settling in the grey area of the law and it has been challenging, for example, to apply the obligations imposed on traditional companies in contractual relations between users. This has been considered to bring an unfair competitive advantage to theplatforms (Etter, Fieseler, & Whelan, 2019; Päläs, 2019; Srnicek, 2017).

In tourism the sharing economy has expanded the range of stakeholders in the sector. Individuals have become part of the field of tourism activity providers and, for example, hosting agencies and construction companies have become relevant tourism stakeholders. In addition, completely new kinds of companies operating between sharing economy platformsand private individuals have been included offering various services, e.g. “key holders”.

The mainstreaming of the operating model typical of sharing economy platforms has sparkeda wide-ranging debate on corporate social responsibility, CSR, of the platforms (Etter, Fieseler & Whelan, 2019). In addition to the basic actors of the sharing economy – *platform company, service/resource provider and the user* – traditional companies and legislators, the phenomenon also affects other businesses related to the activity, as well as other environments, such as neighbours and other residents of the region. The phenomenon challenging

traditional operating models and the diverse range of actors in the tourism sector have created new information needs for companies, legislators and authorities: how tourism, and in particular sharing economy-based tourism, is managed and controlled responsibly.Over the past ten years, the sharing economy has been researched quite a lot, especially in terms of how it challenges traditional economic thinking, for example, with its concepts of ownership (Hakkarainen & Jutila, 2017; Lahti & Selosmaa, 2013; Cheng, 2016). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been researched since the 1960s (Crane & Matten & Spence, 2008) and sustainability since the 1980s. In tourism research, this discussion began in the early 2000 (e.g. Garcia-Rosell, 2017), and the sustainable development of the sharing economy has been studied in recent years (e.g. Wang & Ho, 2017; Nica & Potcovaru, 2015).

Corporate social responsibility research in the context of tourism, on the other hand, is stillthin. There has been little research into how social responsibility is realized in the tourism sharing economy and, in particular, in the company that provides a platform for sharing. Mostly, both legislators and research have focused on resolving demarcation and the rules of the game within the framework of current legislation and economic conception (e.g. Hakkarainen & Jutila, 2017). Recently, however, the interest of social responsibility researchers in the sharing economy and its platforms has also increased (Etter et al., 2019), one strong opening can also be seen in the Journal of Business Ethic's special issue on social responsibility in the sharing economy (2019).

This literature review will be the first article of my dissertation “Is Corporate Social Responsibility Communication Responsible in the Platform Based Sharing Economy of Tourism?” and it will answer to the first sub question: “What is Corporate Social Responsibilityin the Platform Based Sharing Economy of Tourism?”.

Methodology

The previous systematic literature review of the topic was made 2017 by Nuottila, Jutila and Hakkarainen (in Finnish) to find out how the discussion around responsible tourism in sharing economy had developed by 2017. This literature review is repeated as much as possible to see how the discussion has changed since then.

For this systematic literature review (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006; Salminen, 2011) the timeline of the articles was limited from the year 2018 to 2021 and the selections of the articles were made in April and August 2021. Only peer-reviewed articles in English were selected from 6 databases: Scopus, Web of Science, CABI, Ebsco, ProQuest and SAGE.

The wide selection of the databases was justified by the fact that the sharing economy has been researched widely and a more precise database wouldn’t give a full sight to the subject.

The keywords were described in a after-thought method as well. Nuottila, Jutila and Hakkarainen (2017) selected the keywords from the key articles of the phenomenon - **Dredge & Gyimóthy** (2014, 2015), **Belk** (2014) and **Martin** (2016): access-based consumption; access based consumption; connected consumption; peer-to-peer consumption; p2p consumption; p- 2-p consumption; p-to-p consumption; peer-to-peer economy: p2p economy; p-2-p economy; p-to-p economy; collaborative consumption; sharing consumption; sharing economy; collaborative economy.

The search gave all-together 3244 findings. The result being so wide, a closer look to the data was needed. When comparing the result with the previous literature review, it is clear that the phenomenon of sharing economy has increased enormously: both in size and to the multiple industries: a major portion of the data was about crowdfunding or transportation (people or products). To target the view to the tourism, articles purely concentrating in other forms of the sharing economy are removed.

After a long and detailed work – all articles were first evaluated by their title in Mendeley, ifthe content was not clear by it, then the abstract was read (104 articles remained) and finally83 articles (see attachment) were selected to this literature review to represent the discussionof the responsibility of the tourism sharing economy.

The articles selected were published by 65 journals representing the academic discussion from tourism research to taxation and from management to security policy.

Results and argumentation

To evaluate the tendency of the discussion articles were categorized by our research subjects and the 5 dimensions of responsibility added with discrimination, work conditions, ethics and moral were used.

The chosen articles landed to these categories as show in the Table 1. Some of the articles represented multiple categories – that's why the sum of the hits doesn't match to the sum of the articles from the data.

	Mentions	% of 83
Corporate Social Responsibility, CSR	16	19 %
Legitimacy, law, legal	35	42 %
Social Responsibility	19	23 %
Cultural Responsibility	7	8 %
Economical Responsibility	14	17 %
Ecological Responsibility	11	13 %
Political Responsibility	9	11 %
Discrimination	7	8 %
Work conditions	10	12 %
Ethics, moral	12	14 %

Table 1

Preliminary findings

When looking at the chosen articles in the themes our research project the following findings were first detected.

Legitimacy, law or legal was mentioned in 35 articles in the research material forming the second biggest area of discussion in this research material. 6 of these were in tourism journals and 3 in law journals; and 5 of these 35 articles were solely from the legal point of view.

Trending issue in the legal articles of tourism sharing economy was local versus global (e.g. Uzunca B., Rigtering J. & Ozcan P., 2018). This subject from the legal point of view was discussed equally within different fields of responsibility (e.g. Fors P., Inutsuka Y., Majima T. et al., 2021), discrimination (Morell M. & Espelt R., 2019), work conditions (e.g. Barzilay A. 2019) and ethics and moral (e.g. Sandoval M., 2020).

16 articles of the research material were about corporate social responsibility/ CSR. Only 4 of them represented tourism journals and 6 were only of CSR – not any other of our subjects.In CSR articles couple of themes were trending: could CSR affect to the brand (e.g. Hu J., Liu Y., Yuen T. et al., 2019), discrimination (e.g. Ameri M., Rogers S. & Schur L., 2020), CSR and value creation (e.g. Phi G. &Dredge D., 2019) and platform responsibility (e.g. Newlands G. & Lutz C., 2020).

Conclusions

Since the previous literature review made 2017 things have changed quite a lot. Sharing economy has grown, more articles were made of sharing economy, they had spread to multiple areas of interest and also to various fields of economy. Sharing economy articles of tourismalso had tripled their volume in 3 years compared to the number of articles written until 2017. But the number of articles strictly to the subject of our research remained almost the same – only the timeline was totally different.

The research subjects – corporate social responsibility and legal issues of tourism sharing economy - were not found from the articles without assisting searching key words: social, cultural, economic, ecological, political responsibility, discrimination, and work conditions and ethics and moral. None of the assisting keywords represented the article alone: responsibility themes were merged together as well as discrimination and work conditions with law issues and ethics and moral with law themes and corporate social responsibility.

The discussion seems to be fractured: subject interests multiple fields but the concepts are still unstable; key articles try to cover everything in the discussion, but there is still lack of the responsibility discussion, while sustainability has stabilized its place.

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4. Hospitality in online service encounters in tourism, case Finnish Lapland

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Over the last few decades, advances in digital technologies have drastically influenced hospitality and tourism encounters. The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated the transformation of digital services. For example, augmented reality and virtual reality mediateand deliver multisensory experiences that may form part of the customer's digital journey before, during, and after the trip. The goal of this study is to explore practices of hospitality, empathy, and value creation in digital services in the Lappish destinations. Finnish Lapland offers an interesting example of a region with a well-established, highly developed, and innovative tourism industry.

First, data were collected through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions with various agents in tourism, such as destination management organizations and tourism entrepreneurs. After the current state analysis, pilot workshops are organized on two user behaviour research pilots that focus on the digital user experience. The technologies are eye- tracking, which measures the users' eye movements, and a heatmap tool, such as Hotjar, which shows the users' behaviour on a web page. In the workshops, data is to be collected on the practices of hospitality, empathy and value creation in digital service encounters.

The research results provide tourism developers and operators in Lapland with betterpossibilities to respond to the needs and challenges of the changing digital operating environment caused by accelerating digitalisation, globalization, and changes in customer behaviour. The study is part of the EU-funded project (ERDF) "eHospitality - Empathy andValue Creation in Digital Service Encounters in Tourism".

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Session 4.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development

1. The influence of a sustainability programme in tourism enterprises

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Introduction

The global environmental crisis and the growing awareness of the impacts of tourism on planetary wellbeing have affected tourism and its relationship with sustainability significantly.The requests for tourism to become more sustainable have increased and in many locations, theindustry is taking steps to answer to these requests. In Finland, one of the most visible manifestations of this change is the Sustainable Travel Finland (STF) program launched in 2019by Visit Finland, which is the national tourism promotion organization in Finland. The aim of the new program is to turn Finland into a role model as a sustainable travel destination, and according to Visit Finland, the STF program supports Finland's commitment to Sustainable Development Goals. The program includes a sustainable development path for tourism enterprises with the objective of them gaining a STF certificate (Sustainable Travel Finland label, n.d.).

Completing the path requires, with certain exceptions, that the enterprise attains a sustainabilitycertificate from a third party, which means that the STF certificate acts more as an umbrella certificate than an audited, independent certificate. If the program succeeds in its objectives, itwill, for sure, bring huge marketing potential for Finland as a travel destination. Less can be predicted about the program's influence on increasing sustainability in practice, even though this aspect is extremely topical from the viewpoint of the global environmental crisis. Tourismcontributes heavily to, for example, global environmental change and loss of biodiversity, thusit is of great importance that the certificate would have strong practical implications such as reinforcement of sustainability.

In general, sustainability certification in tourism has two dimensions; they can serve the enterprises and help and advise them in becoming more sustainable, or they can assist the tourists in making informed choices to buy sustainable services and products (Geerts et al., 2014; Penz et al., 2017). However, the real (or concrete) impacts of the certificates have been questioned, both in terms of increasing sustainability (see Font & Harris, 2004; Gkoumas, 2019), and in relation to the decision-making of customers (Dunk et al., 2016, Gkoumas, 2019;Karlsson & Dolnicar, 2016). Their influence to increasing sustainability has not been studied much, thus there is need for research assessing sustainability programs and certificates more thoroughly.

This setting forms the frame for our study where we aim to assess the practical implications oftourism certificates at the enterprise level. The assessment has two dimensions. Firstly, we examine the umbrella certificate (STF program) and its implications, and secondly, since STF requires the attainment of an audited certificate, we examine the impacts of these audited certificates on the practicalities of the tourism enterprises. With these examinations, we aim tofind answers to our research question: What is the role of sustainability certificates in tourism in changing enterprise level action, and thus the whole industry, more sustainable?

Short literature review

As the so-called hard laws, legally binding laws and directives have been missing in tourism, voluntary sustainability certification can be useful tool to improve sustainability in the industry(Jarvis et al., 2010; Graci ja Dodds, 2015; Gössling & Buckley, 2016). However, sustainabilitycertification schemes do not usually handle sustainability comprehensively but focus on, for example, only environmental issues (Tepelus & Córdoba, 2005; Pröbstl & Müller, 2012; Graci& Dodds, 2015). Certification schemes can help enterprises to find best practices for reducing tourism footprint (Pröbstl & Müller, 2012; Geerts 2014; Graci & Dodds, 2015), but also the term "greenwashing" has often been linked to certification programs, and their trustworthinesshas been challenged (Graci & Dodds, 2015). It seems that despite the large number ofsustainability certification available (Pröbstl & Muller, 2012, 45; Graci & Dodds, 2015), research on how certification affect enterprises' sustainability actions has been scarce. In our study, we aim to contribute to sustainability certification research from the perspective of tourism enterprises, and open new approaches to the discussion on their influence and role in pursuing the Sustainable Development Goals.

Methodology

To examine the impacts of sustainability certification, we decided to approach the topic from the tourism enterprises' perspective and gather data through which we can access and evaluatethe enterprises' observations

and experiences of the certification scheme. Thus, thematic semi-structured interview was chosen as a method for data collection. To gain data, tourism enterprises that have recently gained the STF certificate were interviewed in a region that consists of several destinations, but which utilizes a regional tourism brand for marketing. Sincethe STF program is rather new, only a limited number of enterprises have completed the whole program and it was possible to contact all these enterprises. However, not all were willing to beinterviewed, thus our data consists of 16 interviews (2/3 of the enterprises with STF certificate).The interviews were realized in fall 2021, face-to-face or via phone or Teams call. The recorded interviews were transcribed and analyzed using qualitative content analysis. The analysis is still in progress, thus the results presented in this abstract are preliminary.

Results

Surprisingly, all the 16 enterprises stated that the STF program had had very limited influenceon the practices or the culture at the enterprise. The most remarkable impact seemed to be the increased documentation of the enterprises' sustainability actions. However, as most of the interviewed enterprises had also completed the third-party certificate, it was difficult for them to separate the influence of the STF program and the other certificate. One fourth of the enterprises mentioned that the increased documentation of activities and objectives had helpedthem to see and realize what kind of improvements should take place to increase sustainability. In addition, several enterprises described that being in the program had made them consider and search for justification for their activities and (sustainability) choices more actively. The program and the certificate(s) have also reinforced the understanding and belief that the (currentand previous) work for sustainability has value and is important.

Nonetheless, especially those certificates that focus on ecological sustainability, seemed to haveimpacted the enterprises environmental actions positively. The STF program, on the other hand,was praised for the inclusion of not just ecological but also social and cultural sustainability, asthese are not often covered in the audited certificates. This may be an important aspect also for the consideration of the SDGs. In addition, the positive outcomes of the program and the certificates included improved communication about sustainability to not only customers but also among collaborators and networks. This had led to some sustainability actions among the collaborators.

Conclusions

Our preliminary results indicate that the influence of the STF program on the sustainability of tourism sector in Finland is currently limited. It has, nonetheless, impacted the tourism entrepreneurs' understanding about sustainability and modified their cooperative relationships.These findings support the previous literature on the absence of concrete results and practical implications. One of the main advancements may be the increased ambition towards sustainability, and the consideration of all the aspects of sustainability. The last-mentioned aspects may have further implications that become visible much later and have more relevancein relation to Sustainable Development Goals. Thus, the research on the potential of the programs like the STF should continue.

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2. Stakeholder dialogue and relationship management in the Swedish tourism industry

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Introduction
Sustainable development and Agenda 2030 have become major focus for destination marketing or management organisations (DMOs) (Hall, 2019). To progress towards sustainability, DMOs and tourism companies use various methods, models and tools, such as certifications, labels, monitoring systems and standards (Tillväxtverket, 2019), as well as sustainability reporting and stakeholder dialogue (Persic et al, 2013). Dialogue and collaboration are today crucial aspects of DMOs sustainability work on national and regional levels. DMOs can impact, engage and inspire actors in the tourism industry in a sustainable direction, but not in isolation.

