

Literature study

The Nature of Services

The Nature of Hospitality

The Nature of Experiences

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1 Introduction

In this report the concepts services, hospitality and experiences will be discussed. The goal of this report is to provide insight in what is written in literature about services, hospitality and experiences and to help defining the concept hospitality services for the Research Centre of the Saxion Hospitality Business School. Important concepts which are related to hospitality are services and experiences. These three domains are the centre of this report.

In the first chapter of this report, the nature of services is outlined. First of all, the history of services and the different definitions of the concept services are described. Services are becoming much more important for the economy. Organisations have changed the way they look at services. First, organisations had a product-oriented approach: organisations were focussing on the organisation itself and thought that services were not so important for the customer. Later, this approach changed into a customer focus, the organisation was focussing on the customer and realised that the first contact customers have with the organisation has to deal with services. So services became much more important.

Last decades, also the definition of services changed. In the 1960s, 70s and 80s the definition of services focussed on the phenomenon of services itself and often only includes the services offered by the so-called service organisations. Gummesson and Grönroos criticized these definitions and draw up that services are more like processes, of which the customer only sees the visible parts of the service.

In chapter one also models which clarify the phenomenon services, like the Flower of Service of C. Lovelock are described. At the end of the chapter some concepts which are related to services are introduced. Examples of these concepts are customer relationship management, relationship marketing and the quality of services.

It was concluded that services is a varied concept of which many models and views exist. In the past the approach of services included just the tangible aspects of services, but Gummesson and especially Grönroos changed this point of view. Grönroos found out that services must be seen as a process and that the interaction between consumer and service provider is very important.

In chapter two, the concept hospitality was deepened. Hospitality is a part of services, but has its own characteristics. In the chapter about hospitality it will be clarified that hospitality is a very complicated concept. Frequently researchers investigated the concept hospitality, but in chapter two of this report it will become clear that there is no general agreement about what hospitality exactly is. There is also no agreement about the characteristics of hospitality. It is important to agree about the definition and characteristics of hospitality, because future employees in the hospitality industry might be influenced by this vagueness. If they do not know what hospitality is, it is difficult to implement hospitality activities.

First of all, in chapter two the history of hospitality will be described. It will be clarified that hospitality exists for a long period of time. The way of appearance of hospitality has

changed over time. Also several definitions of hospitality are discussed. There are differences in the definitions of the phenomenon hospitality.

Also characteristics of hospitality are described and some models are shown, like the hospitality model of Jellema and Hattink. Remarkable is that there have not been developed so many models about hospitality than models about services. At the end of the chapter concepts which are related to hospitality are described. However, the focus is on the role of the guest and host in hospitality, because their role is very important in hospitality. The other concepts are explained in the chapters about services and experiences, that is why they are not explained again in the chapter about hospitality.

The third chapter of the report is about experiences. The last years more attention is paid to experiences in the services and hospitality business. The guest is not satisfied anymore with standard service, but wants more. One prefers to experience something.

The chapter starts with the history and definitions of experiences. Especially the last years there is attention for experiences, but it will be clarified that experiences exist for a much longer period. For example Walt Disney was important in the beginning of creating experiences.

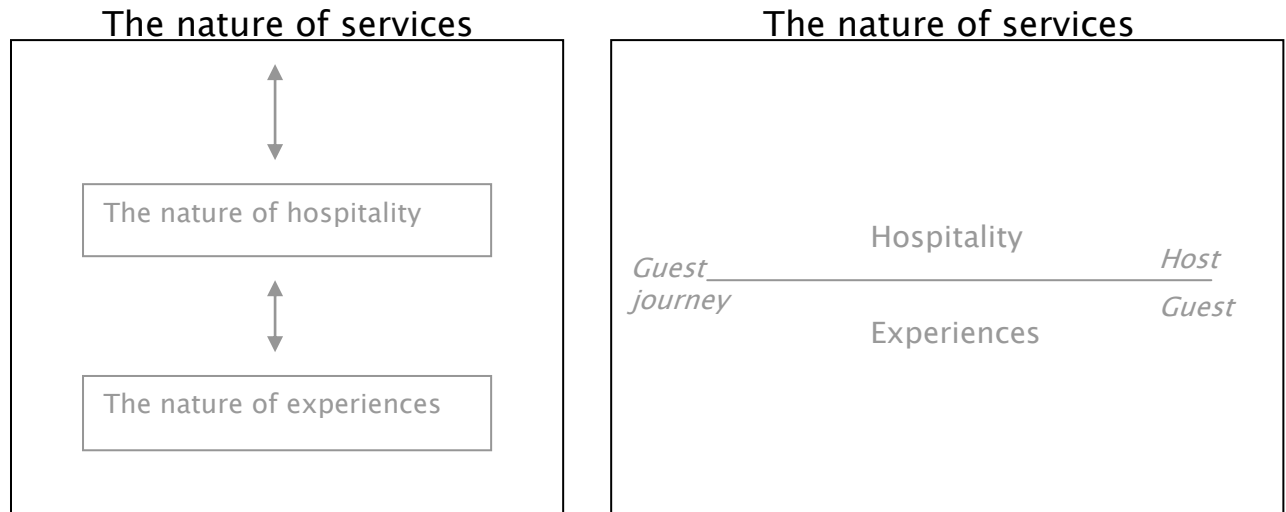
Next, the characteristics of experiences are mentioned, near what also models are shown which clarify the nature of experiences. Examples of these models are the interactive experience model and the Guest Journey model. The chapter ends with concepts which are related to experiences, like imagineering and the experience economy.

At the end of this report a conclusion follows, in which the nature of services, hospitality and experiences is related to each other.

Deventer, January 2010

2 The nature of services

The main part of this chapter is the following question: What is the nature of services? The context of this question is shown in the figure below.



To give an answer to the question '*What is the nature of services?*', several sources of literature are used. In this chapter, the short history of services is described and also the different definitions of the concept 'services' are presented. The definition of services had changed during the time, these different definitions are mentioned. After that, the concept 'services' will be deepened more and it will be described of which components services actually exist. The Flower of Service of C. Lovelock and the Augmented Service Offering of C. Grönroos will be discussed.

After the components of services, models representing services follow as well as concepts which are related to services, for example relationship, relationship marketing, Customer Relationship Management, communication, quality of services and service management. Also marketing plays a role in services, because the marketing of services asks a different approach compared to the marketing of physical products. However, in this report the focus is on the previously mentioned concepts.

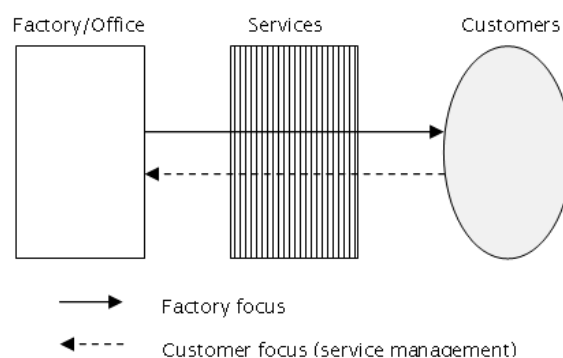
At the end of this chapter a conclusion follows, in which the most important matters related to services are outlined. This will be an introduction to the next chapter, concerning hospitality.

History and definitions of services

In this paragraph the history of services and several definitions of services will be discussed. The definition of services changed during the time. These definitions will be discussed in this paragraph.

The focus of organisations has changed during the last decades. The traditional approach of organisations is that the organisation itself is the key success in the marketplace. Services were seen as add-ons, not as something of real value. There was a product-oriented approach, which is demonstrated by the black arrow in the figure below (figure 1).

During the last years the product-oriented approach changed into a customer focus. In figure 1 the striped arrow represents the service-oriented approach. This approach states that various service elements are the first elements of the output of the firm that the customers sees and perceives. These service processes create added value for the customer.



*Figure 1 – The customer focus: the organisation as a service business
(Grönroos, 2000)*

Because organisations nowadays are much more service-oriented than product-oriented, the definition of services is becoming more important. The definition of services changed during the last decades. In the 1960s, 70s and 80s the definitions of services focussed on the phenomenon of services itself and often only include the services offered by the so-called service organisations. Gummesson criticized these definitions and came with another definition of services, which gave another dimension to it: 'A service is something which can be bought and sold but which cannot drop on your feet' (Grönroos, 2000, p. 46). This definition reflects some important characteristics of services, namely that they can be exchanged but usually they can not be experienced in a tangible sense.

In 1990 Grönroos (2000, p. 46) came with a new definition of services, which is the following: 'A service is a process consisting of a series of more or less intangible activities that normally, but not necessarily always, take place in interactions between the customer and service employees and/or physical resources or goods and/or systems of the service provider, which are provided as solutions to customer problems'.

Grönroos (2000, p. 47–49) points out that there are three basic characteristics of services. The first characteristic he mentions is that services are processes consisting of activities or a

series of activities rather than things. Secondly, a characteristic of services is that services are at least to some extent produced and consumed simultaneously. The third characteristic mentioned by Grönroos is that the customer participates in the service production process at least to some extent.

Grönroos concluded that it is the visible part of the service process that matters in the customers' mind.

Grönroos (2000, p. 3) also describes services from a customer point of view. He remarks that customers do not buy goods or services, they buy the benefits goods and services provide them with. They buy offerings consisting of goods, services, information, personal attention and other components. Such offerings render services to them, and it is this customer-perceived service of an offering that creates value for them.

A totally different definition of services is provided by Henk Vijver (1996, p.4). He defines a service as 'an action which is useful for somebody by enlarging his personal wellbeing or by improving a property.'

A very extensive definition of services is given by C. Lovelock (2007, p.15):

'Services are economic activities offered by one party to another, most commonly employing time-based performances to bring about desired results in recipients themselves or in objects or other assets for which purchasers have responsibility. In exchange for their money, time, and effort, service customers expect to obtain value from access to goods, labor, professional skills, facilities, networks, and systems, but they do not normally take ownership of any of the physical elements involved'.

Since the 1990s the information technology has become more and more important and it has become integrated in the definition of services. Researchers found out that it is difficult to define services.

After all, many definitions of services have been developed during the last decades. Firstly, the definition of services focussed upon the phenomenon of services itself and often only included the services offered by the so-called service organisations. These definitions were connected with the product oriented approach of organisations. Later, this approach changed into a service-oriented approach which led to other definitions of services. In those definitions the interactions between the service provider and the customer became more important. Since the 1990s, when the information technology became more important, this was also integrated in definitions of services. But researchers find out that it is hard to define the phenomenon services.

Components and models of services

What are the main components of services? This question will be answered in this paragraph. Different models which illustrate the components of services are shown. Also other models which clear up the phenomenon services and which are used by different researchers are described in this paragraph.

Firstly, the Flower of Service, developed by C. Lovelock (2007, p. 70), is introduced. This figure shows that the core product of a service is the central component that supplies the principle, problem-solving benefits customers are looking for. For example, transport solves the need to move a person from one place to another.

The core product of a service is the central of the flower and is surrounded by a cluster of supplementary services (Lovelock, 2007, p. 77– 87). There are many different supplementary services, but almost all of them can be classified into one of the clusters, developed by Lovelock and shown in his Flower of Service. The Flower of Service is shown below (Figure 2).

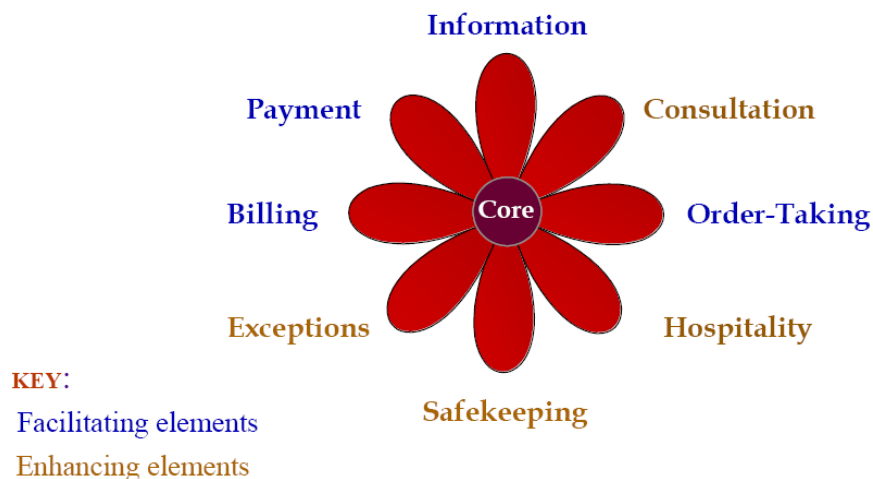


Figure 2 – The Flower of Service (Lovelock, 2007)

The supplementary services are shown clockwise in the sequence they are often likely to be encountered by customers, but the sequence may vary. In a well-designed and well-managed service organisation, all parts of the Flower are well formed. When one or more of the supplementary services are not well-designed or managed, this will damage the service experience of the customers. Even if the core product is perfect, the overall impression of the Flower is unattractive. Usually it are the supplementary services which cause a bad service experience, not the core product of the service (Lovelock, 2007, p. 77).

The supplementary services can play one of two roles. The first role supplementary services can play is that of facilitating services. Facilitating services are either required for service delivery or aid in the use of the core product. These enable the customers to use the service more effectively. In the Flower of Services the clusters of facilitating services are Information, Order-taking, Billing and Payment. The second role supplementary services can have is that of enhancing services, which add extra value for customers. In the Flower of Services the clusters of enhaning services are: Consultation, Hospitality, Safekeeping and Exceptions.

In order to clarify the Flower of Service, the supplementary services are explained below in more detail.

Information: customers often require information about how to obtain and use a product or service. Customers also need reminders and documentation.

Consultation: value can be added to goods/services by offering advice and consultation which is made fit to each customer's needs and situation.

Order taking: many goods and services must be ordered or reserved in advance. Customers need to know what is available and may want to secure commitment to delivery.

Hospitality: customers who invest time and effort in visiting a business and using its services deserve to be treated as welcome guests (after all, marketing invited them there).

Safekeeping: customers prefer not to worry about looking after the personal possessions that they bring with them to a service site. They may also want delivery and after-sales services for goods that they purchase or rent.

Exceptions: customers appreciate some flexibility in a business when they make special requests. They expect it when not everything goes according to plan. An example of a special request in advance of service delivery is a dietary requirement. Another example are well-defined procedures for when customers have complaints: it must be easy for the customer to complain about something.

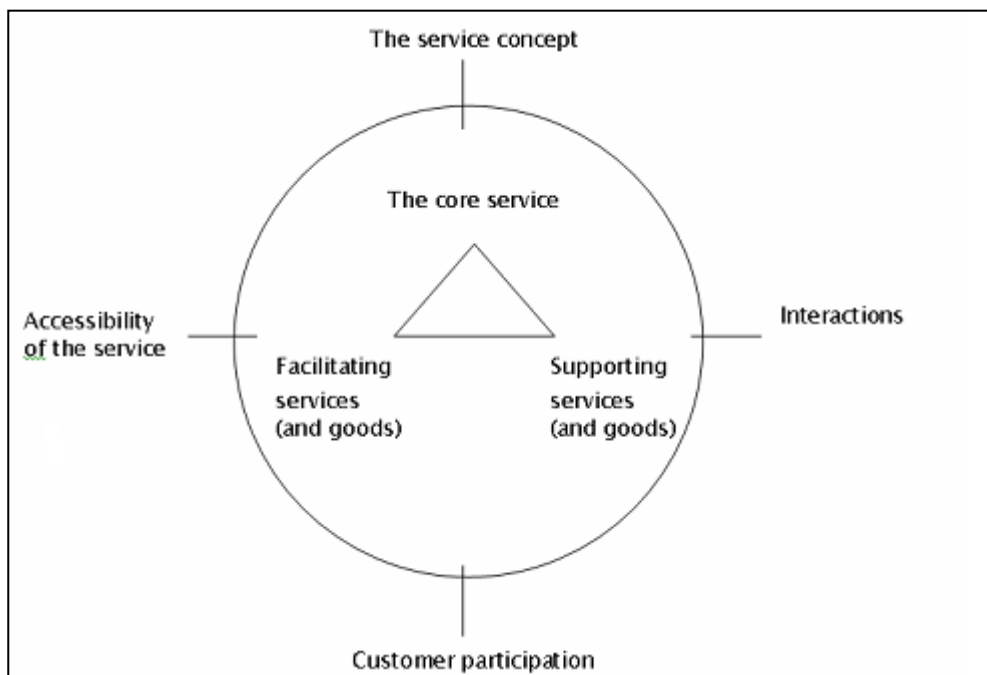
Billing: Customers deserve clear, accurate and intelligible bills and statements.

Payment: customers may pay faster and more cheerfully if a service organisation makes transactions simple and convenient for them.

It is important to remark that not every core product of a service is surrounded by the supplementary services which are mentioned above. The nature of the service offering determines which supplementary services surround the core product.

After introducing the Flower of Service of Lovelock, now the vision on services of Grönroos is introduced. Grönroos (2000, p. 166, 167) distinguishes services into three groups. The first group is the *core service*. The core service is the reason for an organisation being on the market. For example for a hotel it is lodging and for an airline it is transportation. The second group of services is called *facilitating services*, which make it possible to use the core service. If the facilitating services are left out, the service package breaks down. Examples of facilitating services are reception services in a hotel and check-in services for air transportation. The third group of services is mentioned *supporting services*. These are used to increase the value of the service or are used to differentiate the service from those of competitors. If the supporting services are lacking, the core service can still be used. For example: a hotel-restaurant is an example of a supporting service. Without the hotel-restaurant people can still stay in the hotel.

Grönroos (2000, p. 167–172) developed a model which integrates the service process into the service offering. This model is called the Augmented Service Offering. Grönroos states that there are three basic elements which comprises the service process, which are the accessibility of the service, the interaction with the service organisation and the customer participation. Grönroos combined these elements with the elements of the basic service package. This resulted in the figure shown on the next page (figure 3).



*Figure 3 – The augmented service offering
(Grönroos, 2000)*

In the center of the figure there is the basic service package, which includes the core service, facilitating services and supporting services. The basic service package is surrounded by the elements of the service process, of which the first is the *service concept*. The service concept guides the development of the components of the augmented service offering. It should state what kind of core, facilitating and supporting services are to be used, how the basic package could be made accessible, how interactions are to be developed, and how customers should be prepared to participate in the process.

The other three elements of the service offering are the following. The first one is the *Accessibility of the service*. This depends (among other things) on the number and skills of personnel, office hours, timetables, location of offices etc. The second element is the *Interaction with the service organisation*. Customers get in touch in different ways with the service organisation. Customers interact with the service employees, but also with operative and administrative systems and routines of the organisation. Customers may also have to use websites and technical resources like teller machines. Besides, customers get in contact with other customers. The third element is the *Customer participation*. The customer has an impact on the service he perceives. For example when a patient is unwilling to give correct information about his physical problems, the doctor can not give a correct diagnosis. So, the service provided by the doctor is from the patient's point of view, not the right service.

The core service, facilitating services and supporting services can be perceived in various ways, depending on the accessibility of services, how easily and well the interactions are perceived and how well customers understand their role in the service production process. From this point of view, one can conclude that productivity and quality of services can not be separated. According to this, Grönroos developed figure 4, which is shown on the next page.

In service contexts, productivity, quality, customer and provider participation and demand are productivity factors (Grönroos, 2000 p. 211). This is illustrated by figure 4.

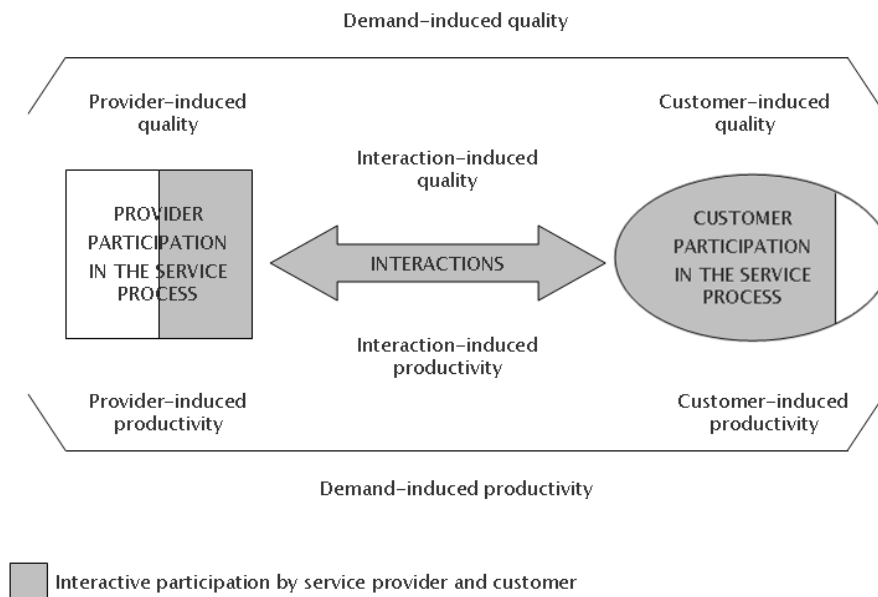


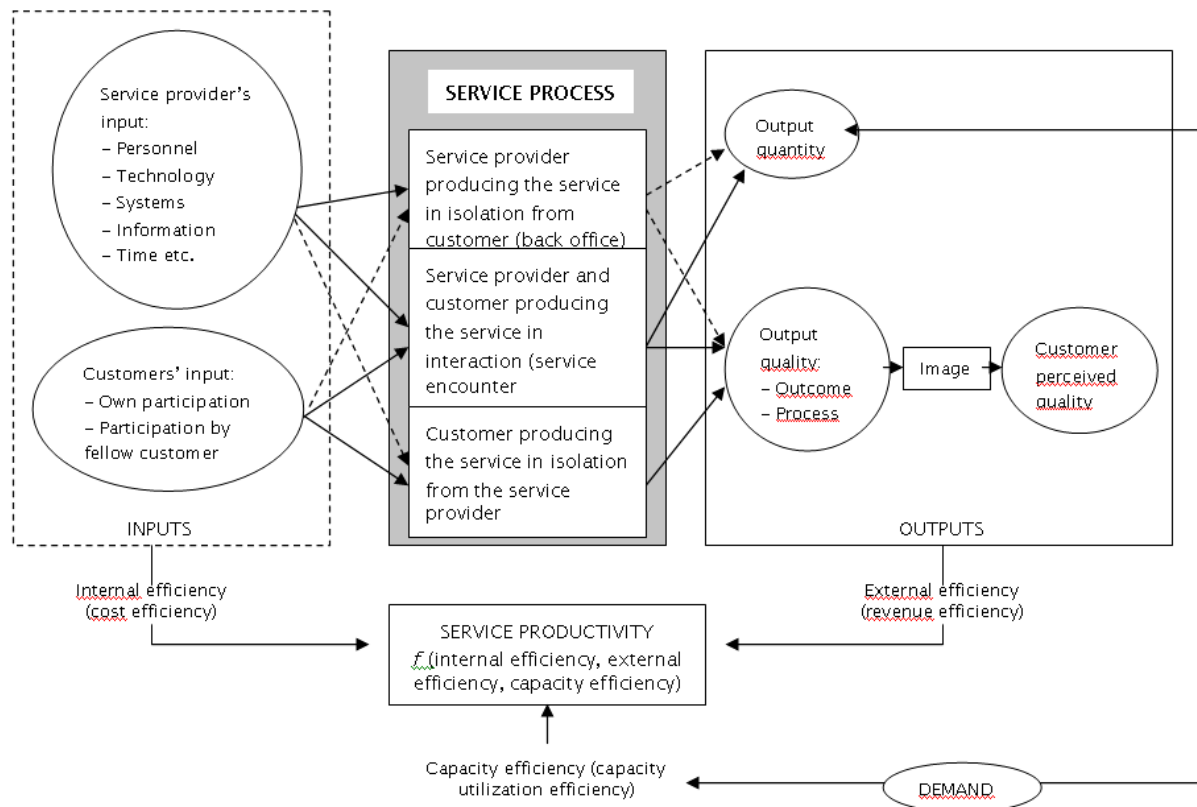
Figure 4 – Productivity, quality, customer and provider participation and demand as productivity factors in service contexts (Grönroos, 2000)

In the left part of the figure, is the so called *provider-induced quality* shown. The provider-induced contribution is also called the provider participation. For example for a hair stylist it is his professional and communication skills, the time available, the equipment, physical products used in the process, supporting services/goods (like coffee or a magazine).