Stakeholder dialogue play a central role when it comes to identifying and following up on expectations, create feedback mechanisms to evaluate activities, and generate support for initiatives. Even though it has been argued that effective stakeholder participation is crucial to realise sustainable tourism, there is limited clarity on how to get there (Waligo, Clarke & Hawkins, 2013). This study aims to explore aspects of stakeholder participation, namely stakeholder dialogue and relationship management in the Swedish tourism industry. This is done through a case study of a Swedish DMO, and an interview study of its key stakeholders.

Literature review
In a corporate context, stakeholder dialogue is depicted as central in developing trust between stakeholders and the company (Heikkinen, Kujala & Lehtimäki, 2013). Stakeholder relations can, moreover, benefit greatly from an open and transparent dialogue process (ibid). Trusting and open relationships can also have indirect long-term effects when it comes to how companies and stakeholders solve issues and approach problems (Burchell & Cook, 2008). In the context of tourism, dialogue has also been proposed as crucial, especially in relation to knowledge and different ways of knowing (Hall, 2019; Sandercock, 1998).

Stakeholders is commonly defined as any individual or group who can affect or is affected by an organisation's objective (Bellantuono, Pontrandolfo & Scozzi, 2016). In the tourism literature, various stakeholder types are referred to (e.g. Butler, 1999; Getz & Timur, 2005; Hall & Lew, 1998; Markwick, 2000) often merging into six main categories: tourists, local community, industry, government, educational institutions and special interest groups (Waligo et al, 2013). The stakeholders studied in this paper can be outlined as belong to three of these groups, namely government, industry and special interest groups.

Method
23 semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted for the purpose of this study, during August and September 2020. The interviews lasted between 20 and 60 minutes, and were conducted by the author of this paper. Interviewees were key stakeholders of a Swedish national tourism Organisation (NTO), e.g. representatives of Swedish authorities, government offices, state-owned companies, industry organisations, networks and collaborative groups, and regional tourism organisations. The interviewees were selected based on the purpose to arrive at a representative selection in terms of organisational belonging, type of relationship with the NTO, as well as contact point with the NTO (at least two contact people at the NTO). The author of this paper and representatives of the NTO discussed the interviewees before the researcher reached out to suggest interviews. The interview material was analysed following Braun and Clarke's (2006) six phases of thematic analysis.

Preliminary findings
A good relationship is often dependent on knowing each other and working together on a regular basis, as well as a feeling that it is easy to get in contact when needed. A closer relationship and more communication is however also addressed and desired by many interviewees. Many interviewees emphasize that the NTO

creates added value as a knowledge and marketing organisation, through its expertise and know-how in tourism and the hospitality industry as well as in marketing. Several say that they receive support and help from the NTO's knowledge bank, yet there are also requests for more knowledge-building initiatives aimed at the hospitality industry's companies and member organisations, which can be interpreted as a desire for new knowledge transfer skills (Hall, 2019; Sandercock, 1998).

Knowledge and competence correlates with trust in the NTO. Interviewees say that the NTO is good at what they do, have experienced and professional employees, and delivers what they promise. Well-functioning communication, straightforward dialogue and openness are also mentioned as reasons for a high level of trust in the NTO. A reason for lower confidence in the NTO is their limited knowledge of the Swedish tourism and hospitality industry, and of various stakeholders' aims, goals, target groups, strategies, ambitions, products and services. Some raise desires of sitting down and talking unpretentiously with the NTO, and thus creating an understanding of the relationship, each other's organisations, ambitions, assignments and tasks. As such, knowledge is associated with a variety of actors and knowledges (Bavington, 2011; Hall, 2019; Rydin, 2007) as well as increased knowledge and understanding of each other.

Some interviewees have limited knowledge of the sustainability work of the NTO, while others say that the NTO primarily work with sustainability through marketing and campaigns. However, yet others express and give plentiful examples of the NTO's sustainability work. A central wish expressed is that the NTO become more concrete, clear and visionary in its work with societal issues and sustainable development. Many interviewees also express a desire that the NTO take the lead on sustainability issues in the tourism industry, and together with Swedish tourism actors, develop and market sustainable destinations.

Tentative conclusions

This study contributes to previous research on stakeholder participation, stakeholder dialogue and relationship management in the tourism industry, by shedding light on how to move towards sustainable tourism through dialogue and collaboration. Practical implications for DMOs, tourism companies and the tourism industry more generally, include the centrality of dialogue to boost knowledge (Hall, 2019; Sandercock, 1998), both inside the organisation and in the tourism community. Furthermore, by understanding key stakeholders' organisational structures, goals and expectations, DMOs can manage relationships in a more strategic manner, and more effectively impact the tourism industry in a more sustainable direction.

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3. In the quest for biodiversity-respective leadership in sustainable tourism

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Introduction

Biodiversity refers to life in all its manifestations. According to recent estimates, a million species risk extinction within the next decades (IPBES, 2019). As businesses and consumers accelerate biodiversity loss through over-consumption and profit-oriented business models, they must be involved in also developing solutions for the crisis (Diaz, 2019; Dasgupta, 2021).

The global tourism industry is highly dependent on biodiversity. Tourism contributes to environmental change through, e.g., urbanization, habitat loss, and accelerating climate change. At the same time, the tourism industry will likely be among the most impacted economic sectors by such changes (Gössling & Hall, 2006). Nevertheless, in local contexts, tourism also has the potential to contribute to biodiversity protection while providing well-being benefits and business opportunities (Hall, 2010, Tolvanen et al., 2020).

While climate change dominates research on sustainable tourism, biodiversity loss has received significantly less attention. Adverse ecological effects of tourism have been discussed for decades, but recently CO2 emissions, offsetting, and other climate-related actions accentuate the urgency of climate change. However, climate change and biodiversity loss need to be addressed together as they form a complex ecological crisis threatening nature itself and the future of humanity.

To fill this gap, our study aims to increase understanding of the role of the tourism industry in biodiversity protection by examining how to advance biodiversity-respectful tourism. By adopting a case study methodology, we address the Sustainable Travel Finland (STF) Program and other Visit Finland sustainability actions to examine their climate- and biodiversity-related content and the leadership role of Visit Finland in advancing the sustainability of the Finnish tourism sector.

Literature review - Biodiversity, management, and leadership

In the current study, the term biodiversity-respectful refers to living in harmony with nature and is, thus, associated with profound questions about a good and meaningful life. Dasgupta (2021) described this harmony as the balance of nature's supply and humanity's needs, which means respecting biodiversity means safeguarding the well-being and viability of ecosystems and socio-ecological systems. Accordingly, biodiversity-respectful leadership balances nature's supply and humanity's needs by combining top-down leadership by formal societal or business leaders and bottom-up leadership exhibited by any individual with or without a traditional leadership position.

Until recently, business research has kept its distance from the natural environment and rarely discussed the biodiversity crisis. However, researchers and businesses were awakened by the media attention to the IPBES (2019) report reviewing the state, causes, and implications of

biodiversity loss and Dasgupta's review (2021) outlining the economics of biodiversity. Together these reports urge a transformative change and recommend various actions toward achieving it, such as integrating biodiversity into decision-making, strengthening laws, policies, and corporate governance, promoting biodiversity knowledge, and renewing investment, finance, and accounting strategies.

Indeed, previous research argues that transformative change requires innovative governance approaches (Diaz, 2019) to reform global economic systems, steering away from the prevailing paradigm of economic growth and over-consumption to penalize actions that deteriorate biodiversity and reward sustainability (Dasgupta, 2021). Nevertheless, despite such calls, these innovative governance approaches have been rarely discussed concerning the biodiversity crisis (Hallinger & Suriyankietkaew, 2018). While there is knowledge on 'what' to do to pursue transformative change, there is no clear understanding of 'how' to lead the change towards mainstreaming biodiversity-respectful activity.

While sustainable tourism management is a common topic in tourism research (Gössling et al., 2012), the leadership approach has rarely been addressed. Management and leadership are interrelated; while management focuses on the allocation of scarce resources against organizations' objectives, setting priorities,

and achieving results, leadership is more about the creation of a shared vision, motivating individuals, and encouraging them to align their self- interest with the common goal (Weathersby, 1999).

Case study - Sustainable Travel Finland

The case study examines the role of biodiversity in the Finnish national sustainability program, Sustainable Travel Finland (STF), and the leadership role that Visit Finland takes in Finnish tourism development. Sustainability aspects are identified as a competitive advantage in tourism marketing, and hence, Visit Finland has also taken an active role in enhancing sustainability aspects in Finnish tourism development. They have introduced diverse materials and tools for the tourism sector to support sustainable tourism development. One of the main tools for this is the STF program launched for piloting in 2019.

The STF program aims to provide a pathway to sustainability both for tourism firms and destinations. A concrete toolkit was designed to help tourism firms and destinations identify and adopt sustainable practices in everyday business. After completing the process, firms and destinations are recognized with the STF label. Additionally, they have access to a continuous development model, up-to-date information on sustainable tourism development, and marketing support and visibility on Visit Finland channels. (Business Finland, 2022).

The STF program includes aspects of SDGs and has similar criteria to internationally known sustainable tourism programs. In addition, the STF also recognizes the national and regional development needs and has developed the program accordingly. The sustainability path was designed to support the application process, including an education program on the topic under the Visit Finland Academy. Training is provided both at the destination and business levels. (Business Finland, 2022).

The research data consists of material related to sustainability-related materials and guidelines provided by Visit Finland: website material of sustainable tourism pledge listed criteria for ecological sustainability and a guide book for tourism firms on climate and biodiversity actions and their indicators. In addition, the process of adapting and introducing the sustainability actions and initiatives by Visit Finland from the leadership perspective.

Findings and discussions

The preliminary content analysis shows that the biodiversity aspects of environmental sustainability have lately been integrated more into the discussions in Visit Finland materials. Table 1 shows that the sustainability discussion started from the general sustainability perspectives mentioned in the Sustainable Tourism Pledge and advanced to more concrete biodiversity acts by the Indicator guidebook.

The Sustainable Tourism Pledge includes general perspectives related to sustainability. In addition to the issues linked to the sustainability dimensions, the listing consists of guidance on preferred ways how tourism firms should act to enhance sustainability, e.g., collaboration, quality and safety, and commitment. The STF includes criteria connected to the sustainability dimensions. These take one step further by presenting listings of various actions through which tourism companies can advance sustainability. However, the actions vary from concrete activities (e.g., recycling and decreasing water consumption) to more abstract and broad activities (e.g., maintaining biodiversity). The Indicator guidebook for tourism companies on climate and biodiversity gives the most practical solutions and introduces several climate and biodiversity positive actions.

Table 1. Climate- and biodiversity-related issues in VisitFinland's sustainability materials

Data Source	**Climate-related issues**	**Biodiversity-related issues**
Sustainable Tourism Pledge	Mentions climate change and being resource-wise as one of the ten themes included in the pledge.	Mentions ecological sustainability as one of the ten themes included in the pledge.
Sustainable Travel Finland, *ecological criteria*	Various criteria related to reducing energy, fossil fuels, water, and other resource consumption. Includes general issues, e.g., limiting climate change, using a carbon footprint calculator, and implementing an environmental management system.	One specific criterion mentions biodiversity at a general level (maintaining biodiversity). Lists various ecological actions positively impacting biodiversity but mainly addresses the do-no-harm approach.

Indicator guidebook for tourism companies on climate and biodiversity	Introduces 23 climate acts/indicators and 11 ways to reduce energy consumption for tourism businesses.	Introduces nine biodiversity acts or indicators for tourism businesses.

The analysis indicates that it is challenging to integrate biodiversity into the sustainability materials at a concrete level. In STF's ecological criteria, biodiversity is mentioned only once on a very general level compared to the climate criteria. The most recent guidebook acknowledges biodiversity issues in more detail and provides nine biodiversity indicators. However, their number and depth still fall far behind the climate-related indicators. Nevertheless, there seems to be a positive development. The presence of biodiversity in the documents shows that biodiversity is acknowledged, implying that the tourism sector should also contribute to biodiversity protection. However, it needs to be noted that while various biodiversity supportive activities are listed, their impacts have not been evaluated.

Visit Finland has taken the lead in advancing sustainable tourism management at the national level in Finland by guiding the tourism firms' activities in a more sustainable direction based on their vision. The activities promote, for instance, biodiversity knowledge and environmental education and support the integration of biodiversity into public and business decision-making (cf. IPBES, 2019; Dasgupta, 2021). However, as Visit Finland's primary goal is to promote Finland to international tourists, there is still a need for further discussion about tourism firms' and organizations' roles and leadership perspectives in biodiversity-respectful actions.

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4. Tourism Industry Representations – An Unintentional Baltic Sea Region Geography in the Making

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The aim of this project is to analyze the imaginary geography in the discourses within major tourism stakeholders in the Baltic Sea Region (BSR). Studies have shown that the tourism industry, with its place branding projects, has been a noteworthy actor in the remolding of the imaginary geography of the BSR the last thirty years. Concentrating on the tourism industry and the BSR, this study's point of departure is, however, the unintended production of place. Moving beyond deliberate branding projects makes it possible to shed light on how the tourism industry unintentionally maps the world. For example, a look at Visit Sweden's work with target markets and preferred visitor segments convey a profit driven geography with intriguing blank spaces where seemingly irrelevant nations like Estonia and Poland, and almost the entire BSR, seem to disappear. To increase our knowledge of the imaginary geography of the BSR the concept of "worldmaking" will be utilized. It denotes the processes and activities within the tourism sector, which management agencies engage in to purposely, or unconsciously, privilege particular favoured representations of places within a given region. The empirical

material consists of texts, pictures, and videos as well as narratives (deriving from interviews) from stakeholders in Latvia, Estonia, Finland, and Sweden. The analysis, focusing the unintended geography in making, borrows tools from discourse analysis and semiotics.

Session 4.4. Workshop: City tourism development – The development for a desirable tourism futures – a discussion of ongoing and future research

1. ”Smart attractive sustainable cities - Visit functional supply and visitor experience demand in a city destination”

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There is a discussion how urban areas can be planned in the future compared with the number of residents, public sector and industry in Sweden.
There are eight regional city in Stockholm centres and also a large peri-urban area (Stockholm county council, 2018).
Cities are developed by the tourist industry with their suburbs through innovation, entrepreneurship etc. (Bellini & Pasquinelli, 2017). The Smart city concept could be used within the areas: climate, energy & environmental, mobility, digitalisation, urban planning and social sustainability (Smart City Sweden, 2022).
City destinations are very attractive for visitors (Maitland & Ritchie, 2009). However, new attractiveness concepts have to be developed by companies, which is even more important after the pandemic both for residents and tourists such as new hybrid products and local product packages based on visitor streams.
The character of the destination is a base for the supply and its matching image. Some suburb environment are associated with negative image, but still they have a great potential (Andersson & Abbasian, 2018).
The research purpose is to investigate the visitor attractive functional supply in a smart city and its image, and how it can be related to visitors experience demand.
The visit smart functional supply is investigated by in-depth interviews of tourist experts and a quantitative investigation using the Analytical Hierarchical Process.
Visit functional supply based on visitor streams in regional cities, and experience demand for various visitor categories are identified and developed into a model of smart city centres. In addition, attractive image aspects of city and regional centres, and transformed city tourism products with new destination actors.

2. The communication for resilience of urban destinations during the COVID-19 pandemic

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This paper explores how urban Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) in Sweden, have understood their communicative role, developed communicative strategies and tactics during the COVID-19 pandemic. The overall aim of this research is to develop understanding of the role of communication strategies for developing urban destination resilience.
This study is conducted in collaboration with the Swedish network of destination management organisations (SNDMO) in a research project financed by the Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional Growth (2021-2022). 40 semi-structured interviews with members of SNDMO were performed. The results show that in order to deal with the difficult situation many new stakeholder collaborations have started. An obstacle is the complexity that

comes with stakeholder communication that includes several actors. The communicative role of the DMOS has expanded during the pandemic. The communicative strategies and tactics that evolved during the crisis are characterised by handling a number of contradictions and dilemmas. The results indicate the success of the DMO is dependent on its ability to be proactive, adapt to a constantly changing environment, and use established networks for communication work. This project increases the understanding of communicative strategies employed for urban resilience that emerges in complex interactions between stakeholders and the communicative role of DMOs in extraordinary situations.

3. City innovation as resonance - the case of outdoor offices and conferences in the open air museum

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This paper explores an innovation case within a “smart” Swedish mid-sized city that works extensively with digitalization.
Over a long period in time, city populations and city tourism have increased, while more urgentchallenges connected to sustainability have emerged along with health-related problems. In parallel the already established and ongoing digitalization of society was fortified in the pandemic period, something that may have changed the tourism industry. Today, manyprofessional meetings happen both on- and offline.
One challenge for public officials who manage urban space, is a societal expectation to maximize and improve tax payers´ life quality on limited budgets and resources that are commonly owned.
This is one of the reasons to why contemporary urban planners and city tourism development organizations need to find new solutions in response to problems related to local and global change. I will focus on norm-changes related to digital nomadism (Makimoto & Manners, 1997) and in connection with a movement for outdoor office work (www. outdoorofficeday.nl,Petersson et al., 2021). The city culture department is testing to offer outdoor offices and meetings in an urban public open air museum, a place that is used for leisure and for pedagogicpurposes.
These new offerings can be conceptualized as innovative value propositions (Corvellec & Hultman, 2014) because new values, for instance rich nature experiences or a feeling of doingthe right thing, are made available for tourism consumers. These proposed services can be understood as a re-negotiation of socio-cultural values, where the public institution re-frames space in response to external change.
In sociologist Hartmut Rosas (2019) words, this constitutes a form of an ongoing dialogue withthe world, in resonance. Based on eight qualitative interviews with local managers, participant observations, online communication and documents, I explore innovation from this sociologicalperspective.
The aim of this research project is to understand tourism innovation discursive practices in public management, as responses to local and global change. Three research questions guide the study; How are outdoor offices and conferences constructed as value propositions for potential visitors? To which problems/risks do these value propositions respond? With what terms are outdoor offices constructed as answers to problems?
So far, it was found that some of the strategic actions taken by the project leader was to launchthe outdoor office through a local innovation program, and to frequently work with professionalsocial media platforms.

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4. Smart rural – peripheral destinations, urban solutions?

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Before the corona pandemic, Finnish tourism exports were growing rapidly, which is largely explained by the increase in the number of foreign individual tourists. Finland's tourism assets for international travellers are remote destinations, nature, and nature experiences. The importance of these has increased during the corona pandemic. However, in sparsely populated areas, accessing nature attractions without your own car is difficult. For international travellers in particular, finding alternative modes of transport and travel chains connecting different modes of transport can be impossible in the current situation. Relevant information on, for example, travel modes, timetables and services at the destination is fragmented across a number of different websites and services.

In a tourist destination like Finland, creating a coherent and smart travel experience requires a holistic view of mobility, services and destinations across sectoral, regional and administrative boundaries. In FIT ME! - Foreign Individual Travellers' hospitality and Mobility Ecosystem -project we aim to develop the scattered services of transport and tourism industries towards travellers' digital mobility ecosystem in Finland. This requires service platforms that enable the connecting of existing digital services to each other and the addition of new features to them. In national level, evolving ecosystem and co-created shared services based on new technological solutions demand especially improvement of service supply and smart solutions in rural areas. The aim of this presentation is to outline what smart tourism is in rural areas and what is needed for its development in these areas.

Session 4.5. Workshop: Nordic Coastal Tourism Communities in Transition

1. Developing wave surfing tourism in Norway: Three cases

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This paper explores the growth of cold-water surfing and surf tourism along the Norwegian coastline. Worldwide, 35 million people do wave surfing. Being one of the world's oldest practiced sports that originated in Polynesia, it has spread world-wide and generated surf tourism for more than 100 years. Technology advancements has influenced the sport and, although the water is cold and the ocean is rough, modern wetsuits provide thermal protection for surfers and have thus made cold water surfing possible. The Norwegian coastline with a length of 103,000 km is the second longest worldwide and offers many places with good surfing conditions. Exploring this coastline to find remote surf-able waves is a recent type of adventure tourism, and the sport itself may be characterised as an extreme sport involving an intimate dance with the energy of nature (Booth, 2013) but also with several risk elements when practiced in rough waters. Thus, surfing in Norway became an intersection of adventure tourism, extreme sport, and recreational leisure, and surfers regard the coastlines as their playgrounds. Three main surf destinations have developed, Unstad on the North Atlantic coast of Lofoten, Hoddevik and Ervik at Stadt, and Jæren facing the North Sea. Norway Surf Association dates from 1985. This research asks how surfing was moved to the Norwegian coastline, where has it created tourism businesses, and how it fits in with local interests and developments. Data were collected by interviews with surfers, pioneers, operation owners, and from webpages and media articles.

2. Story telling as the answer? Does the story telling aspirations of a destination management/marketing organisation in Stockholm southern Archipelago really address the profitability problems of tourist entrepreneurs?

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Abstract
Entrepreneurs in Stockholm southern Archipelago have issues with profitability. Many are micro businesses and have joined the local destination management/marketing organization, an NGO that spun off from the municipality a few years ago. There have been problems within the NGO to get the businesses to collaborate in e.g. packaging and they are now proposing story telling (see e.g. Mossberg 2008) as the panacea that will, through awareness, create a hype for their place. Storytelling is by involved entrepreneurs seen as a pull marketing strategy. Over the past decade, much focus has been on User Generated Content (UGC) as pull marketing. E.g. Buhalis & Foerste (2015) conceptualise Social-media Context-aware Mobile-marketing (SoCoMo) for tourism. Katsikari, et al. (2020) look at what kind of social media content is preferable for potential tourism for Greek DMOs. I have doubts that UGC will suffice to increase visitation, be it a necessary step to affect the consumer search process (Bigne, et al., 2001; Baloglu & McClearly, 1999), as using visitors to attract their friends presupposes enough visitation. Hay et al. (2022) reintroduces the locals in co-creationof the brand though the storytelling. Using phenomenography I look into the local entrepreneurs segment and attempt to follow the exploits of the NGO and participant entrepreneurs around how the storytelling project is received based on changes in customer demand and interest, and understand what behavioural changes entrepreneurs make and why,and in what senses these constitute entrepreneurial responses (Rytkönen, et al. 2019).

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3. Sustainable cruise tourism? A comparison between two island destinations

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Introduction

Cruise tourism to islands and remote coastal communities has been growing rapidly in recent years. Tourists rush to experience the dramatic natural environment of islands and the remote coastal communities' unique culture and scenery. Cruise tourists come in as tidal waves, sparsely populated towns suddenly become overcrowded, and then, after a few hours, leaving again, making everyday life for people who live in these places logistically complicated and not entirely pleasant. Despite the fact that cruise are highly seasonal, the overall infrastructure, with everything from docks, electricity and water, roads to medical care, needs to be dimensioned to fit the peaks, rather than the small population, which may be a strain on local finances. Cruise also always balances on the fine line that all tourism always needs to be vary of not crossing – destroying the very reason to visit, in this case fragile nature. In short, cruise tourism to islands generates a number of sustainability challenges.

This situation asks a number of crucial questions that need to be addressed. How do local communities perceive of cruise tourism? To what extent do they feel able to control the situation? What types of sustainability challenges do they experience? What do they think workwell and not? What would constitute responsible cruise tourism to arctic communities and howdo they think this can be achieved? In this paper we will explore these questions from the pointof view of comparing two cases, which both constitute island destinations heavily dependent on cruise tourism.

Literature review

Cruise tourism is one of the largest growing sectors in the tourism industry. For small remote island communities, the cruise industry can play an important role for economic development (Cheer, 2017). Cruise tourism can generate job creation, infrastructure development andbusiness opportunities, which can be especially beneficial for small and remote communities (Huijbens, 2015; Olsen, Hovelsrud, & Kaltenborn, 2019). Cruise tourism to remote coastal communities risk becoming a ´last chance´ tourism, as the scope of cruise overrides many ecological thresholds, while at the same creating problems in terms of waste and water usage. Social, and environmental issues linked to the industry have been heavily criticized. Air, water,flora and fauna are threatened, as well as the coastal communities, by the seasonal increase of visitors (Friðriksson, Wise & Scott, 2020; Ren, James, Pashkevich & Hoarau-Heemstra, 2021).

Methodology

One case is Ísafjörður, a small town located on the Westfjords peninsula in Iceland which has experienced an excessive growth in cruise visits and today is the third busiest cruise port in Iceland. The town's population on busy cruise ship days during high season can sometimes triple which causes stress on infrastructure, an environmental strain on attractions due to overcrowding, and a disruption of the daily life of residents. These challenges can be problematic for small towns like Ísafjörður where lack of infrastructure and services hinder destination development. Ísafjörður is putting great efforts into developing cruise tourism. Thisis evident for example by the fact that a new, bigger dock is being built, to be able to host more and bigger ships. Ísafjörður thus finds it relevant to put a lot of public funding into this kind ofinfrastructural project.

The other case is Gotland in the Baltic sea. Gotland has experienced cruise tourism for many years, but after a decrease in number of tourists (due to the unpredictable weather and out of date docking facilities) this destination decided to develop its infrastructure to attract more andbigger cruise ships, and built a whole new cruise pier, inaugurated in 2018. Gotland is not the main attraction for cruises in the Baltic, which are rather Copenhagen, Stockholm and St Petersburg, but due to environmental regulations requiring lower speed of the ships, Gotland has become an attractive destination, as it is situated on a suitable distance between Copenhagen/Stockholm and St Petersburg. So it is its location in relation to the more attractivedestination which is Gotland´s Unique Selling Point. Because of this a multinational companyrunning ports in different countries decided to help funding this new pier, which would otherwise have probably been too expensive for the public finances of the island. This rather rapid development in cruise created a straining situation for the public and private actors on theisland to get ready for this rapid transition to more and bigger cruises, in the midst of a situation on the island which already poses sustainability challenges, like water shortage and a high level of seasonality due to the many second home owners.

These two island cases thus have in common that they both are dependent on cruise tourism, actively try to develop cruise and invest in infrastructural projects to make this happen, but also experience sustainability challenges. How these situations play out on these islands will be explored in this paper, with the aim of identifying possible generic challenges involving cruiseon island destinations.

These two cases have been studied with a multimethod qualitative approach. Ísafjörður has beenstudied since 2020, including two field visits and thirteen semi-structured interviews with stakeholders within cruise tourism in Ísafjörður. Gotland has been studied by a low intense ongoing fieldwork with participant observation 2014-2019 with a focus on the so called GotlandCruise Network, an initiative to make all public, private and civil society actors involved in cruise coming together, collaborate and prepare for the new situation.

Results

Ísafjörður

When talking about the past, present and future of cruise tourism, how this relates to visions ofa sustainable future for Ísafjörður a quite coherent picture emerges: all agree that cruise tourismis a good thing that they would like to continue to have also in the future. However, most also agree that there should be a limit to number of ship or tourists who can come to Ísafjörður at the same time.

This overall agreement both in the positive dimensions and threats associated with cruise in turn asks for further important questions: if all agree that there "should" be a limit to cruise tourism, why is such a limit not already in place? Who do people think "should" make this happen, and how? Most of our interviewees agrees that there "should" be a common discussionon this in Ísafjörður, and that then everyone will agree on how things "should" be. On the question of *who* they think should initiate such a discussion, on the other hand, we do not get any straight answers. Different types of actors (public and private) throw this question on one another, and everyone thinks someone else should be responsible for doing it. Our asking this though, make them reflect that since Ísafjörður is such a small place, with only a few actors involved, it would actually not be so difficult to get everyone coming together and discuss.

This realization, on the other hand, leads to another unanswered question, of who and how couldactually push "the red button" and say no to cruise ships. Nobody really seems to know what systems or actors actually control this, and, hence, could possibly say no. Some refer to the oldtime seafarer rule of never refusing a ship to anchor, which for safety reason is practiced sincetime immemorial, while people on the other hand realize that itinaries of cruise lines is a ratherdifferent matter than this sea men´s code of conduct.

Gotland

Following the doings of the Gotland Cruise Network and its doing an immediate observation was that public and private actors mutually distrusted each other, blamed each other for not taking responsibility and for not stepping up to the challenges of developing a functional, extended cruise system, with infrastructure, attractions, transportation, and all that is needed. Itseemed that the public and private actors mutually did not recognize the different circumstancesthey were both operating under. Questions under constant debate was parking places for touristbuses and open hours of public toilets. No one took responsibility, but threw the ball at someoneelse.

Another realization was that it was difficult for everyone to get an overview over all the piecesin the puzzle, that need to be in place for cruise tourism to work. An example is the infrastructure of tourists from the ferry to the attraction, the medieval city of Visby. While the actual pier was grand and very well organized constructure project, how the tourists were to getfrom there the 1,5 km into the old town was not thought through or organized. So, only *after* the built the pier did they realize that would not be allowed to simply walk by the road (safety issues), so only a couple of weeks before the first arrival a ´temporary´ pedestrian bridge was in place. However, this has turned out not to be temporary, but permanent, although it certainlylook very temporary, and unattractive and not at all suited for people with physical disabilities,as it has many stairs. Many old people on the cruises thus cannot take this route. To combat thisthe region organized special shuttle traffic for people with impairments, however, did not tell the tour operators this nor put any signs on the vehicles, so nobody knew they existed and no one used them.

Conclusions

From these results we draw the tentative conclusion that cruise tourism is a phenomena that is difficult for individual actors, and even whole destinations, to feel ownerships over or grasp theentirety of. So, cruise seems to be experienced as a thing that cannot be controlled and managed.This also points to the fact that cruise is a global phenomenon involving a large number of different big and small actors, over which no one, in the end, have a clear mandate to push a "red button" or to control the chain of decisions that needs to be made. This in turn leaves smallcoastal communities rather vulnerable, and we see a need in future research to develop strategiestogether

with such communities to deal with this highly uncertain and unpredictable situation that hardly can be controlled or grasped.

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5.1. Co-creating sustainability (from marketing point of view)

1. Wellness Tourism Motivations: A Multiple Case Study

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Wellness tourism is seen as an important part of tourism sector on national and international level (Voigt, 2014) which is growing more than two times faster than tourism in general (GlobalWellness Institute, 2018). Tourists seek to enhance emotional, spiritual, physical and intellectual wellbeing during their trips (e.g. Smith & Puczkó, 2014) as a result of stress at work,hectic pace of living, pollution in cities, unhealthy lifestyle and failing healthcare systems as well as ageing population and growing disposable income (Chen, Chang, & Tung, 2014; Lee, Lam, & Lam, 2020).