At the right part of figure 4 is the *customer-induced contribution*. This is also called the customer participation. Customer-induced contributions to the process are for example inputs like information, self-service activities, inquiries and complaints. In the example of the hair stylist, this is for example the accuracy of the customer's requests and her ability to provide correct info to guide the hair stylist in cutting her hair.

In the middle of figure 4 there is the *interaction-induced contribution*: The actions of the customer do not only give input needed to produce the service, but they also influence the way the employees and technologies in the process function. Interactions created by customers influence the efficiency of the service process. In the example of the hair stylist, this is depending on how well the hair stylist and the customer can relate to and communicate with each other, the interactions will contribute more or less to the perceived quality of the process.

After developing the model shown in figure 4, Grönroos developed a service productivity model, which is shown in figure 5.



*Figure 5 – A service productivity model
(Grönroos, 2000)*

This figure shows that the service process can be divided into three separate processes (this is shown in the middle of figure 5). The first one is that the service provider produces the service in isolation. The second one is that the service provider and customer produce the service in interactions (service encounters). The third one is that the customer produces the service in isolation from the service provider.

In the left part of the figure the inputs are shown. The input of the service provider (for example personnel, technology) influence the first two processes directly and the third process indirectly. The input of the customer (for example the participation of his own or of fellow customers) influences the first process indirectly and the other two processes directly. The better the organisation uses its own resources as input into the processes and the better the organisation deals with the customers' input, the better the internal efficiency (or cost efficiency) of the service process will be.

The output of the service process consists of two dimensions. The first one is the quantity of output (volume), which depends on the demand. The second one is the quality of the output. Customers experience quality as the functional of the process and the technical quality of the outcome. The customer filters these two quality dimensions through the image of the company, which results in the Customer perceived quality. The more efficiently perceived quality is produced the better the external efficiency will be, which results in improved service productivity.

In conclusion, it is important that the internal efficiency, external efficiency and demand (capacity efficiency) are in balance. Only if they are in balance with each other, a service organisation can improve service productivity.

In this paragraph a few models have been described which show different components of services. First of all, the Flower of Service of Lovelock was introduced, which shows the core service surrounded by some supplementary services. After that, the Augmented Service Offering, developed by Grönroos, was introduced. In this model the service process and the service offering are integrated. Both models provide an explanation for the nature of services.

To service related concepts

There are many concepts which are related to services. The first concept which is used with reference to services is *relationship*. The other concepts that are discussed in this paragraph are relationship marketing, Customer Relationship Management, communication, quality of services and finally service management. Marketing is also a concept related to services, but the focus is on the concepts previously mentioned. As said earlier, the first concept that is discussed is *relationship*.

Relationship

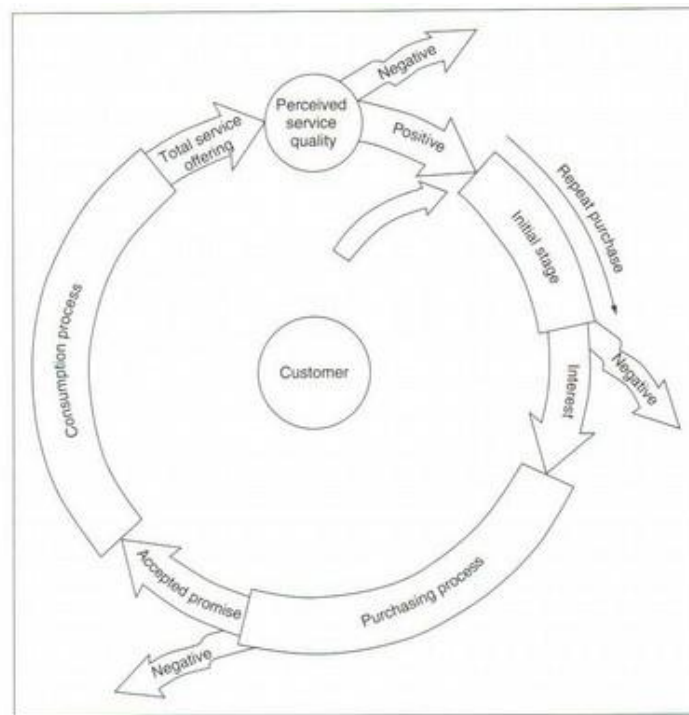
Grönroos (2000, p. 32–34) states that a relationship can only develop if all (or at least most) important customer contacts and interactions are relationship-oriented. Bonds keep a customer connected to an organisation, even though the customer does not feel that there is a relationship with the organisation. Grönroos (2000, p. 32–34) provides different definitions of the concept relationship. His first definition is that 'a relationship is by and large related to an attitude. A person or a group of people feel that there is something that ties them to another party. Whatever this glue is it should not be possible to break it easily. This feeling does not develop out of nothing. It has to be earned by the supplier or service provider. The customer determines whether or not a relationship had developed.'

Another definition provided by Grönroos is: 'a relationship has developed when a customer perceives that a mutual way of thinking exists between customer and supplier or service provider.'

Grönroos (2000, p.34) also remarks that a relationship always has to gain a win-win situation, for all parties which are involved. When a marketer is doing something *for* and *with* the customer and not *to* the customer, a relationship might be developed. For marketers it is also important to understand that customers are customers on a continuous basis, also when they don't purchase and consume services (Grönroos, 2000, p.34).

Grönroos (2000, p. 222, 223) says also about relationships, that relationships are learning experiences where all parties get used to each other and learn how to interact with each other so that errors, service failures, quality problems etc. can be minimized. The more often relationships are broken and customers have to be replaced, the lower service productivity will be.

Grönroos (2000, p. 237) developed a customer relationship life cycle, which is shown in the figure on the next page (figure 6).

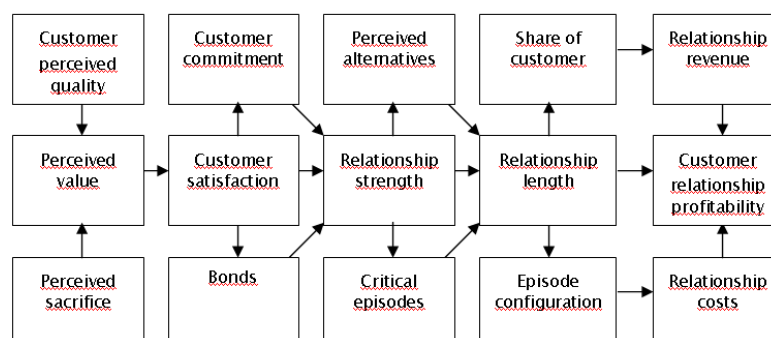


*Figure 6 – The customer relationship life cycle
(Grönroos, 2000)*

In the centre of figure 6 is the customer. There are three basic phases in this figure, of which the first is the initial phase. When the customer is in the initial phase, he is unaware of an organisation and its offerings. If he has a need which the organisation may be able to satisfy, the customer moves to the purchasing phase. In this phase the customer evaluates the service in relation to what he is looking for and is prepared to pay for. If the customer makes his first purchase he moves to the consumption (/usage) phase. In this phase the customer observes the organisations' ability to solve problems and the customer also decides if he is satisfied or not.

For an organisation it is important to recognize in which phase the customer is and it is important to realise that each phase of the relationship cycle needs other (marketing) resources and activities which are effective.

Besides the development of the customer relationship life cycle, Grönroos (2000, p. 147) has developed a customer relationship profitability model. This model shows the mechanisms behind profitable customers. The figure is shown below (figure 7).

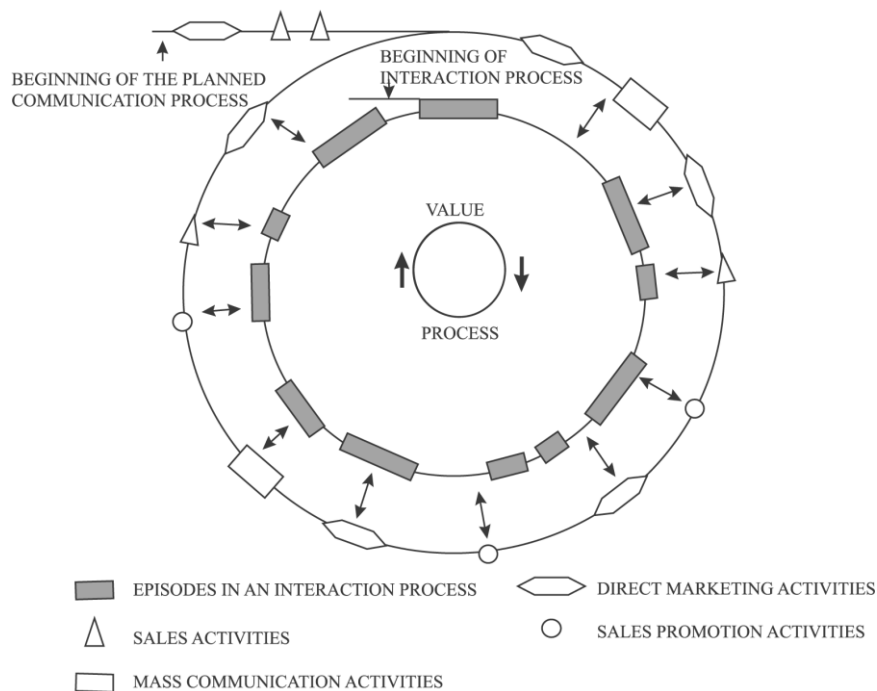


*Figure 7 – The customer profitability model:
the mechanisms behind profitable customers (Grönroos, 2000)*

In the relationship profitability model (figure 7) there are four links which are the most important. These links are: from customer perceived value to customer satisfaction, from customer satisfaction to relationship strength, from relationship strength to relationship length and from relationship length to customer relationship profitability.

Customer satisfaction influences the relationship strength because customers become committed to the supplier and it forms bonds between the parties which are involved. The more committed a customer is to an organisation and the more bonds that exists, the stronger the relationship. High relationship strength makes the customer think less of alternatives. A strong relationship will have fewer critical service encounters or episodes (unfavourable incidents). The stronger a relationship is, the longer it will last.

Besides the customer relationship life cycle (figure 6) and the relationship profitability model (figure 7), Grönroos developed the relationship dialog process (Grönroos, 2000 p. 280 & Grönroos, 2004), which is shown in the figure below (figure 8).



*Figure 8 – The relationship dialog process
(Grönroos, 2000, 2004)*

The two outer circles demonstrate the two distinct communicative processes that are constantly in progress. The planned communication process includes communication messages which are planned and where separate and distinct communication media are used. All types of communication media are effective in this context.

The other circle is a real process, where the customers' real interactions with physical products, service processes, customer contact employees etc. occur. This is the interaction process. Only the integration of planned communication and interaction processes into one systematically implemented strategy creates relationship marketing.

Relationship marketing

Besides traditional marketing, there is a different approach of marketing. Grönroos (2000, p. 243) gives a relationship definition of marketing: 'the purpose of marketing is to identify and establish, maintain and enhance, and when necessary terminate relationships with customers (and other parties) so that the objectives regarding economic and other variables of all parties are met. This is achieved through a mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises.'

Grönroos (2000, p.39) poses that relationship marketing is a perspective of how the firm can relate to its customers and other parties, which has an impact on how the business is developed and customers are managed. Grönroos (2000, p. 8) also states that understanding relationship marketing or marketing based on customer relationship management becomes a necessity for understanding how to manage an organisation in service competition.

Kotler (2009, p. 15) defines relationship marketing as follows: 'the process in which the organisation builds up, maintains and improves strong, valuable relationships with the customers and other interested parties.'

There is a new way of thinking about relationship marketing. Marketing is the art and science of searching, keeping and expanding of reliable customers. To build up durable/sustainable relationships with clients, an organisation has to create superior value for customers and gain customer satisfaction.

According to Grönroos (2000, p.32), successful relationship marketing demands that the firm defines its business as a service business and understands how to create and manage a total service offering, that means manage service competition.

Customer relationship management

Understanding relationship marketing or marketing based on customer relationship management (CRM) becomes a necessity for understanding how to manage a firm in service competition (Grönroos, 2000, p.8).

Kotler (2009, p. 28) asserts that customer relationship management (CRM) is the most important concept of modern marketing. The former definition of CRM was: 'administer the data of the customers, that means keeping up the elaborate information about individual customers and the careful administering of the customer contacts in order to intensify the loyalty.' The recent definition of CRM is more detailed: 'the total process of building and maintaining profitable customer relationships by generating customer satisfaction by means of superior value for the customer.' Both definitions of CRM are provided by Kotler (2009, p. 28).

Peelen (2003, p. 18–21) provides another definition of customer relationship management: 'CRM is a business strategy that is focussed on developing lasting, mutual profitable individual customer–supplier relationships, which are based on an ICT–infrastructure that enables well defined and controlled processes and gives the personnel the opportunity to function optimally.'

Peelen (2003, p. 22) states that not technology, but the strategy of the company is leading for a successful implementation of CRM. Most important is the manner of reaching a lasting advantage in competition in the industry. Peelen (2003, p. 22–26) says that the most

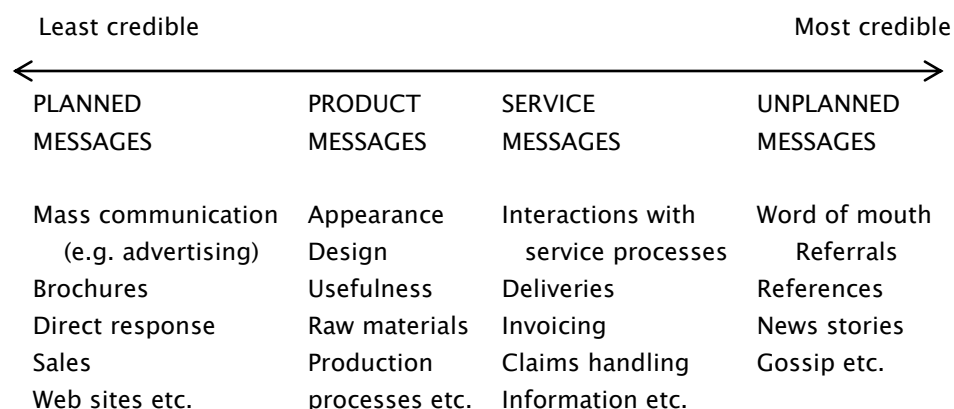
important elements of CRM are: knowledge of the customer, relationship strategy, communication, individualised value proposition. The development of the four elements should be done step by step and balanced. It is undesirable when one of the elements is prejudged by the others (Peelen, 2003, p. 25).

An organisation has to generate superior value for his customer and customer satisfaction in order to develop lasting customer relationships. When customers are satisfied, the bigger the chance that customers are loyal to the organisation and spend more (Kotler, 2009, p. 28). Misconceptions of CRM, according to Kotler (2009, p. 346, 347), are that CRM is seen only as a technology and software solution. But with only technology, an organisation can not build up a profitable customer relationship. CRM is just a part of a total customer relationship strategy (Kotler, 2009).

Communication

Communication is an important concept that is related to services and to other concepts mentioned in this paragraph. For example, without communication a service organisation can not develop a relationship. Many literature and research can be found about communication. In this report the concept communication is only described in relation to service management.

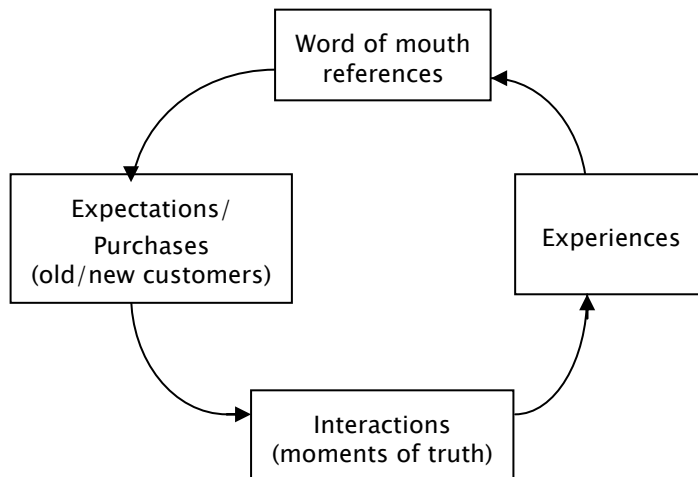
There are a few sources of communication messages (Grönroos, 2000 pp. 267 & Grönroos, 2004), which are shown in the figure below (figure 9).



*Figure 9 – The sources of communication messages
(Grönroos, 2000, 2004)*

The first source of communication messages (shown in figure 9) are planned messages, which are the result of a planned marketing communications campaign where separate communications media (TV, direct mail, Internet) are used to send a message. Product messages are about an organisation and its offerings that follow from the physical products in an offering: how a physical product is designed, how it functions etc. Service messages result from service processes. Unplanned messages are the most trustworthy, for example word of mouth, references etc.

In figure 10, which is shown below, the communication cycle is illustrated (Grönroos, 2000 pp. 270). This figure clarifies that word of mouth has a powerful impact on the formation of expectations of existing and potential customers. It is an important determinant of future purchasing behaviour. The more negative word of mouth there is, the less effective advertising campaigns, direct communications and sales efforts will be.



*Figure 10 – The communication cycle
(Grönroos, 2000)*

Quality of services

Quality of services is a wide concept. It is also difficult to measure. In the following, a few authors are discussed which give their opinion about the quality of services.

First of all, Grönroos (2000, p. 63) states that quality is whatever customers perceives it to be. Vijver does not give a definition of the quality of services, but he describes three dimensions of quality (Vijver, 1996, p. 14). The first dimension of quality are the wishes, expectations and needs etc. of the customer. The second dimension are the criteria which are inherent to some type of services. The third and last dimension of quality provided by Vijver is the social responsibility of service organisations.

Grönroos (2000, p. 63–65) also noticed some quality dimensions of services, but he has not three dimensions of service quality like Vijver (1996, p. 14), but he distinguishes only two quality dimensions of services. Those two dimensions are shown in the right part of the figure below (figure 11). The quality dimensions that Grönroos distinguishes are the technical quality of the outcome and the functional quality of the proces. The technical quality of the outcome is ‘What’, this is what the customer receives, for example a room and a bed to sleep in, a transport from one place to another etc. The functional quality of the process is ‘How’, how the customer receives the service, for example this depends on the attitude of the service employees.

Elaborating on these two service quality dimensions, Grönroos developed a model to illustrate the perceived service quality and the total perceived quality (Grönroos, 2000 p. 67), which is shown below (figure 11):

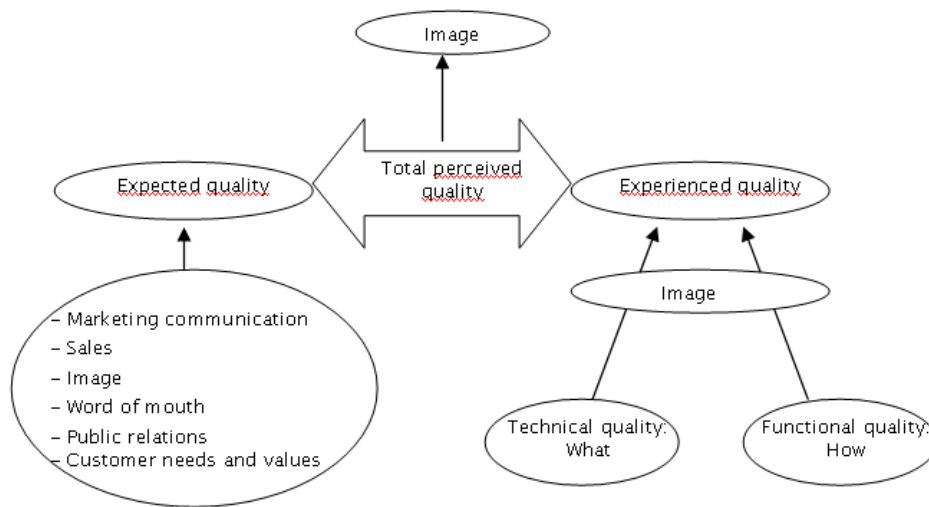
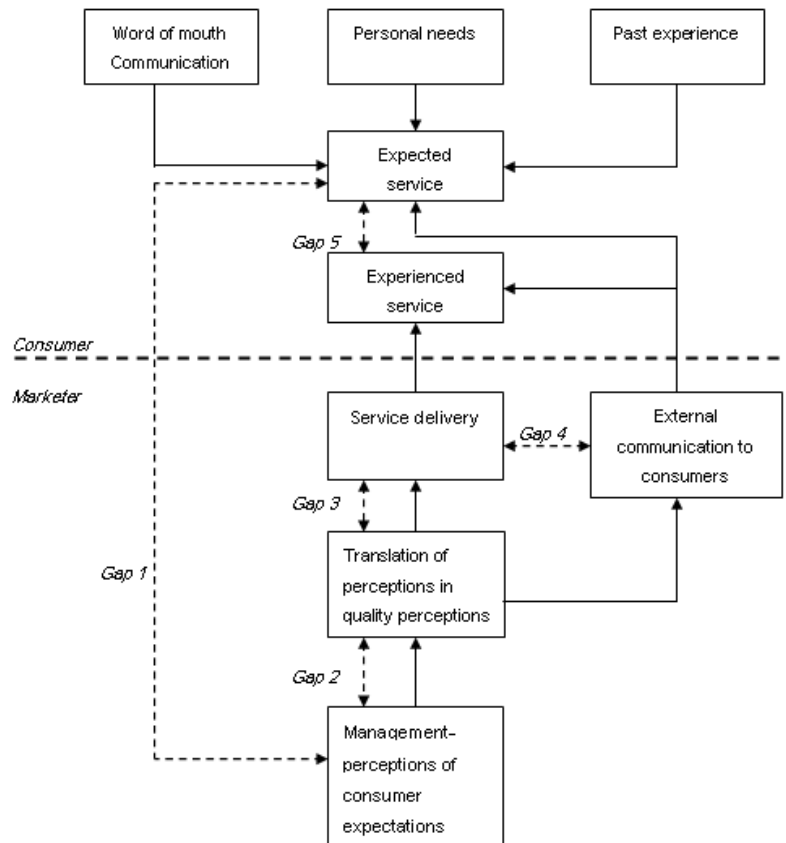


Figure 11- The perceived service quality and the total perceived quality (Grönroos, 2000)

Figure 11 shows how quality experiences are connected to traditional marketing activities, resulting in a total perceived quality. There is good total perceived quality, when the quality a customer expects of a service meets the experienced quality. The quality the customer expects is formed by a number of factors like marketing communication (advertising, direct mail, websites etc.), word of mouth, image, price and customer needs and values. The total perceived quality determines the image of an organisation.