Despite the increasing number of studies on tourists' motivation there is yet a lack of understanding about the demand side of wellness tourism (Lee et al., 2020). Previous studies commonly analyzed one chosen destination or without cross-cultural analysis of motivations orif the analysis included several destinations it lacked the comparison between source markets (see Kelly, 2012; Medina-Muñoz & Medina-Muñoz, 2013; Tsai, Suh, & Fong, 2012).

In order to fill the research gap this study investigates the differences of the motivations of wellness tourists from different markets, representing different cultures in one study. The study's first aim is to analyze wellness tourists' motivations and particularly the potential differences in motivations in three source markets, namely Finland, St. Petersburg area in Russia and in Lithuania. Secondly, motivation-based segments in these market areas are sought.

A comprehensive review on studies in peer-reviewed tourism journals examining the motivations of wellness tourists reflects the widespread discussion on the motivations as the key element in tourist's decision making process (Crompton, 1979). Motivation is defined as the process that stimulates, directs, and maintains goal-oriented behaviors (Greenberg, 1998). In this study the motivational factors appearing in the reviewed articles were categorized based on Leisure Motivation Scale (Beard & Ragheb, 1983) including intellectual, social, stimulus- avoidance factors, and physical and emotional motivations from the Wheel of Wellness (Smith& Puczkó,

2009). Motivations to escape from daily life, to relax, to pamper oneself, to improvephysical appearance and to try new things were one of the most cited (e.g. Koh, Jung-Eun Yoo,& Boger, 2010; Konu & Laukkanen, 2010; Mak, Wong, & Chang, 2009; Voigt, Brown, & Howat, 2011). Analysis of the previous literature revealed that wellness tourists are driven by multiple motivations of different importance at the same time. According to prior research, wellness tourists are driven by multiple motivations of different importance at the same time.

This study surveyed 1562 wellness tourists in Finland, St. Petersburg area, and Lithuania. One part of the questionaire included a seven-point Likert scale where 24 motivational items derived from previous wellness tourism literature were used in order to evaluate the importance of motivational factors when considering going on a wellness trip. Questions related to sociodemographic characteristics were included in another part. Collected data was analysed by examining descriptive statistics of scale-based motivation items. Exploratory factor analysiswas employed to uncover the underlying motivation dimensions and compare sum variables. Finally, seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) models were used to examine relationships between the motivation dimensions, nationality and the background variables.

Exploratory factor analysis revealed six motivational factors including status, beauty and appearance, personal development, nature and outdoors, socialization, and resting and relaxation, the latter factor being dominant across all nationality groups. Seemingly unrelated regression analysis revealed significant differences in terms of the importance of beautification, physical condition improvement, nature and the desire to indulge in luxury experiences.

Based on the results of the study several important managerial implications could be drawn forthe businesses and DMOs. Study proved that wellness tourists' motivations are destination- specific, therefore businesses should use distinctive promotional tools targeted to reflect the needs of particular source market. Additionally, businesses and DMOs should self-assess theirstrengths and existing offering or a potential to adjust it and then focus marketing campaigns towards particular segment which matches their offering. Additionally, this study demonstrates a statistically significant connection between sociodemographic variables and the customers' intention to go on a wellness trip. Therefore, segmenting wellness customers by sociodemographic characteristics and offering customized services may be effective.

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2. Sources of three dimensions of interactive value formation in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic: Airbnb guest's perspectives

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Studies on value co-creation have proliferated in service research and have been increasingly applied in the field of tourism and hospitality (Font, English, Gkritzali & Tian, 2021). In fact, today, interest in value co-creation has increased in the tourism and hospitality field (Assiouras,Skourtis, Giannopoulos, Buhalis & Karaosmanoglu, 2022). However, there is less research onvalue co-destruction and value co-recovery (Mody, Lu & Hanks, 2020). There have also beencalls to simultaneously examine value co-creation, value co-destruction (Yin, Qian & Shen, 2019) and value co-recovery, including their sources, in the context of the sharing economy (Nadeem, Juntunen, Shirazi & Hajli, 2020). Aside from studying value co-creation and value co-destruction, there is a need to address value co-recovery owing to the inherently inconsistentnature of Airbnb service experience (Sthapit & Björk, 2021) and the high level of interactive, intangible and idiosyncratic customer service provider contact that leads to service failures andservice recoveries (Mody et al., 2020).

Li, Hudson and So's (2019) study demonstrates that Airbnb customer experiences comprisesof four underlying dimensions namely home benefits, personalised services, authenticity and social connection, while most of the existing knowledge on COVID-19 and Airbnb comes fromthe host's perspective (Farmaki et al., 2020). Despite the increase in the number of service failures and guest complaints (Sthapit, 2019), including in the context of Airbnb (Mody et al.,2020), these studies tend to overlook guests' perspectives, which are addressed in the current paper. This study explored the sources of value co-creation, co-destruction and co-recovery amid the coronavirus outbreak using 415 online reviews of guests' experiences with Airbnb.

Data were collected by employing nonparticipant observation in the form of netnography. We adapted Kozinets' (2002) netnography procedure to the Airbnb context. The first step wasthe search for the most relevant online communities from which to study guests' Airbnb experiences. We selected the Trustpilot website because it had good user interactivity and a high number of users and user posts about recent Airbnb experiences. Trustpilot (trustpilot.com) is a Danish third-party consumer review site on which shoppers can leave a one- to five-star rating to share their satisfaction and reviews of any retailer, company, brand or service. The website offers a large and reliable number of reviews that include informationon the time each review was posted (Singh, 2019). Trustpilot is a Google Review Partner thatis used by 270,000 businesses (trustpilot.com, 2019). The second step involved data collection and analysis, which was conducted between February and August 2020. Positive emotions, orthe use of the search words 'good', 'excellent', 'great', 'nice' and 'amazing', were used to capture review posts that indicated value co-creation and value co-recovery, whilst negative emotions, or the use of the keywords 'awful', 'bad', 'worst', 'terrible' and 'horrible', were linked to value co-destruction. Using these 10 keywords helped the current study avoid the generation of overwhelming amounts of data. In the present study, the responses included werelimited to those in English, and each review post consisted of one entry, with an average of four sentences. Of the 900 online posts screened, the analysis focused on 415 reviews based onthe 10 keywords mentioned above: 'good' (19), 'excellent' (29), 'great' (32), 'nice' (4), amazing' (16), 'awful' (41), 'bad' (77), 'worst' (72), 'terrible' (62) and 'horrible' (63).

Data analysis using the grounded theory approach identified two main sources: Airbnb's customer service and hosts' conduct. Four sub-themes (quality of interactions with customer service representatives, difficulties in achieving resolution, dissatisfaction or satisfaction with the resolution offered and costs incurred by the consumer) comprised the main theme of Airbnb's customer service. Two sub-themes (the role of the host's communication in service recovery and perceived unethical actions by the host) comprised the main theme of hosts' conduct.

From a theoretical perspective, this study adds to the existing literature on Airbnb by identifying two sources – Airbnb customer service and hosts' conduct – of value co-creation, co-destruction and co-recovery from Airbnb guests' perspectives in the context of the COVID- 19 pandemic. At the micro level, due to inadequate communication and unethical actions by hosts (hosts' conduct), value co-destruction occurred. At the macro level, poor interactions with customer service representatives, difficulties achieving resolution, dissatisfaction/satisfaction with the resolution offered and the costs incurred by Airbnb customers resulted in value co-destruction and a decline in well-being. Existing studies have not examined all three-value outcomes simultaneously, particularly in the COVID-19 context,making this study valuable for its comprehensive approach.

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3. Does national heritage and mythology interest as part of a tourism product? – Case Kalevala & Japanese segment

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Introduction and aim

According to UNWTO's (2018) global review, most countries acknowledge the opportunities of combining

culture and tourism activities, such as tangible and intangible heritage elements, and cultural heritage has therefore been an important point of interest for tourism scholars (Richards, 2018). Heritage tourism may be described to be a multifaceted phenomenon in whichthe core of touristic motives is not only depended on the tangible heritage characteristics of thedestination, but where the main motivation of the tourist is rooted also in their perception of their own heritage (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2001).

Kalevala, the Finnish national epic, is one of the most significant pieces of Finnish literature even today, and Kalevala may be regarded as an important part of Finnish heritage, having a close connection to Finnish cultural backgrounds. Despite its importance to Finnish cultural identity, Kalevala has not been very much utilized in tourism products.

Aim of this research was to determine how interesting different Kalevala infused tourism themes would be for the Japanese customer segment and how Kalevala could be utilized in tourism products/services. Japan is one of the Visit Finland's main active target markets (VisitFinland, 2022), and Japanese are potentially a good target group for cultural tourism products since they are interested in Finnish lifestyle, sauna and other different cultural elements (Pasanen & Pesonen, 2016). Although the research can be regarded as very specific case study, it also contributes to the general understanding how cultural heritage elements can be utilized in tourism experiences and new service development.

Literature review

New service development (NSD) may be regarded to follow five major stages: service conceptdevelopment, service process development, market testing, commercialization and post- introduction evaluation (Komppula & Boxberg, 2002; Konu, Tuohino, & Komppula, 2010). Aspotential customers can be regarded as experts when developing new services (Konu, 2015a), co-creation with customers may have significant value in making attractive tourism products/services (Konu & Komppula, 2016; Konu, 2015b). Virtual product testing, for one, has been seen as applicable way to include consumers into NSD processes (Konu, 2015c).

Based on previous literature, it was seen that the apparent combining factors of Finland as a tourism destination and the Japanese traveler segment's interests were scenic nature sights andrich culture experiences including traditions and heritage (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011; Pasanen &Pesonen, 2016; Lee, Sakuno, Prebensen, & Kimura, 2018; Andersen, Prentice, & Watanabe, 2000), while significant motivation factors for choosing the destination were escaping the ordinary, often hectic city lifestyle, relaxation and learning, as well as novel experiences and possibility to engage in nature (Cha, Mccleary, & Uysal, 1995; Jang, Morrison, & O'Leary, 2002; Watkins & Gnoth, 2011; Pasanen & Pesonen, 2016; Visit Finland, 2017). As Kalevala, for example, strongly expresses elements of cultural heritage, spirit of Finland and Finnish nature relation, the national epic was seen as appropriate scope for the research.

Methodology

This explorative research was divided into two parts: background research period (service concept development and service process development) and virtual product testing (market testing). During the background research, Japanese people living in Finland were interviewed first to determine the possible interest towards Kalevala and how the cultural heritage of Kalevala should be presented. Based on the interviews, as well as development workshops withlocal companies, three distinct themes for product testing were created, all of which emphasized different elements linked to the interest points. The themes gave a broader insight to possible products/services related to the theme. The themes and their different elements are presented inTable 1.

Table 1. Description of the themes.

Product theme name	Main concept of the theme
Kalevala Saunatrail	Traveler visits different types of saunas around the county of North Karelia, such as smoke, beach, herbal and ice saunas.
Well-being escape to Eastern Finland	Traveler seeks empowerment from forest and lake nature. Theme consists of healing elements, such as presence of folk healer. Nature in many forms is in focus (seasonality).
Live like a local in North Karelia	Traveler gets situated in small, quiet rural village where they can immerse into the local live. The focus is to "live like a local" and experience local customs and traditions, become "one with Finland".

At the product testing phase, it was examined whether Kalevala would be an interesting aspect for the

respondents. The data was collected in January 2022 by utilizing consumer panels in Japan. The target audience for the study was people over 18 years old who were interested in travelling to Finland under normal circumstances (no COVID-19 pandemic). In addition, the data collection in Japan was targeted to the main departure areas from Japan (Visit Finland, 2018), and more precisely from these regions to Tokyo and Osaka.

The product testing study applied experimental methods and utilized two different story formats, and therefore there was two groups of panelists answering question concerning only one of the story formats. The first story form described the concept of the product/service themein its original form, without direct reference to Kalevala. Elements from the Kalevala epic werehidden/infused in the product descriptions. The second form utilized the Kalevala theme directly. The basic theme was described same as in the first form, but direct quotations from Kalevala relating to the theme were added to the beginning and end of each product description.The aim of this approach was to see if the apparent presence of Kalevala would in any way impact the interest towards the theme.

After the presentation of both story formats (three different products per format), the same questionnaire was used, including open and closed questions. The respondents needed to answere.g., how likely they would want to experience the descripted product and during which season,what kind of emotions the product descriptions made them feel and what elements of the product were most important to them. In addition, some background information concerning their familiarity with Finland, mythology and folklore was asked as well as socio-demographicinformation. The study received 112 answers concerning the basic concept products and 110 answers concerning Kalevala emphasized products.

Results and argumentation

This research is work in progress. The preliminary results reveal that the sauna theme was mostinteresting for the participants, wellbeing as second most interesting and Live like local themeleast interesting in the case of both participant groups. In all the product themes, the basic product without visible Kalevala elements was more interesting than the products with Kalevalaemphasis (Figure 1). Statistical difference between participant groups could be found in the case of themes Live like a local and Wellbeing. This may imply, that Finnish culture and its elements itself are interesting to Japanese travelers, but an emphasis on unfamiliar national epicmight be too immersive and make the product less appealing. This was also confirmed on the answers regarding how important the participants found different elements in the service themes. Nature, Finnish identity, and locality were most often seen extremely important regarding the service being interesting. Folklore, stories, and mythology were most often seen only somewhat important.

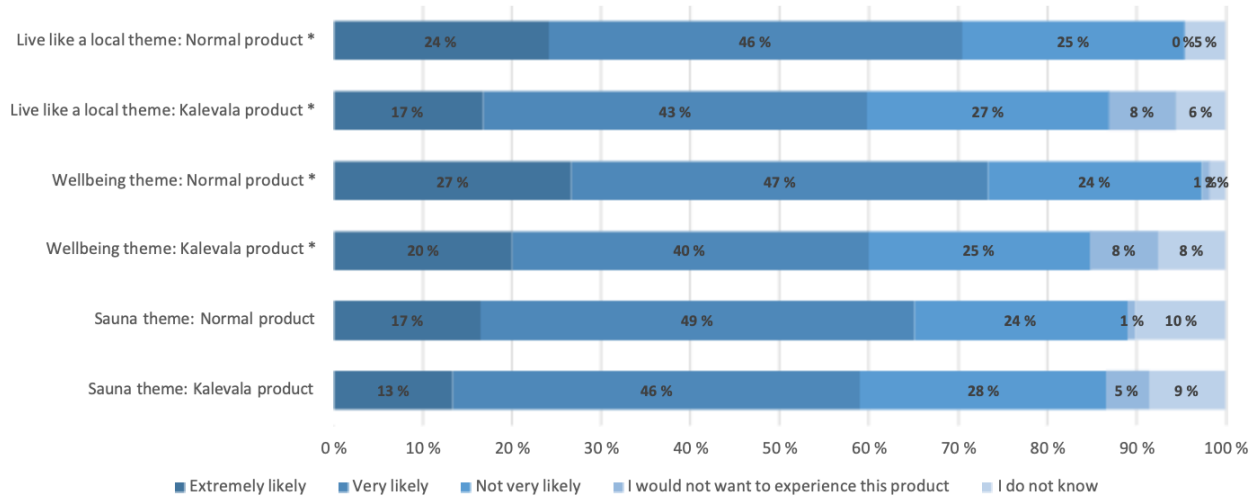

Figure 1. How likely would you want to experience a service built around this theme?

All the six product descriptions generated positive emotions. The most often felt emotions in the sauna theme were interest, relaxation, and fun. The same emotions were most often felt alsoin the case of wellbeing theme. The Live like a local theme aroused mostly feelings of happiness, interest, and fun. Under 12 % of respondents felt feelings of disgust, discomfort, melancholy, boredom, or fear, which is very positive result from the product

development pointof view. The most interesting season for experiencing the described products was summer (39-48% of answerers), in all but one case. Sauna themed Kalevala product would be most interesting during wintertime by 38 % of the respondents. Winter was the second mostinteresting season in other described products.

Conclusion

As expected, based on previous research with Japanese customer segment, nature, Finnish identity, locality, and sauna seem to be interesting elements in the designed products. The findings, however, suggest that mythological story elements, such as Kalevala, cannot serve asthe main attraction for these tourism products, although the respondents showed some interest towards these elements as well. As a result of this, it would seem to be more beneficial to closelybind Kalevala to be part of a bigger cultural tourism product as a supporting factor, like done

in the basic theme. Developing culturally rich tourism products then again supports the socio- cultural responsibility and sustainability of tourism industry (UNWTO & UNDP, 2017).

Summer was recognized as the most appealing season in the product testing, followed by winter. Summer being already high season for Finnish tourism industry (Suomen virallinen tilasto: Majoitustilasto), it may be better to try creating attractive tourism products for other seasons in the future, to help solving the problem of tourism industry's seasonality as well as support the economical sustainability of the target area. This may be regarded as practical contribution and serves as an interesting study probe for the future.

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4. Making sense of multisensory experiences in nature

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Introduction defining the aim of the research

Colléony et al. (2020) found that a close sensory experience in nature, such as smell and touch,generates a positive interaction between man and nature. They called such sensations that guidean individual's experience of nature as cues to experience. However, cues are also one of the seven factors in Weick's (1995) sensemaking approach through which individuals seek to understand their new experiences. According to it, our past experiences, the cues we pick fromthe environment, and, on the other hand, the experience shared with others make us understand,for example, nature experiences individually. In this study, we examine the perceptions and experiences of tourism and conservation professionals of what they consider to be meaningfulnature experiences. Such an understanding will help tourism entrepreneurs create and market nature experiences in a value-added way.

Literature review

According to Sorakunnas (2020), the subjective visitor experience of national park visitors is created through nature, physical achievements, social interaction, personal sphere, and infrastructure. The first three are context-specific, i.e. they depend on the place to visit, and theconditions and people encountered there, and the infrastructure is provided and managed by theorganization that maintains the site. In this view, only the personal sphere pays attention to individual and personal characteristics in the emergence of experience.

According to Weick (1995), everyone understands events, activities, and sensations in their own way, and thus constructs different meaning to them. This framing of the previously unknown, unnoticed, or new is based on our 1) identity and 2) social interaction with others. Individuals pick 3) cues 4) about ongoing events that are interpreted 5) retrospectively throughpast experience so that 6) a plausible explanation emerges. However, as we try to understand what we see and experience, we are 7) changing the event itself. In this study we usesensemaking approach as a heuristic (Helms Mills, 2010) to analyze how nature experiences are constructed meaningful.

Methodology

The primary data of this study consists of approximately 10 interviews among tourism and nature professionals. Interviews are still ongoing and thus the exact number is yet unknown. Interviewees include entrepreneurs from a variety of nature tourism destinations in Finland, nature tourism researchers, funders and infrastructure providers, as well as nature conservationand guide service professionals. By interviewing experts in various fields and not just users ofnature services, we get a diverse view of the formation of nature experiences. However, to complement professional perspective, we conducted an anonymous survey in an area where a new nature-based tourism site is being planned. The survey (n=54) was answered by permanent and summer residents of the surrounding area. Due to the small number of respondents, this study focuses only on qualitative interview data.

After reading the interview transcripts intensively, we found inductively that various themes were repeatedly mentioned when interviewees described meaningful nature experiences. These were 1) availability and accessibility, 2) supporting on-site multisensory experience, and 3) man-made artifacts in nature. These themes serve as objects around which the interviewees formulated important aspects of nature experiences for themselves and the organizations they represent. In this study we focus on supporting on-site multisensory experience of the three themes and analyze it next through sensemaking heuristics.

Results and argumentation

Sensory experiences are often the first things brought up by interviewees. They were often accompanied by bodily descriptions such as moving from one place to another.

> Of course, seeing nature, but also hearing and smelling different things, is a strong partof that

> experience. Then I also like the kind of feeling of moving through the landscape,that I can get there like a series of spaces and views, kind of places, through which I then also move. (Interviewee 1)

This excerpt emphasizes nature and physical achievement as part of the nature experience as inSuoranta (2020). The interviewee sees physical transition as part of experiencing nature, but also as a sense of change as he continues in the following:

> I was on a winter hike, and the scenery was actually very similar, there was a sandy ridge and a pine forest that was very boring, snowy and vertical. And then in a way thatshape of the terrain, the places of the lakes and then there was always a shelter somewhere so through them you can kind of see where we are now. (Interviewee 1)

The landscape, smells, and sounds are cues that the observer is in a different environment, andchanges in these suggest a shift again to a new context. While the view is simple or even dull, small cues that can also be produced artificially guide the observer to understand the transition.Signposts and mileage bars show the stages and the distance traveled but draw the observer's attention only to the physical progress of the journey. Instead, multisensory experiences can besupported, for example, through guide services that help tourists to pay attention to somethingthat they would otherwise fail to notice.

> The visitor experience is quite superficial if it is based on the person looking at the information center and walking there [in the nature]. The tour operator was encouragedto embark on guided tours there on the island. And I wrote that kind of script and trainedtheir summer workers as guides like that. They pulled them for an hour and a half of theguided tour there on the island --- and those people had a completely different visitor experience when they had a guide who told them when they were walking there. (Interviewee 2)

Significant experience often requires conscious observation of nature. If the passenger has theknowledge himself, he can have more meaningful experiences alone or socially shared with fellow passengers:

> I think there's something terribly magical about it, that you have to experience a little bit of the life or the atmosphere of the forest organisms there and then think about whatit's like to be a fungus that passes information between the roots of trees, that it's a really different experience. But then it is the [fungus] that maintains the living system in the forest. (Interviewee 1)
>
> I almost gave a presentation on the ice age to those guys, because if you know geologyand ice age dynamics it's just insanely great. It speaks to it with its own specialty, but the majority of visitors don't even understand what it's all about. (Interviewee 2)

These excerpts demonstrate the importance of prior experience and education in interpreting sensory experience. Observers build understanding of their experiences because they are awareof the causes and backgrounds of the objects they see in nature. When traveling with others, thefindings can be discussed, and the discussion also provides feedback on whether one's own understanding of the issue is socially acceptable and plausible or raises different views. This makes it possible to learn something new, but also to experience things in a new way. In one interview, the information boards along the nature trails were criticized because they are uselessto those who understand nature much more than others such as birdwatchers and on the other hand tell only a few loose nuances about the surrounding nature to other visitors.

Today, more comprehensive experiences can be provided through technology. One intervieweebrought up this kind of multimodal experience where nature itself provides a scene that is supplemented with audiovisual effects.

> The aim is to get a production like this, take the tourists there to the dungeon and thereis a state of war virtually and they have, for example, virtual glasses on their head and they could look at them. (Interviewee 3)

Technologically supported experiences offer the opportunity to take advantage of a variety of educational elements and thus provide a deeper understanding. Yet technology can also make a clearer distinction between

a natural and an artificial experience, as one interviewee who putshis mobile phone in the wild said.

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)
Preliminary results show that building a meaningful nature experience is often social since it benefits from outside support and guidance. Even though the emerging sense of the surroundingis individual for all of us, it is often socially shared, tested and supported. Local nature – untouched or man-made – serves the framework or scene for this understanding. Sounds, views,and landscape are important but often they require supporting activities or infrastructure to be fully perceived. These supporting activities may be external to tourists such as safe path throughthe wilderness, guided tours, or technically augmented reality or internal such as his own education or awareness to beauty of the nature.

For tourism entrepreneurs, an understanding of the shaping of nature experience allows for theconscious construction of various elements that support tourists and visitors to develop a deeperunderstanding of what they see and experience. Technology offers one possible way to deepen experiences, but also a planned infrastructure helps the visitor to structure his new experiencesin nature.

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Session 5.2. Current research into decent work in tourism and hospitality

1. Leadership in the Nordic Hospitality Industry: Comparison of the Five Nordic Countries

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Introduction
This ongoing multiple case study explores leadership in the Nordic hospitality industry by interviewing hotel leaders and employees in Oslo, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Helsinki, and Reykjavík. Little is known about Nordic leadership in the hospitality sector, and the purpose of the study is to contribute to filling this knowledge gap in the research area. While many prior studies have investigated Nordic leadership from either leaders' or employees' perspective, this study examines the perceptions of both leaders and employees. The study will investigate whether leadership in the Nordic hospitality industry differs significantly between the five countries, or whether there can be found a Nordic leadership style in the five Nordic countries.

Brief Literature Review

Various authors have addressed leadership and management in the Nordic countries (e.g., Andreasson & Lundqvist, 2018; Chen, 2014; Lämsä, 2010; Lindell & Arvonen, 1996; Pöllänen, 2006; Smith et al., 2003; Warner-Søderholm, 2012a; Warner-Søderholm & Cooper, 2016), and more specifically in the Scandinavian countries (e.g., Blom, 2016; Enoksen et al., 2014; Grenness, 2003; Grenness, 2011; Gustavsen, 2007; Högberg & Adamsson, 1983; Jönsson, 1996; Poulsen, 1988; Schramm-Nielsen et al., 2004; Warner-Søderholm, 2012b). Some scholars have focused on leadership in the individual Nordic countries, for instance Sweden (Hamrin, 2016; Holmberg & Åkerblom, 2006) or compared management styles between two Nordic countries, for example between Finland and Sweden (Lämsä, 2010). However, important research on Nordic management is missing in the service sector and little is known for example whether Nordic management practices are effective for persons who come from countries with a high-power distance (Torvatn et al., 2015). The hospitality industry represents an industry with a diverse workforce and labour mobility and creates an interesting backdrop for studying Nordic leadership. Understanding what makes leadership effective in hotels in the increasingly globalising Nordic countries is important in for example improving working conditions and retaining employees in the industry. This current study will provide new insights on Nordic leadership in a hospitality context by interviewing hotel leaders and employees in the five Nordic countries.

Lindell and Arvonen (1996) explored Nordic management style in a European context and the findings of their questionnaire study of more than 3000 subordinates in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland suggests that Nordic management style is not homogeneous. Nevertheless, the authors described Nordic management style with aspects such as a short distance between a manager and subordinates, employee-orientation, delegation of responsibility, high trust, planning and order, orientation towards innovation, friendliness, taking care of subordinates as individuals, and direct communication (Lindell & Arvonen, 1996). Studying middle-managers' self-reports in 47 nations, Smith et al. (2003) found that Nordic respondents were found to rely substantially more on subordinates and co-workers and less on supervisors and formal rules compared to non-Nordic respondents. Further, Warner- Søderholm (2012a) investigated Norwegian managers' cultural values in a Scandinavian context. Although the findings indicated egalitarianism, low power distance, consensus in decision-making, and gender equality in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, the managers' commitment to these values differed between the three Scandinavian countries (Warner- Søderholm, 2012a).

Andreasson and Lundqvist (2018) summarized previous research on Nordic leadership style with an emphasis on leadership, culture, and values. Based on prior studies, the authors pointed out a flat organizational structure, delegation of power and responsibility, strong individualistic perspective, cooperation, consensus, and informal procedures and rules as the main characteristics of Nordic leadership (Andreasson & Lundqvist, 2018). Nordic leadership has also been identified as more people-oriented than task-oriented (Pöllänen, 2006) and Nordic leaders have been described more as coaches who motivate the employees and don't tend to emphasize their personal authority and status. Further, an ethical dimension as a result of democracy, human dignity, and responsibility seems to be at the core of Nordic leadership style, and values like openness, trust, and integrity are essential (Andreasson & Lundqvist, 2018). In fact, findings by Warner-Søderholm and Cooper (2016) indicated a wish for even stronger humane orientation, less hierarchy in society, and stronger focus on gender-egalitarianism and future-orientation in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland (Warner- Søderholm & Cooper, 2016).

However, authors have also found notable contrasts in how the managers within the Nordic countries handle routine work events (Smith et al., 2003). In fact, contrasts in Nordic leadership and management between the Nordic countries have been reported by various authors (Larsen & Bruun de Neergaard, 2007; Lämsä, 2010; Lindell & Arvonen, 1996; Smith et al., 2003; Warner-Søderholm, 2012a, 2012b). Furthermore, it is important to note that many of the previously mentioned studies haven't included all five Nordic countries in their analysis, often lacking data from Iceland. This multiple case study collects qualitative data from hotel leaders and employees in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, and Iceland.

Methodology

This multiple case study includes five cases and investigates leadership in the Nordic hospitality industry. The five cases represent the five Nordic countries (Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, and Iceland). More specifically, replication logic (Yin, 2018) has been used to choose similar cases and the study focuses on the Nordic capitals (Oslo, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Helsinki, and Reykjavík). As seen in Figure 1, one chain hotel and one independent hotel are chosen in each case. One leader and two employees are interviewed in each hotel; thus, each case includes six informants. The multiple case study will have in total 30 participants. Criteria for choosing leaders for the study is that they are Nordic citizens (Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Finnish, and Icelandic, respectively) to ensure a thorough understanding of the country's culture, norms, values. Further, the leaders should have a minimum of five years' experience as a leader in the Nordic hospitality industry and international work experience outside the Nordic countries to be able to compare their experiences. The employees can be from any department of the hotel, as long as they are part of the permanent staff and have some experience from the industry

NORWAY (Oslo)	**SWEDEN** (Stockholm)	**DENMARK** (Copenhagen)	**FINLAND** (Helsinki)	**ICELAND** (Reykjavik)
One chain hotel *1 leader *2 employees	**One chain hotel** *1 leader *2 employees	**One chain hotel** *1 leader *2 employees	**One chain hotel** *1 leader *2 employees	**One chain hotel** *1 leader *2 employees
One independent hotel *1 leader *2 employees	**One independent hotel** *1 leader *2 employees	**One independent hotel** *1 leader *2 employees	**One independent hotel** *1 leader *2 employees	**One independent hotel** *1 leader *2 employees

Figure 1. The Multiple Case Study Design.