A model which is developed for the quality of services, is the widely known and used Servqual-model (Molenaar, 2007, p. 70-73 & Grönroos, 2000, p. 73 - 77). The Servqual-model is shown below, figure 12. The Servqual-model shows how differences (gaps) might arise between the expected and the experienced service.



*Fig. 12 – The SERVQUAL model
(Grönroos, 2000)*

The upper part of the model includes the expectations of the customer which are determined by his personal needs, word of mouth communication and by past experiences. The expectations are also determined by what the service provider communicates to the customer (promises that are made, must be realized). The lower part of the model shows the delivered service, which is the final result of the process. This starts with the image of the expectations of the customer formed by the service organisation. This will be translated to the services.

The figure shows five so called quality gaps (Molenaar, 2007, p. 71, 72). Gap 1 arises because the management of the organisation perceives the quality expectations of the customer incorrect. The cause of this gap is usually the quantity or quality of the market research, which may be insufficient. The information of the market research might be incorrect or the information is incorrect interpreted. Other causes are the communication between the service employees and the customers or between the management and the service employees.

Gap 2 arises because the service quality specifications are not consistent with management perceptions of quality expectations. This might be caused by bad management of planning and no clear goal-setting in the organisation. Gap 3 is developed when the quality specifications are not met by the performance in the service production and delivery process. This gap is usually caused by the service employees. They are not able to or are not willing

to fulfil the quality specifications of the service. Another reason might be that the service employees are too busy with administration etc. so that quality specifications can not be fulfilled.

Gap 4 arises when promises given by market communication activities are not consistent with the service delivered. This is caused by the tendency to promise too much, or by the quantity and quality of the internal communication. The final gap, gap 5 is also called the perceived service quality gap. It arises when the perceived/experienced service does not meet the expectations of the customer. This results in bad word of mouth, a negative impact on the image of the organisation etc.

To conclude, for a service organisation communication is very important. All forms of communication of the organisation are picked up by the customer. This information creates expectations for the customers. If the expectations of the customers are not fulfilled, gap 5 will arise. Gap 5 is a sum of the four other gaps in the Servqual-model. By using the Servqual-model, an organisation can find out where things might go wrong.

Service management

The last concept that is discussed in this paragraph is service management. Following, the definition of service management is provided.

Grönroos (2000, p. 6) defines service management as follows: to appreciate the service perspective as a strategic approach and to understand how to manage the organisation in order to develop a total service offering.

Service management is (Grönroos, 2000, p. 195, 196), first of all, understanding the value customers receive by consuming or using the offerings of an organisation and knowing how services alone or together with information, physical goods or other kinds of tangibles contribute to this value; understanding how total quality is perceived in customer relationships to facilitate such value and how it changes over time. Secondly, service management is understanding how an organisation (people, technology and physical resources, systems and customers) will be able to produce and deliver this perceived quality and value. Thirdly service management is understanding how an organisation should be developed and managed so that intended perceived quality and value are achieved and the objectives of the parties involved (the organisation, the customers, other parties etc.) are met.

This means that an organisation has to understand a few things. It is important that the organisation understands the perceived quality and value customers are looking for in service competition. It is also important for an organisation to know how they can create that value for customers. Finally, organisations have to understand how to manage the resources available to the organisation to achieve such service-based value-creation.

Another definition of service management, provided by K. Albrecht (1988) is that service management is 'a total organisational approach that makes quality of service, as perceived by the customer, the number 1 driving force for the operation of the business'.

For manufacturing, the production and consumption are separate processes and customers do not participate in the production process. It is a closed process. The service (production) process is an open system.

Conclusion

In this chapter the nature of services is discussed. First of all, the history and the different definitions of services were discussed. During the time the approach of organisations have changed from a product-oriented point of view to a service oriented approach. Beside this, the definitions of services have changed during the last decades. First the definition of services focussed on the service itself and included only the services offered by the service organisation. Later on, Gummesson and Grönroos provided other dimensions to the definition of services. Gummesson added some characteristics to services, for example that they can be exchanged but that they can not be experienced in a tangible sense. Grönroos added to Gummessons' definition, that services must be seen as a process, in which interactions between customers and service providers play an important role.

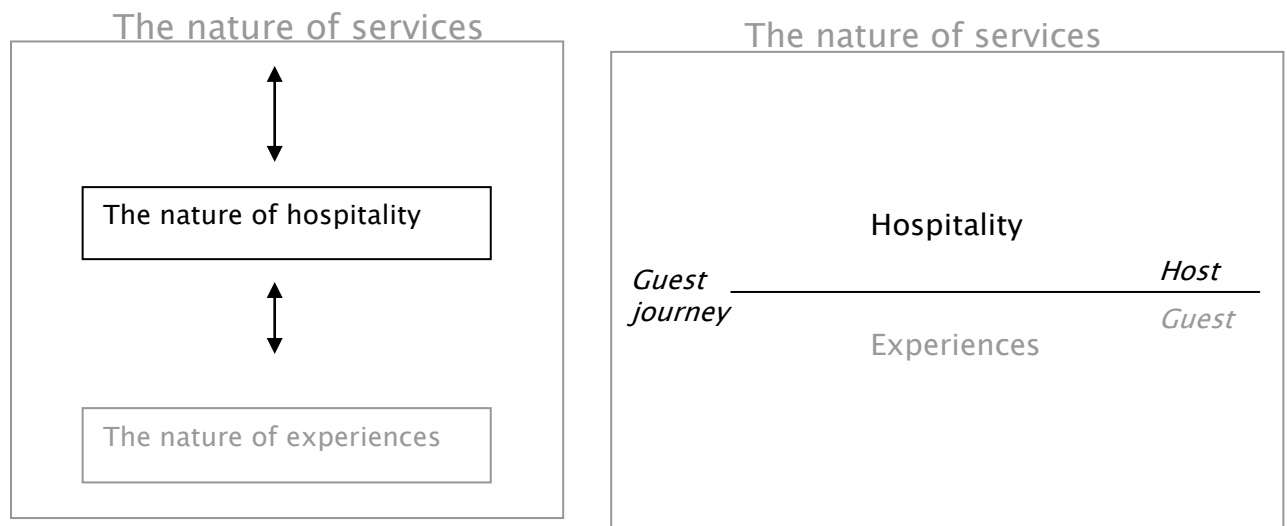
The Flower of Service of Lovelock and the Augmented Service Offering of Grönroos were introduced to explain the phenomenon services in more detail. The Flower of Service shows the core service surrounded by some supplementary services. Which supplementary services surround the core service, depends on the nature of the service offering. Grönroos' Augmented Service Offering combines the basic service package with the service process. After explaining the components of services in more detail, some concepts to service related concepts were discussed. First of all, the concept relationship was explained. For a service organisations it is important to establish a relationship with their customers. This concept relates to some other concepts which were discussed, namely relationship marketing, customer relationship management and communication. All these concepts are connected with each other. Communication with customers is very important, because without communication a relationship can not be established. There are several sources of communication messages, but the most important are word of mouth references. These determine the success of the organisation.

The quality of services is also a concept related to services. The quality of services has several dimensions, but the most important one is that the customer plays an important role in the quality of services. Several figures are developed in order to determine service quality. The last concept which was introduced was service management, which was defined as that an organisation appreciates the service perspective as a strategic approach and understand how to manage the organisation in order to develop a total service offering.

In this chapter of the report the nature of services was clarified, by providing several definitions of the phenomenon services. Several figures were introduced to clarify the nature of services and some concepts were introduced which are related to services. A part of services is 'hospitality'. In the following chapter, the nature of hospitality, will be discussed.

3 The nature of hospitality

In this chapter the nature of hospitality will be discussed. At the end of this chapter the question *What is the nature of hospitality?* will be answered. The context of this question is shown in the figure below.



The hospitality industry is one of world's largest and most important industries. For example, in only the United States of America the hospitality industry generates millions of jobs and the industry contributes to the economy with billions of dollars. In this chapter the phenomenon hospitality will be discussed. First of all, the history of hospitality will be described. Since when are we known with the phenomenon hospitality? How was hospitality expressed in the past? These and other questions will be answered in the first paragraph of this chapter. In the following paragraph the definition of hospitality will be provided. Several sources are used for defining hospitality.

In the third paragraph of this chapter, the concept of hospitality will be discussed in more detail and the most important components of hospitality are mentioned. After this paragraph, some models which are related to hospitality are shown. Those figures may clarify the concept hospitality or they explain the context in which hospitality takes place.

In the last paragraph of this chapter concepts which are related to hospitality are described. Many of those concepts have already been mentioned in the previous chapter, about the nature of services. These concepts are not discussed here again, but the focus will be on the role of the guest and the host or hostess in the hospitality process. The host and the guest play an important role in the hospitality process, so it is logical that those concepts are discussed here. Another important concept related to hospitality is *experiences*. However, this is such a large and interesting concept, that it will be discussed in the next chapter. In that chapter the nature of experiences will be described.

At the end of this chapter a conclusion follows, in which will be switched to the following chapter, about the nature of experiences.

The history of hospitality and definitions of the phenomenon

In this paragraph the history of hospitality is discussed. Long before the 20th century people were faced with the phenomenon hospitality. As said, in this paragraph the history of hospitality is discussed as well as the definitions of hospitality.

Vijver (1996, p. 15–17) describes how the way of thinking of people changed in regards to hospitality. This also influenced the perception of hospitality. The power behind the development of the Western culture and society was the believe in progress, the believe that people with their intelligence could penetrate the world and also could send, control and create the world like the people wanted it in their minds. Out of this conviction, namely that the human being thanks to his intelligence could exorcize all sorrow, misfortune, injustice and inconvenience, it is just one step to the claim that luck, health and other forms of well-being now must be developed. One thinks that science and technology can help to fulfil this. The western consumer now asks for continuing satisfaction. However, in Asia and Latin America people do not believe in the makability of the world. In these continents people believe that everything komt zoals het komt, al dan niet with assistance of the Almighty. People in these continents do not think that they have much influence on their lives.

The change in the way of thinking of people especially in the Western society, changed also the phenomenon hospitality and its definition. Following, the history of hospitality and the different expressions of hospitality are described (Vijver, 1996, p. 23–24).

In the period of the Hindu (before our era), hospitality was expressed in relief centres where tired travellers and ignored animals take care. The centres were maintained by the community.

The Roman (Tacitus and Caesar) were hold in admiration by the hospitality of the Germanic people. Germanic people were willing to defend the lives of the foreigners with the dedication of their own (Germanen waren bereid zelfs met inzet van hun eigen leven dat van de vreemdeling die onder hen vertoefde te verdedigen).

The jewish society stated that protecting a stranger is very important (because Jews themselves lived as slaves for a long period in the past). 'When a stranger lives in your country, you may not treat him in the wrong way. On the contrary: you have to treat him like he is a born Israelite and love him like you love yourself. After all, you know how vulnerable his position is, because you had lived as strangers in Egypt' (Vijver, 1996, p.23).

The first organised form of hospitality in the Western culture was by the Christian community. The early Christianity established so called 'hospita', homes where accommodation and care was offered to pilgrims, foreigners, patients and elderly people. In France they called these homes for poor people 'Hotel Dieu': homes sacred by God where real hospitality was offered for free to those who needed it.

In the Middle Ages hospitality was expressed in monestaries as homes for strangers. Hospitality is a religious duty, something that was registered in the Orderegel van Benedictus van Nursia (about 500). The people believed that the poor person that knocks on your door, might be the returned Christ, so welcome him like you would welcome the Lord himself. Especially with regard to pilgrims, hospitality was applied as a duty which can not be cheated.