Qualitative interviews are an appropriate method for the study as they allow the participants to share their understanding of the world (Kvale, 2006) based on their interpretations on various actions and events (Walsham, 1995). The data is collected in individual semi- structured interviews as they provide enough structure to stay within the limits of the project but make it possible for the informants to talk about issues outside the research questions (Brinkmann, 2014). The interviews are conducted face-to-face whenever possible but online meeting software such as Microsoft Teams can also be utilized. The interviews are recorded and transcribed verbatim. Thematic analysis will be conducted by using a computer-assisted software NVivo to identify, analyse and report themes in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Conclusion

The data collection is in progress, and the preliminary findings from the interviews that have been conducted thus far will be presented in the conference. Semi-structured interviews will be conducted with altogether 30 hotel leaders and employees in Oslo, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Helsinki, and Reykjavík during April-October 2022. The preliminary assumptions for the results are that while there are many differences in leadership between the five Nordic countries, there will also be notable similarities that are apparent in all five cases. Based on previous literature, values such as openness, trust, and integrity might be reflected in the results of this study. Besides contributing to filling a knowledge gap in the research area by providing new insights on Nordic leadership in the hospitality context, this study is relevant as it will shed light on leadership practices in the increasingly globalizing Nordic countries. Understanding similarities and differences in leadership can contribute to a better cooperation both within and outside the Nordic countries. The hospitality industry creates an international backdrop for the study which may also provide insights on how migrant workers perceive and respond to Nordic leadership.

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2. Dignity and respect at work: Norwegian hospitality workers' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic

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Introduction

The aim of this study is to examine the experiences of Norwegian hospitality workers during the COVID-19 pandemic. The Corona pandemic had devastating impact on the hospitality industry. A large number of

hospitality workers were laid off temporarily or permanently, resulting in that many found work in other industries. This has resulted in an acute labour shortage in the hospitality industry. In order to improve recruitment and retain qualified personnel, it is necessary to increase knowledge about working conditions and workers' experiences and to analyse the way employment relationship problems are managed in the Norwegian hospitality sector. The present study aims to fill this knowledge gap through a survey of hospitality workers' experiences related to COVID-19, psychological strain, experienced and/or witnessed harassment, and employee voice. This survey is part of a broadercomparative study on the same topic in Ireland (Curran, 2021), Scotland, Sweden, Greece, Italy,Australia and New Zealand.

Literature review

The hospitality and tourism workforce consists of a high percentage of low-paid and part-timeworkers on non-permanent labour contracts with high turnover rates. In Norway, statistics from2019 show that 43 per cent of the total workforce in accommodation and foodservice had immigrant background, while 34 per cent consisted of young workers under the age of 24 (TheNorwegian Hospitality Association). Many are employed in jobs requiring low host language competence, and little formal education or vocational training (Baum, 2018; Linge, Furunes, Baum & Duncan, 2020). Hence, a large part of the hospitality workforce consists of vulnerable groups of employees such as women, migrant workers, young people, and informal workers. Several of these have limited access to social protection due to informal or casual employmentand are among those who have been most affected by the impact of COVID-19 on the hospitality and tourism industry.

International labour mobility and changing demographics have contributed to an increasingly diverse workforce, presenting both opportunities and challenges for the hospitality and tourismindustry. However, according to Robinson, Martins, Solnet and Baum (2019), tourism researchhas largely ignored the complexity and contribution of the hospitality and tourism workforce. Employment conditions in the hospitality and tourism sector are characterized by socialdivision, economic inequality, poor working conditions, and a general lack of respect in comparison with employment in other sectors (Robinson et al., 2019). According to Baum et al. (2020), the results of the COVID-19 pandemic amplified already existing workforcechallenges such as precarious work conditions and low pay.

This paper examines the conditions for decent and sustainable employment in the hospitality industry in Norway as expressed in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 8 whichpromotes "inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all" (United Nations, 2020). The concept of "decent work" generally includes aspects such as respect, fair, productive, safe and meaningful work (Baum, 2018). According to ILO, decent work includes employment creation, social protection, rights at work, and social dialogue (Winchenbach, 2019). Decent work in the hospitality and tourism industry is also closely related to the value of dignity in employment. Dignity at work has been associated with terms such as "value, worth, recognition, respect, self-respect, autonomy, freedom, rank and equality" (Winchenbach et al, 2019, p. 1030), or with "economic security, fair treatment, and satisfying work" (ibid.). Examples of undignified work may include issues such as racism, gender discrimination, low wages and low occupational standings. According to Winchenbach et al. (2019), there is a need for a stronger conceptual grounding on the value of workplace dignity in hospitality and tourism employment seen in relation to the concept of decent work.

Methodology

Data were collected between October 2021 and March 2022 via an online cross-sectional surveythat included both closed- and open-ended questions; 853 respondents answered the questionnaire, of which 585 responses were complete. The survey addressed the following categories: Employment rights, HR-practices, COVID-19, psychological strain,witnessing/experiencing abuse/harassment/bullying, opportunities for voice, management feedback, and suggestions for change. A mixed methods data analysis was conducted using both SPSS and NVivo software applications.

Results and discussion

The results indicate that formal employment requirements were largely in place, with 80% of the respondents reporting that they had received employment contracts and were paid at least the current minimum legal hourly wage. An explanation for this may be that a very high numberof the respondents (93%) were members of trade unions, which is much higher than the overallpercentage of unionized workers in the hospitality sector. 67% had been on furlough during thepandemic, while 51% reported that they had returned to work. Over 70% stated that they felt safe and were excited to return to work, and over 60% trusted that their employers would provide

adequate protection. However, about half of the respondents thought that the employerswould focus more on the customers' needs than the employees' needs, and less than half thoughtthat the customers would respect social distance measures to keep the employees safe.

When it came to questions of occupational mobility, 40% reported no opportunities for pay riseor promotion at work. This may indicate that hospitality work is viewed by many as consistingof "dead-end" jobs. Furthermore, a large number of the respondents reported feelings of fatigueand burn-out from work and feeling "used up" at the end of the day. Over half of the respondentsreported that they had experienced verbal/psychological abuse, 37% had experienced bullying,and 26% had experienced sexual harassment at work. Even higher numbers reported that they had witnessed verbal/psychological abuse, bullying and sexual harassment towards colleagues.The main perpetrators of abuse and harassment were customers (57%), followed by colleagues (50%) and supervisors/managers (44%). 34% of the respondents stated that the incidents had not been reported.

Concerning employee voice, up to 76% of the respondents stated that they had the opportunity to voice concerns, complaints, views and opinions to their employer, while almost 60% were given supportive feedback by their manager. Over half of the respondents felt that they were treated with dignity and respect at work. However, the qualitative data in terms of answers to the open-ended questions presented more nuanced descriptions of the hospitality employees' work experiences, indicating amongst other a difference between Norwegian and immigrant employees' experiences of being treated with dignity and respect at work. Increased wages andmore staff at work were the most frequent answers to what would make hospitality a better place to work, followed by a better regulated worklife, more focus on training, better work hours, better leaders, more respect and communication.

Conclusions and practical implications

The results of the survey show that working in the hospitality industry is perceived as mentallystressful and tiring. In addition, a large number of employees have experienced or witnessed harassment, abuse, and bullying in the workplace. The fact that 90% of the respondents were organized in a trade union and over 40% had Norwegian citizenship indicates that there has been a lack of success in reaching unorganized workers and/or workers with non-Norwegian backgrounds. A more representative sample might have presented another picture. However, the high number of reported harassment, abuse and bullying raises important concerns in termsof decent work and dignity. The results show that customer abuse and harassment is especiallyprevalent, which resonates with other studies of harassment in the hospitality industry (Nimri et al., 2021; Madera et al., 2018). Customer abuse and harassment may be related to a belief that the customer is always right (Madera et al., 2018). Furthermore, it reflects a tendency to normalize and accept such negative behaviours in hospitality work, illustrated through comments such as "It is expected to endure such" or "This is what it has always been like".

In the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic, the hospitality industry faces serious challenges in terms of recruiting and retaining staff. Poor working conditions and lack of decent work haveresulted in that staff may be unwilling to return to the industry after the pandemic. In order to meet the needs of the industry, it is thus vital to address questions of decent work and dignity in hospitality work. The results from this survey shed light on problematic work conditions thatshould be of great concern to hospitality managers, owners and policy makers. Examining hospitality workers' own experiences of central worklife challenges and (lack of) opportunitiesand benefits in hospitality work in Norway may contribute to a better understanding and knowledge of what is needed in order to improve working conditions and attract and retain qualified staff.

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3. Socializing chefs into the world of work – acceptance or resignation? A Norwegian/Australian case

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Introduction

Applications and commencement for training as chefs is declining year on year in both Norwayand Australia. (Dagsland et al, 2017; SSB; NCVER). The drop-out rate, or attrition, is high. The completion rate in Norway, shown as having completed the education in question (including two years of apprenticeship) within 5 years, is around 30%. The completion rate in Australia is similarly low (NCVER). Is there a relationship between how entrants navigate theoccupational socialization process and these declining commencements and completions? In this research we investigate how entrants experience and navigate their entry into the world ofprofessional kitchens.

There are several domains of socialization that act upon the new entrants long before they stepinto the real world by entering an organization. One important domain in shaping theirexpectations is the culinary college, or school, where they encounter different elements from theoretical and practical subjects, as well as practice in training kitchens. Another domain is media, articles about working conditions, programs of and with chefs, such as “Masterchef” and from chefs’ work in restaurants, mostly portraying the celeb chef businesses, the glamour and success (de Pietro, 2017).

Yet the other side of hospitality businesses, the “underbelly”, characterized by strict rules and discipline, and a culture including bullying and violence, is often glossed over (Charalampos, Marinakou, & Cooper, 2018; Palmer, Cooper, & Burns, 2010). There is substantial evidence that there exists a toxic culture in kitchens, especially at the high end (e.g., Michelin star and high-end restaurants), and that this toxic culture is inculcated into the identity of chefs and so becomes self-perpetuating via a masculinized hierarchical structure of kitchens build around Escoffier’s (1987) army-like ‘brigade’ system.

Therefore, the aim of this research, to be more specific, is to examine the process by which young entrants are socialized into and enact their agency to negotiate (accept or reject), dominant occupational norms. How do they express/understand this process and how do theynavigate or use their agency to come to terms with these cultures?

Young entrants are in this study apprentices. The apprenticeship forms an important phase in the socialization process into organizations, into occupations and the roles/identity of chefs, andas youth into the world of work (Robinson et al., 2019). While the socialization process encompasses the broader workforce, organizational and occupational domains, in this researchthe focus is on occupational socialization.

Literature review

Socialization as a general term is often associated with the lifelong development of personality,self-concept and identity. It is a process implying learning and the acquisition of norms, values,skills, and behaviors, in various

contexts encountered during the life course (Hoem, 1982; Hurrelmann, 1988). In the employment context most socialization interest has revolved aroundthe individual/organizational interface. There are several definitions of organizational socialization, beginning with Schein (1968), who defined it as "learning the ropes" and "the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behaviourpatterns of the society, organization, or group which he is entering" (Schein, 1968, pp. 2-3). The focus is on the individual adapting to and fitting into, the organization and its culture, andthe processes by which "…employees are transformed from organization outsiders to participating and effective members" (Feldman, 1981, p. 300).
Occupational socialization can be defined as "the inculcation of occupational values and skills,which might generalize across organizational settings in which the occupation may be practiced" (Fisher, 1986, p. 192). The perspective is still on the individual's adaption to the defined norms, skills, and values of the organization or of the occupational group/community. Therefore, occupational socialization can also be closely connected to developing an occupational identity and belongingness to an occupational community (Salaman, 1974; Van Maanen & Barley, 1982). Indeed, these constructs and processes have been liberally applied to the intriguing occupation of chefs for several decades.

Yet there is limited research on organizational socialization and occupational socialization within hospitality, which explores the experiences, and agency, of chefs. The general assumption is that the structural aspects of the organization and occupational culture are most salient, and that socialization is a process by which individuals adapt to and 'on-board' this culture. This assumption is particularly problematic in the case of occupations characterized bya toxic culture. It almost infers a passive corrupting process that entrants are complicit in accepting. Given the evidence exposing toxic kitchen cultures, or the culinary "underbelly" asit has been described (e.g. Palmer, Cooper, & Burns, 2010), chefs are an ideal cohort on whichto challenge these assumptions.

Another perspective on socialization which is most interesting and relevant for this study, is the social constructivist view (e.g., Berger & Luckman, 1967; Burr, 2015). This perspective underscores the capacity of the individual to influence, alter, or indeed mutually construct socialrealities. Inherent here is the classic interplay between structure and agency, that is an individual's capacity to be able to act upon and influence their social reality. Within an occupational structural context actors need to possess agency to do so, in order to counter structural factors. This leads us to ask how, and to what degree, do culinary entrants (apprentices) enact and use their agency to negotiate and navigate their occupational socialization process and thus influence the structural occupational elements?

This research is informed by literature in other occupations that share the characteristics of professional kitchens.

Methodology
This is a qualitative study. Data were collected from apprentices working in the hospitality industry in Australia and Norway, a total of 24 participants. Recruitment used purposive sampling, in Norway and Australia with assistance from gatekeepers including regional trainingoffices and training colleges. Across the sample most apprentices worked in restaurants, although in Australia the trainees also worked foodservice operations in clubs and hotels. Datawere collected through semi-structured interviews (focusing on their experiences as apprentices). An inductive thematic analysis following Braun and Clark (2006) was conducted.

Results and argumentation
The analyses of the data is not complete yet, but we find clear indications of understanding of the process and choice of strategies, preliminarily sorted into three categories: inculcation/awareness; acceptance (attitudinal); and navigation. The last category can bedivided into positive navigation, indicating using participant's agency to influence and change;and negative navigation, using their agency to escape/avoid/succumb to the structural occupational toxicity.

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)
As this is a work in progress, with the main analyses still to be done, it is difficult to draw anyconclusions or practical implications at the time being. The study will, however, contribute withknowledge on the young entrants' understanding of the occupational socialization process andon whether, and how, they use their agency to navigate, influence or come to terms with the cultures they meet. This knowledge will be useful in the

work on changing these toxic culturesand thus make it possible to give the entrants a relevant occupational socialization process.

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4. Taking 'stock': Taking an intersectional approach to sexual harassment in tourism and hospitality in a Nordic context

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Introduction

The starting point for this research into concerns about levels of sexual harassment in the tourism and hospitality sector lies in two quotes from recent reports. The first suggests that whilst Nordic countries have made progress, "the intersections of gender, race, class, ethnicityand disability have not been properly addressed in relation to violence and harassment" (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2020, p.4). The second quote is more damning, saying there is an "abject lack of research focusing … on preventive work against sexual harassment in Swedish and Nordic working life" (Simonsson, 2021, p. 1). This paper will present preliminary results from an interdisciplinary project, funded by Nordic Information on Gender(NIKK), under the Nordic Council of Ministers, that uses the tourism and hospitality sector asa lens to address these concerns through practice-based research activities in collaboration with industry partners in Iceland, Norway and Sweden.

Our aim, in this paper, is to take an intersectional approach to contribute to trans-Nordic knowledge about issues of sexual harassment in tourism and hospitality workspaces. This aimwill be achieved in collaboration with

industry partners who will help by providing insight into prevention and intervention strategies for sexual harassment. From the research aim, two research questions emerge:
How have industry organisations (including tourism associations, unions and other organisations involved in ensuring positive workplace conditions) worked with their membership (employees, employers and other stakeholders) on prevention of sexualharassment in tourism and hospitality workplaces?
What are definitions of sexual harassment in the tourism and hospitality sector across different Nordic contexts and what impacts do these definitions have on the acceptance of behaviours that may be perceived or understood as forms of sexual harassment?