Considering the history of hospitality, one can conclude that hospitality is related to strangers. This is also shown in the word 'hospitality' itself. The basis of hospitality is the Latin word 'hostis', which means stranger (Vijver, 1996 p.24). But what is then a stranger? Is that somebody from abroad? According to Vijver, a stranger is somebody who is different. Vijver says that hospitality is an art, especially when there is a meeting with people who are different. Then, hospitality has been faced with other, less pleasant characteristics of the human being, like narrow-mindedness, fear etc. (Vijver, 1996, p.24). Thio (2005) admits the statement that hospitality has to deal with strangers, but Thio also states that the nature of hospitality is related to friendliness, kindness and hospitableness. The nature of hospitality refers to the sharing of food, drink and accommodation to people who are not regular members of a household, for example neighbours, strangers etc.

After describing the history of hospitality, Vijver (1996, p. 81) provides the following definition of hospitality: 'Hospitality is the moral value were it is about in the service sector. Hospitality partly includes customer orientation and services rendered. The value and the right to exist of commercial service organisations is in offering hospitality. Service organisations are valuable for society if hospitality is shown in their business.'

Gastvrijheid: de morele waarde waar het in de dienstverlening om draait. Gastvrijheid overlapt klantgerichtheid en dienstbetoon. In het betonen van gastvrijheid ligt de waarde en bestaansrecht van commerciële dienstverlenende organisaties. Zij zijn maatschappelijk waardevol in de mate waarin de waarde gastvrijheid is af te lezen uit hun 'bedrijvigheid'.

Thio (2005) provides another definition of the phenomenon hospitality. Thio defines hospitality as follows: 'the hospitality industry is comprised of commercial organisations that specialise in providing accommodation and/or, food and/or drink, through a voluntary human exchange, which is simultaneous in nature and undertaken to enhance the mutual well being of the parties concerned.'

Thio states that the basic function of hospitality is to establish a relationship or to promote an already established relationship.

Brotherton and Wood (2008) state that it is difficult to define hospitality, because there is no general agreement of what hospitality is. In their book 'The Sage Handbook of Hospitality management' (2008) they give several definitions of hospitality. A few of them are definitions of hospitality in dictionaries, for example: hospitality is friendly and generous reception and entertainment of guests or strangers, hospitality is kindness in welcoming strangers. Brotherton and Wood also give definitions, which are not good in their interpretation of hospitality. Elements of those definitions were mentioned by Thio (2005), so Brotherton and Wood do not totally agree with Thio's definitions and her point of view on hospitality. The first definition of hospitality, which, according to Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 39), is not good enough is that hospitality is made up of two distinct services – the provision of overnight accommodation for people staying away from home, and the provision of sustenance for people eating away from home. This definition is not good, because it conflates the definitions of hospitality with the commercial hospitality industry and it tells nothing about the generic qualities of hospitality. The second 'wrong' definition

is that hospitality is a harmonious mixture of tangible and intangible components – food, beverages, beds, ambience and environment, and the behaviour of staff.

The third ‘wrong’ definition of hospitality is that hospitality is a harmonious mixture of food, beverage and/or shelter, a physical environment, and the behavior and attitude of people. Brotherton and Wood state that the last two definitions avoid the problem of conflating definitions of hospitality with the hospitality industry, but continue to exhibit the underlying assumption that hospitality is something that is, principally, commercially ‘created’ for consumption.

As said, Brotherton and Wood did not agree with the already mentioned definitions of hospitality. According to literature about hospitality, they noticed that there are two themes of hospitality, which they admit. The first theme of hospitality is hospitality as a means of social control, especially the control of ‘strangers’, people who are essentially alien to a particular physical, economic and social environment. The second theme of hospitality is hospitality as a social and economic exchange (Brotherton & Wood, 2008, p.40).

First of all, the theme ‘hospitality and the stranger’ will be explained. The stranger has a central role in hospitality. It is difficult to define what a stranger is. Vijver (1996, p. 24–30) discovered that there are three behaviours towards strangers. Firstly, one sees the stranger as a vulnerable, needy person. The stranger needs somebody who cares for him, so he can forget his own trouble. Secondly, one sees the stranger as another person: the stranger is fascinating because he is different. Thirdly, one sees the stranger as a threat. Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 40–44) see the behaviour towards strangers in a more limited way than Vijver. They discovered two responses towards strangers, namely to send them back where they come from or to create a separation between the society and the strangers. This rarely occurs, because people are travelling a lot, so it is difficult to separate yourself from strangers. According to this, Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 41) found out that nowadays everybody is a stranger. ‘The world we live in seems to be populated mostly by strangers; it looks like the world of universal strangerhood. We live among strangers, among whom we are stranger ourselves. In such a world, strangers cannot be confined or kept a bay. Strangers must be lived with.’ So, from this point of view, everybody is a stranger.

Hospitality discourse has altered over the years. Before the concept of ‘stranger’ was more central to the discussion (p. 42). Brotherton and Wood mention a few authors who have an opinion about what hospitality is. The first one is that hospitality represents a kind of guarantee of mutuality, one protects the stranger in order to be protected by him. The second comment is that the laws of hospitality firstly deals with strangers. The third comment is that hospitality nowadays means entertaining friends and relatives in one’s home, but in history it meant opening one’s house to total strangers and giving them a meal and allow them to stay. The fourth and last comment is that hospitality declines: the nature of hospitality wider cheapens and it becomes more commercially. In consequence of these comments, Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 42) developed a two dimensional model of hospitality, which proposes a distinction between historical hospitality and modern hospitality. Historical hospitality is rooted in domesticity and premised on duty and virtue and highly personal in conception and delivery. Modern hospitality is publicly organised and

premised on forms of ‘rational’ (usually monetary) exchange and is highly impersonal in conception and delivery.

Brotherton and Wood remark that the stranger plays a central role in historical domestic hospitality, but that it is not clear what the role of the stranger is in modern public hospitality.

The second theme of hospitality is *hospitality as social exchange* (Brotherton & Wood. 2008, p. 43–47). Important to notice is that hospitality is provided by diverse motives, but it always includes the expectation of mutuality. Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 45) mention five important dimensions of hospitality as a gift metaphor. The first dimension is that although any gift may have symbolic qualities, the host tries to add value by making contact with the recipient in a personal way, in order to establish bonds which can result in a relationship. The second dimension is that gifts provide information about those who give and identify them, just as the nature of hospitality offered shows commitment and involvement of the host in hospitality provision. The third dimension is that gift exchange and hospitality share the activity that givers/providers need to know the needs and desires of recipients, which must be focussed on improving the bonds of trust in the exchange relationship. The fourth dimension of hospitality as a gift exchange is that gift exchange and hospitality are both oriented on establishing an interaction where the character of exchanges is developed. The last and fifth dimension is the mutuality of social exchanges, which expects a shared responsibility for the outcome of the exchange on the part of givers and providers.

Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 48) conclude that hospitality today is different from hospitality in the past. The places where hospitality was predominantly provided in the past are no longer the primary locations for this activity today.

This chapter ends with a table provided by Pizam and Shani (2009), which shows the four main approaches describing the meaning and nature of hospitality (figure 1).

<i>Approaches to Hospitality</i>	<i>Guiding Principles</i>	<i>References</i>
<i>Professionalism</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hospitality as an industry providing professional services to customers who demand them. The hospitality industry is a platform for sellers-buyers relations, based on economic exchange Sought professional status for the industry and its employees, and call for raising the standing of employment in the industry Investigating the skills, attitudes and personality traits required from professional hospitality employees 	Baum 2007; Pizam 2007a; Reichel and Pizam 1984; Sheldon 1989; Slattery 2002; Tesone and Ricci 2006
<i>Hospitalableness</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focusing on the social and cultural meanings of hospitality, rather than merely the commercial one The hospitality industry is a platform for hosts-guests relations, aimed to ensure the wellbeing and comfort of the latter Emphasizing the need to secure the “spirit of hospitality” Viewing hospitable behavior as a virtue: the desire to ensure the happiness of the guest, in order for him to feel genuinely valued and welcomed 	Bell 2007; Brotherton 2005; King 1995; Lashley 2008; Lashley and Morrison 2000; Lynch 2005; O’Conner 2005; O’Gorman, Baxter and Scott 2007; Telfer 2000
<i>Hospitality as an Experience</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contemporary hospitality customers are essentially driven by a quest for memorable and exciting experiences Call for the integration of theming, staging, simulation, and theatrical performance in hospitality operations Stressed the need to provide services in a way that will leave memorable experiences (even in routine hospitality operations) 	Hemmington 2007; Knutson, Beck, Kim and Cha 2006; Pine and Gilmore 1998, 2002; Williams 2006
<i>Hospitality as a Philosophy</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Viewing hospitality as a philosophy of service, which can be applied to all service sectors Adopting the generosity and kindness associated with hospitality has the potential to aid other service providers in offering more genuine and sensitive care. 	Gilje 2004; Pizam 2007b; Randall and Senior 1994; Severt, Aiello, Elswick and Cyr 2008

Figure 1 – The four main approaches describing the meaning and nature of hospitality (Pizam & Shani, 2009)

The above four approaches are identified from the literature. As shown in figure 1 there are different approaches of what hospitality is and there is no general agreement. Pizam and Shani (2009) mention that it is important to develop a general theory of hospitality, because they discovered that general managers in the hospitality industry have a different perception of hospitality than hospitality students. A misinterpretation of the tourism industry and its nature might influence negatively the training of employees in the industry.

Pizam and Shani (2009) did a study to found out how today's general managers and undergraduate hospitality students think about the nature of hospitality. Pizam and Shani found out that the general managers had a more outward perspective and the students had a more inward perspective of hospitality. According to this study, one can conclude again that there are different approaches in defining the hospitality industry.

To conclude, the nature of hospitality changed over time. In the past, hospitality was especially related with religion. It was believed that you have to welcome a stranger, like you would welcome the Lord himself. During the time hospitality became more commercial, one discovered that they could earn money with hospitality. However, providing hospitality is still more important than to earn money.

As said there are many theories about what hospitality is and how one has to look at hospitality. There is no general agreement about the definition of hospitality. The by Vijver provided definition of hospitality is not the same as the definition of Thio. And the point of view on hospitality of Brotherton and Wood is also different of those of Vijver and Thio. One point that is said in all definitions is that the stranger has an important role in hospitality. However, the problem is to clarify the concept stranger, there are different approaches of what a stranger is. In conclusion, it is tough to define the phenomenon hospitality, there are different concepts mentioned which refer to hospitality and each concept can be interpreted in a different way. However, it is important to develop a general theory of hospitality, because it influences the training of (future) employees.

Characteristics of hospitality

In this paragraph, the most important characteristics of hospitality are described. First of all, Pizam and Shani (2009) explain from their point of view what is important in hospitality. Secondly, the characteristics of hospitality mentioned by Vijver (1996) are discussed. Following, the characteristics of hospitality provided by Thio are mentioned. At the end of the paragraph the characteristics of hospitality of Brotherton are mentioned.

Pizam and Shani (2009) state that in hospitality there is some tension between the need to create a comfortable and relaxed environment for the guests which will allow them to 'feel at home', while at the same time entertaining and providing them with an extraordinary experience that is not a reflection of their daily routine. That is a challenge for hospitality providers. Another characteristic of hospitality that seems conflicting, is offering proper service and being profitable at the same time. However, the general managers in the study of Pizam and Shani do not see this as conflicting. On the other hand, one should realise that offering proper service is always more important than being profitable.

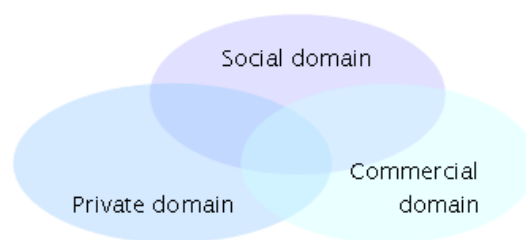
Vijver (1996, p. 29–31) states that there are some characteristics of hospitality which are the most important. The first characteristic of hospitality he mentions is the meeting with other people. To what extent people are able to welcome other people hospitable, shows who they are and what they are as human beings. Interest in and frankness towards other people are essential to provide services in a good way. The second characteristic is unselfishness. Hospitality is provided because of yourself, without getting back something. Commercialising of services is not wrong, but the original purpose (services/hospitality) must always be recognisable. In front of this, personal commitment of the service supplier is needed. The third characteristic of hospitality is the necessity of hospitality. The service sector is crucial for the human quality of the society. The fourth and last characteristic is mutuality. As well as the guest as the host/hostess needs hospitality.

Thio (2005), does not clarify hospitality by mentioning some characteristics like Vijver did, but divided hospitality into three domains. These are the social, private/domestic and commercial domain (Thio, 2005). Social hospitality can be defined as the social setting in which hospitality and acts of hospitableness take place, together with the impacts of social forces on the production and consumption of food, drink and accommodation. Social hospitality is cultural formed, therefore has it an important role in the production, preparation and consumption of food and beverage. Hospitality activities assist in the development of the social bonds with others and the satisfaction of social needs.

In the private/domestic domain the provision of food and beverage and accommodation represents an act of friendship. This friendship has to create a symbolic tie between people, which establishes bonds between those involved in sharing hospitality. A consequence of this friendship is that the guest, who has received hospitality from the host, has an obligation to return once the hospitality to the host.

The third domain, mentioned by Thio (2005) is commercial hospitality. This is a specific kind of relationship between a host and a guest in which the host understands what would give pleasure to the guest. The host also enhances the guests' comfort and well-being and deliver it generously and perfectly in face to face interaction. The most important difference with the two other domains is, that for this domain the mutuality is based on money exchange. In the commercial domain there is also more a cause and effect relationship between the host and the guest, while the private/domestic relationship is more mutual.

The three domains, mentioned above, are not three separated domains, but they are also overlapping. This is illustrated in figure 2, which is shown below.



*Figure 2 – The three domains of hospitality:
the social, private and commercial domain
(Thio, 2005)*

The three domains are independent, because each domain has its own definitions and characteristics. The social domain is dealing with strangers, mutuality, status and prestige with the impacts of social forces on the production, consumption and sharing of food and beverage and accommodation. Private hospitality includes the physiological and psychological needs. Finally, commercial hospitality sees hospitality as an economic activity which is profit-oriented.

Another difference between the three domains is that social and private hospitality are both supply led. The host takes the initiative to invite the guest to come or stay and to decide the food to cook and the drink to serve. Social and private activities do not ask for any profit or money exchange. In social and private hospitality a unique experience might be created, because the host is more likely to customize the occasion to please and satisfy the guest. However, commercial hospitality is demand led. The guest has the right to choose where he wants to stay or eat and drink and what they want to eat and drink. So the guest has a wide range of control, which should be provided and satisfied. In commercial hospitality, the experience is repeatable.

The three domains are overlapping, because all domains have the same aim of providing hospitality which makes people happy and satisfied by providing the three main services of food, drink, and accommodation (Thio, 2005).

The manner of the private and social domains can inform how commercial hospitality is practiced. When it is applied properly, it could lead to an improvement of commercial operation.

Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 48) do not totally agree with the approach of Thio. First of all, they do not think that countries have a different point of view on what hospitality is. Because the UK is spatial and cultural different from say China, it would be logical to conclude that the different spatial (for example resources, cultural characteristics) of these countries would get different views of what hospitality is and which practices it includes. However, Brotherton and Wood state that this would be a misleading conclusion. Although it is obviously that a different economic and socio-cultural history has influenced the present forms of hospitality in different societies and cultures, the question is whether these differences are as fundamental as they may appear to be. Brotherton and Wood (2008) state that hospitality consists of four dimensions, which are explained below.

After developing a conceptual model (which is limitedly explained in the next paragraph), Brotherton proposed that hospitality may be conceptualized as comprising four dimensions. Those dimensions are spatial, behavioural, temporal and physical, which relate to where, why and when hospitality occurs and what is included in it (B. Brotherton & R.C. Wood, 2008, p. 49). The spatial dimension includes the where aspect, therefore it considers locations and places where hospitality is provided. The behavioural dimension focusses on the motives for providing hospitality and the human processes in the delivery process of hospitality. The temporal dimension involves the frequency of hospitality. The physical dimension identifies the physical features and products associated with any type of hospitality. To investigate the efficiency of these dimensions and to find out what hospitality means, Brotherton did a study. This study found out which words guests of a hotel associate with hospitality.

Most of the given words were behavioural in nature. In a follow-up Brotherton repeated this study and used it in fast food restaurants. Conclusion of this study was that the behavioural dimension is the dominant one in the mind of the guest/customer, but also that all four of the by Brotherton developed dimensions, were recognised (Brotherton & Wood, 2008, p. 49–59).

To conclude, there are different ways to characterise the phenomenon hospitality. Vijver developed some important characteristics for hospitality. Thio admits those characteristics, but she also recognized three domains of hospitality. Which were the social, private and commercial domain. Each domain has its own characteristics. Brotherton and Wood do not agree with the approach of Thio, they do not believe that hospitality is culturally formed. Brotherton developed four other dimensions of hospitality, which clarify the nature of hospitality.

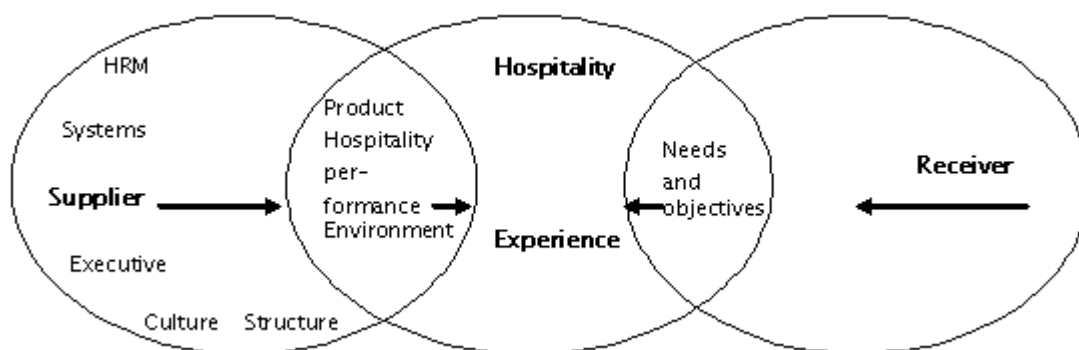
Just like the conclusion in the previous paragraph, there is no agreement about what the exact characteristics of hospitality are. There are different approaches of what the characteristics are. So, one can state that hospitality is a multilateral domain.

Models/figures used to describe hospitality

In this paragraph some models and figures are shown, which describe the nature of hospitality. There are not many models and figures which are developed to explain the nature of hospitality. In the previous paragraph, figure 2 shows the three domains of hospitality. This figure is not shown again in this paragraph, but some other models are introduced, like the hospitality model, which is shown on the next page.

The 'Hospitality model' was developed by D. Bolier in 1988. The model visualises the realisation of hospitality. The hospitality model is expanded by researchers of the Saxion Hospitality Business School in 2007.

The expanded hospitality model is shown below in figure 3.



*Figure 3 – The hospitality model
(Jellema & Hattink, 2007)*

The original hospitality model is composed of some elements, of which the first is the *supplier* (shown in the left part of figure 3). The supplier is the organisation in the hospitality industry, that offers a product, behaviour and an environment. The *product* is the tangible product, for example a bed, food and beverage etc. The *environment* is the entourage in which the hospitality is provided. The *behaviour* is the attitude of the personnel compared to the guest.

On the right side of figure 3, there is the *receiver*. The receiver is the guest with his needs and objectives. The nature of his needs can be physiological, social or psychological. The nature of the objectives are often business or private oriented.

There is a hospitality experience when the offered service match with the needs and expectations of the guest.

Based on research, the hospitality model is expanded. Nowadays, matching supply and demand is insufficient, the guests want that their expectations will be exceeded. The guest will be surprised. The supplier has to offer surplus value that distinguishes it self by the competitor. Welke toevoegingen

Thio (2005) agrees with the hospitality model shown in figure 3. She states that the hospitality process involves three elements. The first element is the provider (waiter, receptionist etc.), the second element is the receiver, which is usually the guest. The third element is the transfer, which starts when the receiver comes to the provider of hospitality. The hospitality process contains also three other elements, which are also mentioned in the hospitality model of figure 3. Those elements are firstly the product, which is a meal, a bed etc. Secondly, the behaviour and attitudes of the employees. The third elements is the environment, the lay-out and the furniture in which the hospitality is provided. These elements correspondent with the hospitality model shown in figure 3.

It seems that Brotherton and Wood (2008, p. 58) do agree with the hospitality model, but they also state that there are now (at least) three groups directly involved in the hospitality exchange. The first group is the provider, which is the company. The second group is the guest (the consumer) and the third group is the deliverer (the staff) that is, in turn, mediated by monetary exchange.

Brotherton (Brotherton & Wood, 2008, p. 48) developed a conceptual model which identifies the parameters (natural and human resources), independent (economic, socia-cultural, politico-legal, technological), intervening (domestic and commercial hospitality behaviour) and moderating (future expectations) variables. Those variables influence the dependent variable of the nature, incidence and forms of hospitality in any given time period and spatial location. This model recognises and incorporates the variables which influence or determine the specific form and volume hospitality takes within any temporal or spatial association. But the model developed by Brotherton really only deals with the macro and meso levels.

To conclude, there are not many models and figures developed to clarify hospitality. But an important one is shown in this paragraph, namely the hospitality model. This model clarifies in which context hospitality is provided and which elements are involved in the hospitality process. In contrast to the definition and characteristics of hospitality, the most authors and

researchers do agree about which elements are involved in the hospitality process. The provider, the receiver and the environment are the most important elements of this process.

Concepts used with reference to hospitality

There are many concepts which are used with reference to hospitality. For example relationship, services, experiences, social and economic exchange etc. Many of those concepts are already mentioned in the chapter about the nature of services. The most important concepts related to hospitality are the guest and the host. What are their roles in hospitality? In this paragraph the focus will be on the role of the guest and the role of the host.

The role of the guest and host in hospitality

Vijver states that hospitality is a duty, no one is allowed to cheat with it. The attitude of people towards strangers, tells if they are hospitable (Vijver, 1996, p. 24).

Vijver (1996, p.31) also states that hospitality is a necessity for the receiver as for the provider of hospitality. As well as the guest as the host or hostess needs hospitality. The guest needs hospitality because he is in trouble, the host/hostess needs hospitality because people need interaction with other people. If a person thinks that he is complete and does not need another person, he will keep the stranger away from himself. If a person understands that he needs new impulses, he will be opened to the stranger and welcome him hospitable.

Thio (2005) states that the main aim of providing hospitality is naturally a private quality and generosity. As a result, the relationship between host and guest is equal. As became clear earlier, Thio divided hospitality into three domains (social, private and commercial). This asks also different roles of the guest and the host. Nevertheless, there is a similarity between the domains and the roles of the guest and the host. In all domains the guest has a social obligation to contribute to the relationship by being good company, and to repay to the host in some way. On the other hand, the commercial hospitality industry refers to food, drink and accommodation provided for profit and money exchange.

So the relationship between host and guest is mutual in the way that the host has an obligation to deliver the best service and make the guests feel satisfied.

The guests expect that their needs and expectations will be fulfilled. If guests' needs and expectations are realised in the commercial provision, they will be satisfied. These satisfied guests can result in a return visit. For the host it is very important to know what the guests' needs and expectations are and what makes them happy. If the host knows this, he can avoid offering what the guests do not want and deliver exceptional services and products to them. The key to be successful in commercial hospitality is having knowledge of what would create great pleasure for the guest and delivering it flawlessly and generously. Thio (2005) mentions that hospitality is essentially a relationship based on host and guest. The attitudes such as being hospitable, caring for a stranger, concern with guest's status and so forth are

important. Similarly in the private domain the relationship between host and guest, which is revealed in commercial operations, has grown from the early domestic setting.