Literature Review
It is well known that the prevalence of sexual harassment in the tourism and hospitality sectoris very high compared to many other sectors and workers in the tourism and hospitality industry are often exposed to workplace-related mistreatment and violence (Ram, 2018).
Sexual harassment in the tourism and hospitality industry is a challenge in several ways. Itcan occur between colleagues and/or be instigated by management or by guests. Part of theproblem lies with the way sexual harassment is defined and experienced. A report for UN Women (APPG, 2021) examined the challenge of defining sexual harassment and how varying definitions of sexual harassment can contribute to under-reporting.

Hospitality and tourism workers are characterized as vulnerable (McDowell et al., 2009; HRF,2016), and with an income insecurity that strengthens their dependence on managers and supervisors (Ram, 2018, p. 764). Poulston (2008, p. 238) found that "casual and part-time female staff" are among the most vulnerable worker groups. Furthermore, the hospitality and tourism industry employs a large number of young people and migrant workers due to its labour-intensive nature and low demands for language skills in certain types of backstage positions (Linge et al., 2020). The high levels of international migrant workers or citizens with an immigrant background working in tourism, especially in hotels and restaurants in the Nordic countries (Underthun & Jordhus-Lier, 2018; Júlíusdóttir & Halldórsdóttir, 2020; Backman & Klaesson 2021), calls for an intersectional approach when studying the prevention of sexual harassment in the industry in a Nordic context.

For the purposes of this paper, intersectional perspectives are seen to address issues of discrimination and subservience connected to belonging to more than one identity category. Intersectionality theory rejects the idea that identity can be considered in a vacuum and assertsthat to fully be able to understand an individual's experience, one must take into considerationeach of their identities (McCormick-Huhn et al., 2019). In doing this, one must also consider issues of power, as in Crenshaw's (1991 in Walby et al. 2012) division between structural andpolitical intersectionality, "because it reminds us that even within marginalized groups, structural relations of power create a social hierarchy that can affect whose experiences are made visible and whose are rendered invisible (Brassel et. al, 2020, p. 384). Neglecting to consider intersectionality theory can limit our understanding of how sexual harassment may differ across identity aspects (ibid., p. 384).

Whilst sexual harassment has been addressed in numerous studies on hospitality and tourism (see e.g. Nimri et al., 2021; Poulston, 2008; Ram, 2018; Ram et al., 2016; Worke etal., 2021; Jung & Yoon, 2019; Alrawadieh & Demirdelen Alrawadieh, 2020), intersectional
approaches are largely lacking in literature on worklife and sexual harassment (Brassel et al., 2020) and, more specifically, in tourism and hospitality research (Morgan & Pritchard, 2019).Brassel et al. (2020) state that while the literature has pointed out the pervasive nature of sexual harassment in the workplace, there is little research that engages with intersectional theory in a critical and meaningful way and this lack of research "leaves us with fragmented insight into how having several marginalized identities (e.g., being Black, queer, and a woman) may further complicate an individual's experience" (Brassel et al., 2020, p. 383- 384). Thus, taking an intersectional approach in this study allows a broader focus encompassing all workers and all work situations, helping to reduce social and power inequalities that limit who and how issues of sexual harassment are experienced, reported and prevented.

Method
In this paper, we will report on the first stage of the research. This project plans to take 'stock'and compare campaigns, reporting systems and prevention strategies in the tourism and hospitality industry in the three participating Nordic countries of Iceland, Norway and Sweden. This will be achieved through the collection, collation and analysis of documents (i.e. reports, campaign and marketing materials) from the project's industry partners.

Materials will be collected from all three countries before being analysed using thematic analysis (Walters, 2016). Research triangulation will ensure that the analysis provides multiple points of validation and illustrates a rigorous and transparent process (Decrop, 1999).The thematic analysis and triangulation process will be developed collaboratively with the industry partners to ensure consistency across the Nordic countries and to ensure the researchprocess is morally and ethically sound and that any concerns of information confidentiality are taken into account.

In Norway, the working life partner, the Norwegian Labour Inspection Authority, will facilitate involvement with a tripartite organisation which include actors from the Ministry ofLabour and Social Affairs, the Equality and Anti-Discrimination Ombud and various social partners including Fellesforbundet (trade union), Parat (trade union), NHO Reiseliv (employers' and trade organization) and Virke (Federation of Norwegian Enterprise). In Sweden close collaboration will be with HRF (the Swedish Hotel and Restaurant Union), andVISITA (the Swedish tourism employer's organisation) as well as the Swedish Work Environment Authority. In Iceland, collaboration will be with the *Icelandic Confederation ofLabour* (Alþýðusamband Íslands) and the *Icelandic Travel Industry Association* (Samtök ferðaþjónustunnar), as well as the *Tourism Skills Centre* (Hæfnisetur ferðaþjónustunnar).

Results and Conclusions

This paper will present some of the preliminary results from the projects 'stock-taking' activities. The results will illustrate the role that industry partners play in facilitating prevention and intervention strategies about sexual harassment in tourism and hospitality workplaces. It is also expected that the stock-take activities will reveal wider issues and challenges around harassment. However, it is hoped that alongside negative stories about harassment in the tourism and hospitality sector, there are glimmers of potential, evidence ofsuccessful actions to counter sexual harassment and best practice strategies that can be takenand utilised more broadly across the Nordic region.

Overall, this research intends to generate knowledge about the current situation in the three countries in order to work with the industry to begin to deal with the criticisms raised in the introduction. The project aims to have both research and practical 'value' by providing a detailed overview of relevant knowledge on sexual harassment in the tourism and hospitalitysector to inform future activities for researchers and industry practitioners. The project hopesto grow, develop and strengthen collaboration and action against sexual harassment between industry partners and researchers across three Nordic countries.

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Session 5.3. Stakeholders' participation in sustainable tourism development

1. Proposing an Ethical Management Framework for Wildlife Tourism Activities: Stakeholder Participation in Seal Watching in Iceland

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This conceptual paper aims to addresses the need to manage human-wildlife interactions in tourism settings to optimize positive outcomes for all stakeholders: wildlife, local communities, and visitors. We investigate theoretical and practical understandings of wildlife watching management to build a methodological foundation for addressing ethically responsible strategies and develop a more ethical framework. Using this framework, we examine seal watching tourism in Iceland as a case study to identify the need for future management actions,which can ultimately devise a plan applicable for responsible seal watching in particular, as well as for wildlife watching activities for other areas in Iceland and elsewhere.

Wildlife watching as a tourism activity has potential to stimulate the local economy within ruralcommunities and facilitate a stronger awareness of wildlife conservation amongst tourists and stakeholders (Higginbottom, 2004; Sekercioglu, 2002). It also has potential to negatively impact the welfare and ecology of wildlife populations (Granquist & Sigurjonsdottir, 2014; Ziegler, Dearden, & Rollins, 2012). Wildlife tourism managers are tasked with the demands ofdeveloping tourism management plans that meet the needs of the local community and tourists,while also minimizing negative impacts on wildlife (Granquist & Nilsson, 2016; Granquist & Nilsson, 2013).

Although management plans often focus on minimizing negative impacts of tourism, responsible management strategies guided by ethical frameworks are often absent in the wildlifetourism literature (Burns, 2015a; 2015b). Involving local communities assists managers to understand their needs and to gain public support for wildlife tourism development plans (Scheyvens, 1999; Sebele, 2010); however, studies on hearing local voices to understand how sustainability and responsibility in tourism is perceived or understood are limited. Hearing local voices further empowers community development, underlines the importance of local knowledge and culture, and enhances social capacity (Moscardo, 2011).

Philosophical principles guide wildlife tourism management, whether purposefully or not, and anthropocentrism has largely dominated how management actions are devised (Burns et al., 2011; Dobson, 2006). Anthropocentric management is often focused on understanding visitor types and experience to maximize visitor and host satisfaction with less attention given to the natural environment. A call to move away from this management style means embracing other philosophical principles, such as biocentrism and

ecocentrism. In our search for an appropriateethical framework, we propose adoption of an ecocentric paradigm that entails interdisciplinaryand inter-sectoral research and knowledge. This can facilitate building responsible managementactions with the understanding that humans are integrally connected with their environment and that human action has direct consequences for both community and natural livelihoods.

In Iceland, where nature is the main attraction for tourists, management plans for wildlife watching activities are scarce and the need to develop evidence-based management is pressing.

The demand for wildlife watching tourism has increased in Iceland and visitor interest in seal watching tourism has recently grown (Aquino & Burns, 2021). Seal watching activities revolvearound the two breeding seal species in Iceland; harbour seals (*Phoca vitulina)* and grey seals (*Halichoerus grypus*). Harbour seals are easily accessible to visitors in several areas, through land and boat based seal watching activities. Grey seals normally haul out in more remote areas,but can sometimes be spotted in harbour seal colonies. Visitor activities, such as frequent visitsof seal colonies during sensitive periods, approaching the animals too closely, and making loudnoises or vivid movements, may lead to disturbance of seals. Disturbance may result in alteration of natural behaviours and changes in distribution of seal populations, which in turn can affect the fitness of the animals (Cassini, Szteren & Fernandez-Juricic, 2004; Granquist &Sigurjónsdóttir, 2014). The current conservation status of the Icelandic harbour seal populationis critically endangered and the grey seal population is endangered (Granquist & Hauksson, 2019a; Granquist & Hauksson, 2019b; Icelandic Institute of Natural History, 2019.), further underlining the urgent need to develop effective management approaches to facilitate responsible seal watching in Iceland.

Our Ethical Management Framework (EMF) (Figure 1) is shown as a bi-directional spiral flowand is designed to offer flexibility to deal with challenges and accommodate perspectives of multiple stakeholder groups. It uses Mihalic's (2016) proposed understanding of responsibility and sustainability in three phases: awareness, agenda, and action. This recognizes that tourismindustry, government, locals, and the academic community should all be involved in developingmanagement strategies. These stakeholders are all likely to have different levels of awareness of wildlife management action needed (i.e., from unawareness to comprehensive understanding) and wildlife managers and other stakeholders may have different agendas based on their understanding of the concepts of sustainability and responsibility. It is important to understand the different levels because a lack of attention to any one may create a breakdown in management actions and support for management plans.

Community Capitals Framework (CCF) is used in the tourism literature to analyse and interpretcommunity and economic development efforts from a systems perspective, emphasising assetswith a focus on investments (Emery & Flora, 2006) based on the principals of social justice andcan predict community resiliency (Magis, 2010). Using CCF as an approach allows managers to see how various sectors of the community are changing in response to development strategies(Phillips & Pittman, 2015). In applying the CCF to the EMF, the spiral movement of the EMFpaints a clear picture of how management actions can be transformative (or breakdown) whileaccounting for changes in types of tourists (from biospheric to egocentric or vice versa), different philosophical views between managers and other stakeholder groups (such as anthropocentric vs ecocentric), changing community needs, and how each of these linkages interacts with each other. Wildlife tourism managers should be aware of social networks that link local actors and purposefully seek out partnerships that will cocreate equitable managementactions that promote and protect the economic, social, cultural, natural, and human resources ofthe natural environment in which they occur.

Figure 1: Ethical Management Framework (Aquino et al. 2021).

Applying our EMF to the case of seal watching tourism on Vatnsnes Peninsula, we argue that stakeholder involvement should occur at every phase. Each phase progression should be a spiralmoving up and down to show how trends and community needs changes over time. Our framework acknowledges that the process of coevolution of knowledge involves both reflexivity in interdisciplinary research, industry, and local knowledge. It enables Iceland's seal watching management to be described within an understanding of responsible (appropriate action) and sustainable (theory) management actions. For example, through trans-disciplinary and interdisciplinary research, we know that the conservation status of the Icelandic harbour seal population is Critically Endangered and the grey seal population is Vulnerable, that visitors to Iceland are increasingly interested in seal watching experiences (Burns, 2018; Burns et al., 2018), and that tourism can negatively impact the seals (Granquist & Sigurjonsdottir, 2014).

Current progress towards responsible seal watching tourism management in Iceland is in the awareness phase. This is the case for management of all wildlife tourism in the country. Furtherevidence-based wildlife watching management in Iceland must be added to Iceland's agenda todevelop a strategy for future research and responsible management actions. Developing an Icelandic management plan for wildlife watching that moves away from the dominance of anthropocentrism towards a more ethical ecocentrism approach should be considered. Stakeholders should lead implementation of a sustainable action phase for management of wildlife tourism.

We built an EMF for managing wildlife tourism by reviewing current literature that investigatestheoretical and practical understandings of this field using an Icelandic seal watching case study. The framework may help to guide the use of ethical practices for managing the human- wildlife interactions in alternate settings. Wildlife tourism involves numerous stakeholders, thus necessitating the use of knowledge and practices from both the social and natural scienceswhen formulating management strategies. It requires a systems thinking approach that incorporates interdisciplinary and inter-sectorial research and knowledge set on a foundation of environmental philosophy. We argue that management actions must also include participationof multiple stakeholder groups. For example, wildlife tourism development has potential to affect both the local ecology and local community livelihoods (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017) and managers should look at wildlife tourism management from a systems perspective; examininghow specific management actions may affect other areas (Emery & Flora, 2006). From this perspective, managers can facilitate better understanding of the critical role wildlife has among other community capitals, making specific management actions more effective and increasing the likelihood of community support. As a next step we invite others to test the proposed EMFin empirical studies across a wider range of wildlife tourism settings beyond the seal watchingcase described here.

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2. Social sustainability and supply chain management in tourism. The case of Iceland

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Introduction

The social aspect of sustainability in supply chain management has been relegated to a remote second place in previous research (see e.g., Tsvetkova, 2020). Thus, there is a gap in the understanding of how SCM is perceived and experienced by residents, which is an important indicator of the social sustainability in the supply chain. This study aims to address this gap through describing what residents in different tourism destinations in Iceland have to say about the tourism businesses, tourism management and tourism flows in their daily environment and analysing it from a SCM perspective.

Supply chain management in tourism is complex. The tourist is a consumer of a variety of products from a range of suppliers that may or may not be coordinating their management of supply. The producers contributing to the supply chain may even have conflicting short-term interests. For example, an airline is interested in selling as many seats as possible while a destination developer may wish to control visitor numbers to sustainably manage their product development. Mismanagement of the tourism supply chain can lead to negative social and cultural impacts in destinations. High visitation can be disruptive, affecting resident quality of life but conversely, low visitation can have negative economic impacts such as loss of jobs and income.

Literature

Traditionally supply chain management (SCM) focuses on business, particularly the business- to-business relations. The complexity of activities involving large numbers of interdependent actors in a supply network makes the coordination of supply chain hard to achieve (Holmberg, 2000). In the case of service supply chains, matching and management of processes, information flow, service performance and capacity is one of the issues

that makes the network difficult to coordinate and in the case of tourism can lead to overtourism (Ellram, et al., 2007). Much research effort has been directed towards business relationships in recent years, particularly with long-term collaboration between customers and suppliers in the supply chain (Giunipero, et al., 2008). The chain metaphor refers to companies that are engaged in multiple business-to-business and customer relationships that form a network through which goods and services flow (Lambert & Cooper; 2000). This is however reductive as it leaves out the social context of the communities in which these chains operate. The social aspect is one of the dimensions of sustainability, but it has been overshadowed by environmental and economic perspectives (Mota, et al., 2015).

Iceland has been named as a destination suffering overtourism as the number of tourists exceeds the tolerance limits of residents, causes damage to nature and stress on the national infrastructure (Sæþórsdóttir, Hall, and Wendt, 2020). These concerns arose in the wake of an exponential growth rate of visitation after the finance crisis of 2008 when international arrivals rose from 480,000 in 2010 to 2,3 million in 2018 (Icelandic Tourist Board, n.d.). The Icelandic Tourism Board launched a nationwide survey of resident attitudes toward tourists and tourism the year 2014 (Huijbens & Bjarnadóttir, 2015). This was the beginning of a longitudinal research program on residents' attitudes to and experiences with tourism and tourism development. The data from this longitudinal study forms the basis of this paper.

Methods

Our study is part of a longitudinal research program initiated and sponsored by the Icelandic Tourist Board that we have been engaged in via the Icelandic Tourism Research Centre and Hólar University. Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts and tourists in Iceland have been

monitored since 2014 through national and local surveys and interviews with randomly selected residents. In its research agenda, the Icelandic Tourist Board measured how content the residents are about tourism in Iceland through national surveys and interviews (Icelandic Tourist Board, 2021). This longitudinal study provides an opportunity to build a timeline of resident attitudes, which is an important indicator of social sustainability of tourism. The selection of communities for this study reflected both geographical spread in Iceland and different characteristics of tourism. Thus, some of the communities studied dealt with mass tourism, while others had to battle remoteness and lack of infrastructure.

The interviews were semi-structured, and the sample was randomly selected from residents who were 18 years and older and not employed in the tourism sector. The interview schedule included both items on attitudes to and experiences with tourists in the respondents' daily environment. The schedule also included items about the tourism industry and governance, covering both the private and public sector roles in tourism development.

In total 108 interviews and three focus group sessions were conducted every second year from 2015-2021 in eleven communities. The interviews were carried out in respondents' place of choice except the interviews and focus groups conducted in 2020-2021 that were online due to COVID-19 restrictions. The mean length of the interviews was an hour, all interviews were recorded and transcribed. They were analysed independently based on content. First the categories inherent in the interview schedule were considered and then new categories formed through content provided by respondents in addition to what was in the interview schedule. Interviewer's notes and recordings were also used to gauge the affective content; that is, what emotions respondents expressed. This was taken as evidence of both attitudes and the relative importance respondents attach to items.

The national and local surveys were based upon structured questionnaires combining a variety of question formats and administered by telephone interviews to a randomly selected sample of residents 18 years and older. The survey instrument monitors changes in the residents' assessment of quality of life and their local way of life due to tourism in the prevailing tradition of social impact research.

Results

The findings show that across the years, and in both seasons (summer and winter), Iceland's residents were overwhelmingly positive about the number of tourists with many, particularly in winter, thinking that the number was too low. In addition, their opinions about the positive aspects of tourism have been consistent over time, and the economic perspectives inherent in opportunities for income generation and employment and improved quality of life are prominent. However, residents are less positive towards the increased pressure on

nature and infrastructure such as the road system, public lavatories, the health care system and the local housing market. In other words, increased tourist numbers resulted quickly in increased pressure on shared spaces.

Our work contributes to the body of literature on social sustainability of tourism by foregrounding the role and satisfaction of residents in a destination where the supply chains are under pressure through overtourism, that is in Iceland. They reveal both resident concerns as well as the aspects of tourism with which they are satisfied. Residents were concerned about overcrowding at certain places and times and there is a marked difference between satisfaction with tourist numbers in high and low season. These issues point to a breakdown in supply chain management, which may be difficult to coordinate due to differing interests among stakeholders.

Conclusions

The case of tourism social sustainability in Iceland illustrates the following issues and topics in SCM that need attention: Tourism takes place in residents' daily environment, which means that their homes and even themselves can become an object of the tourist gaze. Residents contribute informally to the hosting of tourists in their daily environment as a destination. Their interaction with tourists, welcoming and assisting tourists, acknowledging their presence, is an intangible and invaluable contribution to the tourism supply chain. The longitudinal interview data indicate that tourism operators and workers such as guides need to pay more attention to how they represent the residents as those may not feel comfortable as parts of a tourism product supply.

Practically, our findings are of importance to the tourism industry, government and community. As we have identified, residents have an ambiguous placement in the supply chain network of the tourism industry, where they can be suppliers of goods and services for tourists but also share services such as road and shopping infrastructure with tourists. Their satisfaction with these services is important for sustainability of the chain, and thus their varying placement along the chain needs to be taken into account.

Overall, from our study we can see that SCM theory is very relevant but seldom applied to analyse tourism sustainability. This study shows how future SCM research can reveal issues that should be addressed for a more socially sustainable tourism.

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3. The role of food festivals in promoting culinary heritage

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Intro defining the aim of the research

The festival is a celebration of the values of the community, its ideology, identity and continuity. Food festivals are conducive to the influx of tourists to the region, extending the length of stay in a given place, the inflow of capital to the local economy, increasing employment, improving the image of the region, extending the tourist season and lowering the costs associated with seasonality, as well as increasing the value of local products. Heritage includes many practices and traditions passed down from generation to generation through family, community or territory. Local cuisine (culinary traditions) is an essential part of the intangible cultural heritage. However, the same literature is less extensive when it comes to who and for what reasons wants to uphold local culinary traditions, and above all, viable. Moreover, existing research provides little information on the involvement of food companies in traditional structures and the benefits and dilemmas that arise from them. Therefore, the main purpose of the research was to obtain knowledge about the activities of exhibitors and their approach to culinary heritage. The research will contribute to the expansion of the currently limited research on the involvement of food producers in the preservation of culinary heritage. In addition, the research will increase knowledge about heritage-based festivals.

Literature review

Currently, the leading theme of events is the restoration and preservation of cultural traditions, authentic cuisine, culinary customs and traditions on a different scale (local, regional, national) and the promotion of local products (Trabskaya et al. 2015). Promoting high-quality local food products can be an important reason to organize festivals in the territory where they are produced, as they can benefit both the territory and the local population (Folgado-Fernández et al., 2019; Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000). Food festivals are becoming a key element in the protection, development and branding of villages (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014). Kwiatkowski's research (2018) shows that food festivals can play different roles, e.g. strengthen the links between farmers, food producers, institutions and consumers who are interested in local food. For food producers, food festivals are an opportunity to test and sell their products, as well as observe other producers (Kwatkowski, & Hjalager, 2018). Food festivals can also inspire the development of entrepreneurship of the inhabitants of a given area in the field of small-scale food production (e.g. bread, honey, wine, beer, etc.). Some authors also emphasize that food festivals can be a sign of continuity with the past and guardian of tradition (Gibson & Connell, 2012; Richards, 2015). Through food festivals, tourists have the opportunity to get closer to the local traditions of the area, having the opportunity to experience the authentic way of life of the population in a friendly atmosphere (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000, Getz, 2000). Authenticity can be a way to meet the growing demands of tourists. Consequently, in many parts of the world, food events and festivals are being held more and more often in order to attract the benefits they bring to the place where they are held. The impact of festivals is significant not only for the tourism sector, but above all for the local economy due to the consumption of local gastronomic products (Folgado-Fernández et al., 2019). The suppliers of local food at festivals are exhibitors, but the literature on the subject indicates that in the field of food festivals, guests and residents are the most frequently studied (Dodd et al, 2006). Moreover, despite the fact that the subject of food events and food tourism are often discussed in the literature on the subject, food festivals based on culinary heritage are still poorly researched (Trabskaya et al. 2015).

Methodology

In order to obtain answers to the research questions, a survey was carried out among food exhibitors participating in food festivals in Poland. In order to achieve the assumed goal, a questionnaire survey was conducted with the owners of local activities, obtaining detailed information on the history of the conducted activities. The questionnaire for exhibitors included questions about the reasons for starting a business related to food production, the type of products offered, the relationship between the manufactured products and local traditions, and activity at food festivals. These issues have been raised by many authors conducting research in this field (Chen and Elston, 2013; Getz and Carlsen, 2000; Stefanovic et al. 2010; Sloka et al., 2013; Hefer, 2015; Barba-Sanchez and Atienza-Sahuquillo, 2012; Pret and Cogan 2019; Omaka, 2018). Thanks to this method, detailed answers were obtained.

Results and argumentation

According to research, one of the main motives behind the interest in the production of food products by manufacturers is the desire to promote local tradition and culture. On the other hand, producers much less frequently indicated that the motive for starting a business was the economic factor (i.e. the desire to gain financial independence, maintain a household, and obtain additional income), which indicates a high commitment to local tradition and culture. Moreover, the manufacturers indicated that the main inspirations for the manufactured products offered were family traditions, messages from generation to generation, as well as old recipes and recipes. Which proves being rooted in local traditions and the region. Additionally, as indicated by the producers, the raw materials from which the offered products are produced come from the producers' own crops or the local market. Thanks to this, producers have access to raw materials of appropriate quality, and thanks to the supply on the local market, the local potential is strengthened.

Conclusions (theory and practical implications)

The research shows that food festivals can be an important element in promoting local food products, as they gather exhibitors who are passionate about discovering, showing and spreading local traditions and culture. Each of these people is a living history of the region. Thanks to them, visitors to the festival can get to know and taste the culinary traditions of the visited region. On the other hand, the relations between the actors participating in the festival. they can help local communities promote their territory and local products. Therefore, not only producers, but also event organizers, local authorities and residents should be involved in the process of preserving and promoting the culinary heritage.

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Session 5.4 Workshop: The Individual and the mass – rethinking relations

1. Understanding the Tourist in the Crowd: Erika Adamsson's Art as Interpreter of Mass Tourism

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What research and art have in common is curiosity about different phenomenon. In this presentation, we direct our curiosity at mass tourism and its tourists. In tourism research, interest in mass tourism and crowds have often been limited and with a focus on management and impacts. We wish to challenge these views and address the complex relationship between the individual and the masses of mass tourism. In a dialogue between tourist research and art, we discuss various interpretations of Finnish Artist Erika Adamsson's paintings, and how these can shed light on the mass tourist as an individual in the crowd.
Our material consists of our interpretations of some of Erika Adamsson's paintings from 2017 and our discussion based on our interview with her in 2021. Adamsson's art depicts tourism and tourists in various more-or-less traditional tourist destinations, for example, the Canary Islands and the Sistine Chapel and in typical loci of tourist activity including on beaches, as well as by the pool. According to Adamsson, her paintings bring to the fore rather stereotypical figures and situations, but with an empathetic gaze that seeks to understand rather than to judge. Based on this exchange of ideas, we argue that art can provide a useful means to address the relationship between individuals and crowds in tourism.

2. Regenerative tourism: perspectives and potential for Finland – a buzzword or an opportunity for a transformational system change?

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Before the pandemic, the discussions about the tourism industry were dominated by mass tourism, overtourism and huge growth expectations (Hussein, 2021; Goodwin, 2019; Dodds & Butler, 2019). Requests for more sustainable tourism have been heard for a long time, but during the pandemic they became louderand more urgent. The crisis was seen as an opportunity for a rethink of tourism, even as a chance for a fundamental change, and it was acknowledged that the prevalent sustainability thinking in tourism was too focused on maximising growth as well as serving the needs of the tourists and the companies offering tourism-related services (see, e.g., Saarinen, 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020). Models focusing on a resilient andsustainable approach supporting local communities and heritage, job creation and environmental protectionwere developed. One of these models was regenerative tourism (Cave & Dregde, 2020; Hussein, 2021; Duxbury et al.,2021), which has become a popular concept on the global tourism scene in the pandemic recovery.
The concept of sustainable tourism has been criticised for being vague (e.g., Singh, 2012) and not resonatingwell with the general idea of sustainable development (Saarinen, 2021). Sustainability as an idea, just surviving and enduring, has been rather uninspiring as well (Visser, 2022). There is, however, also a lack of aclear definition of regenerative tourism (Enhill & et al., 2020; Bellato et al., 2022) and how it differs from other alternative forms of tourism. A regenerative approach to tourism often highlights tourism as a healingforce and a change agent to revitalise human and natural ecosystems (Laurent, 2021; Bellato et al., 2022). Anna Pollock (2019), the most well-known expert of regenerative tourism, sees regenerative tourism as something bolder and more inspiring than sustainable tourism. Regenerative tourism aims not just to do lessdamage, but to restore the harm that our system has already done to the natural world. Regenerative tourismthus means something more than just sustainability as it strongly highlights inclusivity, nurturing, thriving and revitalising living systems, be they ecosystems, societies or economies, as well as giving back instead of just doing less harm (Duxbury et al., 2021; Bellatto & Cheer, 2021; Visser, 2022). There is still scant researchabout how regenerative tourism can be implemented in larger destinations, whether the concept allows forscalability or if it is applicable as a niche option only.
As regenerative tourism is a relatively new concept with a limited number of studies and examples available,and mainly developed in countries such as New Zealand and Australia, this study aims at gaining an understanding of the potential of regenerative tourism as an approach for tourism development in Finland. The study is a work in progress with an explorative case study approach as a starting point. The study includesa literature review, and the data collection is done by expert interviews to find out what tourism companiesand experts think of the concept of regenerative tourism and its potential in Finland. The preliminary resultsshow that in the Finnish

context regenerative tourism is seen as a collaborative and an inclusive tourism planning process, a novel term for doing good, making local people and places flourish, rather than focusingon continuous growth. On the other hand, the interviewees also questioned the novelty of the thinking behind the regenerative tourism approach. For instance, in Southeast Asia, community-based tourism has been in focus of development already for a long time and, as an approach, it is rather similar to regenerativetourism.

3. The “home-is-safer-than-abroad-bias” in tourists’ perceptions of terrorism risk

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A very limited number of publications, have found something of a “home-is-safer-than-abroad-bias”, indicating that tourists judge the same risks to be lower at home than abroad, irrespective of where home is. Larsen et al. (2007) found that respondents from 48 countries judged various food-related risks to be lower in their home country than abroad. Wolff & Larsen (2016) showed that tourists fromall over the world agreed on the riskiness of numerous travel destinations, with one exception: respondents always rated their own country to be among the safest.
These observations are interesting. They might have practical implications and they might even constitute a finding of interest for the generic disciplines like psychology. However more research isneeded to establish the phenomenon.
The present study set out to investigate whether a “home-is-safer-than-abroad-bias” could be found in risk judgements regarding terrorism. Data were collected during the summers of 2016, 2017, 2018,and 2019 among tourists to Norway. 2435 respondents from nine countries filled in a questionnaire and rated the risk of terrorism for them as a tourist in the same nine countries and their capitals.
Results showed that respondents ranked their own country/capital as safer than other respondents for six out of 18 ratings. In no case did respondents rate their own country/capital as riskier than foreign respondents did. Thus, our findings show some, albeit limited support for a “home-is-safer- than-abroad-bias” in tourists risk ratings regarding terrorism. Possible explanations and implicationswill be discussed.