Therefore, in order to be effective in running a commercial operation, hospitality requires the guest to feel that the host is being hospitable through feelings of generosity, a desire to please and a real respect for the guest as an individual. In hospitality, there are relative long-term interactions between host and guest. This gives the host an opportunity to get know better the guest and their needs and expectations (Pizam & Shani, 2009).

That it is important that the host focusses on the needs and expectations of the guest, shows the following example (Agis Zorgverzekeringen Nieuwsbrief, 2008). In Berlin the German hospital group Helios build a brand new clinic where the focus is on the guest. The Heliosclinic in Berlin sees their patients as guest, their needs and expectations are leading. This approach leads to satisfied guests, which is good for the profit of this private organised hospital group. But the most important advantage of this approach is that the wellbeing of the patients improves, which contributes to their healing. Not only the behaviour (the personal treatment of guests) of the host is important, but also the decoration, the atmosphere and the use of colors in the clinic. In the Heliosclinic the complete attitude towards patients has changed. It happens too often that one focuses on how the doctor thinks about the patient. In the Heliosclinic everyone first thinks about the guest, from the guard until the manager. This corresponds with the culture of mutual hospitality, in which everyone thinks firstly about the other person.

To conclude, for optimal hospitality it is important that the host completely thinks from the perspective of the guest and knows his needs and expectations. This will result in a satisfied guest.

Experiences

Another important concept, which is related to hospitality, is experiences. Experiences are mentioned in this chapter too, but it is not further explained. In the following chapter, the nature of experiences in relation to services and hospitality will be discussed in detail.

Conclusion

In this chapter the nature of hospitality is described. Observed is that at this moment there is no agreement about what hospitality exactly is and which characteristics it has. The opinions vary on this issue. It is important to develop a general agreement on what hospitality is, because a misinterpretation of hospitality influences for example the training of employees.

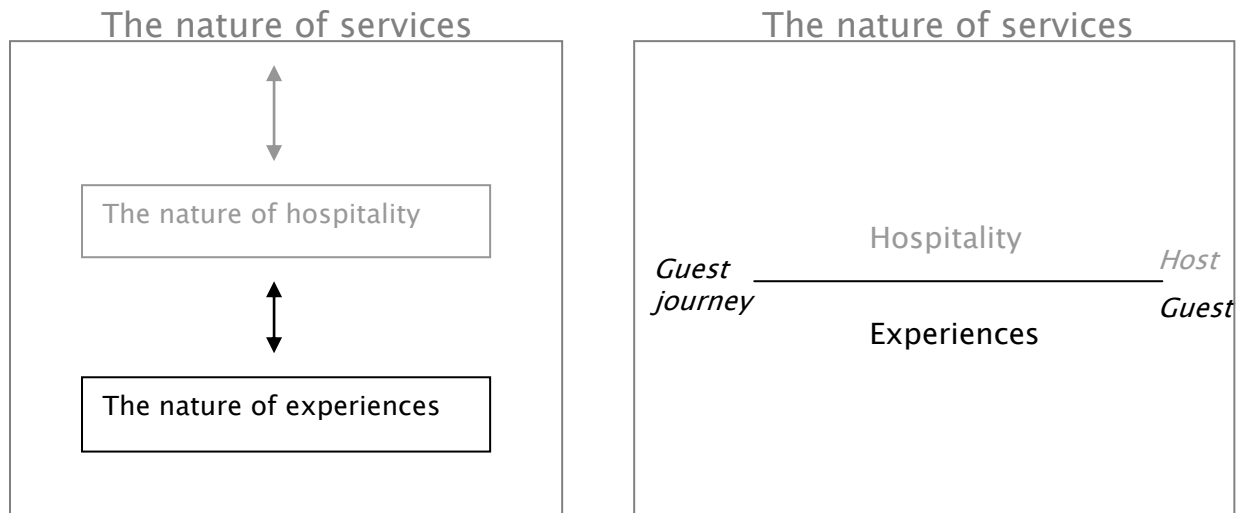
Nevertheless there is agreement about one aspect of hospitality, that is that hospitality has to deal with strangers. However, there is no clarity about what can be seen as a stranger. The first one states that everybody is a stranger, the other one states that a stranger is somebody who is different. It is very important that the host focusses on the guest (the stranger) and that the host thinks and acts from the perspective of the guest. The host has to know the needs and expectations of the guest. That is the only way a host can satisfy the guest.

In hospitality the host and the guest play a central role, it is all about the interaction between guest and host. However, especially the host is very important in hospitality, because he provides hospitality and his acting influences the experience of the guest. When the offered service matches with the needs and expectations of the guest, a hospitality experience is the result.

Nowadays, matching supply and demand is insufficient, the guests desire that their expectations will be exceeded. The guests also want what they expect. The supplier has to offer surplus value that distinguishes it self by the competitor.

4 The nature of experiences

This will be the last chapter of three. First the nature of services was discussed, followed by the nature of hospitality. The main part of this chapter is *What is the nature of experiences?* The context of this question is shown in the figures below.

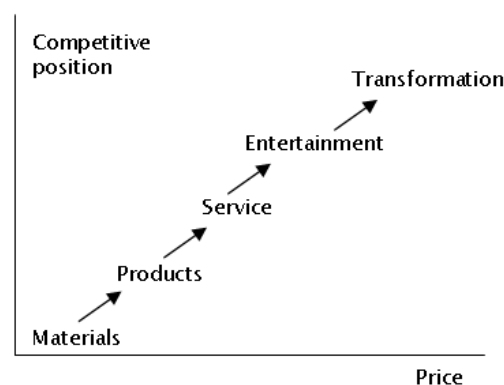


As the figures above show the guest has a central role in experiences. The guest experiences his or her environment. What is an experience for one guest, is a normal event for other guests. In this chapter at least the following questions will be answered: what is the experience economy, when did the experience economy originate? It will be clarified that the concept *experiences* is a varied concept and that there are different forms in which experiences can be expressed. Especially the last years there is more attention for experiences in the hospitality and services sector. It will become clear that especially Walt Disney had an important role in creating experiences. In this chapter characteristics and some models and figures which are related to experiences will be discussed. At the end of this chapter, several concepts will be described which are related to experiences. Examples of concepts which are mentioned are the experience economy and imagineering. At the end of this chapter, a conclusion will follow.

History of experiences

Especially the last two decades, there is more focus on the phenomenon experiences than ever before. However, we are known with the phenomenon experiences for a much longer period than we realise. In the beginning of the 20th century the focus was on gaining materials, for example farmers were cultivating agricultural products and hunters were catching their prey. The primary sector was the only form of economic activity. This came to an end with the invention of the steam engine: from gaining materials it went to industrial production. Products could be produced on a large scale. In the '50s one observed that the market was saturated and the product sales was not longer guaranteed. In this period, Kotler invented marketing and an organisation was only succesful when it could add services to its product. The consumer was not only interested anymore in the product itself, but it was looking for solution for his problems. A motorist wants not only a car but also the ease of mobility. Organisations were gaining more money with services than with the tangible product. Services are obviously and are now 'commodity'. Nowadays consumers expect that service is provided when they buy a product. Products become more homogeneous (the service is everywhere on the same level) and the consumer reduces the margins on products to a minimum. This is called a buyers-market. Pine & Gilmore?

To save the margins, producers have to look for new instruments. Producers can do this by adding theatre (theatraliteit) and entertainment: purchasing and consuming must become an experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Organisations which succeed in this are the future organisations. An example of such an organisation is one which sells ice cubes from Greenland. It is not about cooling a drink, but people are drinking history. The phase that follows after experiences became commodity, is mentioned the transformation economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). In that phase, the consumer is looking for experiences (ervaringen), which bring on a lasting change. Figure 1 shows the development of the experience economy, from Pine & Gilmores point of view.



*Figure 1 - The development of the experience economy
(Pine & Gilmore, 1999)*

Nijs (2002) states that adding theatre (theatraliteit) and entertainment is not always the right solution. She states that transformations are often a part of meaningful experiences. Nijs prefers to use the concept *animation*: breathing new life into people, inspire them by getting down to themselves. Nijs (2002) also says that adding theatre (theatraliteit) and

entertainment is not succesful in the whole world. It is about touching the right chord (de juiste snaar raken), authenticity and originality. You have to join with the range of thought of the consumer (Nijs, 2002, p.35).

A person who was very competent in developing experiences and who was almost the first person who paid attention to this phenomenon, was Walt Disney (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Walt Disney developed new experiences by developing his cartoons. Walt Disney added for example colours, dubbing and three-dimensional backgrounds to his cartoons. In 1955 Walt Disney opened Disney Land, a living cartoon where the guest is totally absorbed into (helemaal in opgaat). In 1971 Disney Wold was opened, the first themepark where the guest is immersed in a fantasy world. The journey through the park is not only entertainment, but it also involves the guest in the story that unfolds in front of him. The range of thought of Disney is still continued, by imagineering of products. In imitation of Walt Disney many themeparks were opend, but also new experiences are created. New technologies give opportunities for new experiences, like interactive games, 3D-movies and virtual reality. Other examples of experiences are the Hard Rock Café, Niketown and Planet Hollywood. Entertainment is not the most important part of experiences. It is about the combination of experiences which makes sure that the guest will never forget for example the visit to a restaurant. Nowadays around the most standard products created are experiences.

Definitions of experiences

Nowadays it is not anymore just about selling a product with tangible instrumental qualities, but it is all about creating intangible experiences which are experienced subjectively by consumers (Nijs, 2002, p. 49). There are many definitions of an experience developed. Following a few of these definitions will be discussed.

Boswijk & Peelen (2008) state that an experience is a complex of emotions which occur simultaneously or successively.

Pine and Gilmore (1999) developed the following definition of an experience:

‘An experience occurs when consumers get involved in such a way that they experience a lasting impression. The event is memorable and very personally. The consumer get touched emotionally, physically, intellectually or even spiritually. It is the experience of the ride in the rollercoaster, the first pop concert, a special sports performance, the accident at the other side of the road etc.’

Schmitt (1999, p.60) defined experiences as follows:

‘Experiences are private events that happen to people in response to some kind of stimulus. Experiences are the result of observing or participating in events – whether these events are real or virtual. Such experiences involve the entire living being – our senses, feelings, intellect and bodies. Experiences involve both rational and the emotional side of human beings’.

An experience influences the state of mind of the consumer. Experiences can be positive and negative. Positive experiences during leisure time are usually mentioned 'leisure experiences'. Nijs (2002, p. 51) mentions that the state of mind of users of leisure products depends on the personal skills and the challenge of the activity.

Voss & Zomerdijs (2007) found out in their research that companies in the leisure and entertainment industry have traditionally focussed on the experience of their customers, as an experience is their main offer (for example skiing, theme parks). However, it can also be argued that every touchpoint that the customer has with the organisation is an experience. The customer journey perspective shows that the customer experience is built over an extended period of time, which starts before and ends after the actual experience or purchase. Voss & Zomerdijs (2007) state that the service is seen as a journey that spans a longer period of time and consists of multiple components and touchpoints. The total customer experience is the result of every element in this journey.

It is important to realise that there are two different ways of explaining the word *experience* (Nijs, 2002, p. 52). The first one is to explain experience as a physical process, something you go through. For example a sports match or a ride in a rollercoaster.

Another way to explain experience is as a mental process, in which intangible experiences are cognitief placed in a frame of reference and one enjoys it. For example we experience a beautiful painting, emotional music or a nice view.

By developing experiences it is important to pay attention to both ways of explaining experience. For example in a theme park, the experience for children is the ride in the rollercoaster, but the parents experience the park because they calm down in the park or the park reminds them of their own youth.

Boswijk, Thijssen & Peelen (2005) draw a distinction between the words *to experience* and *an experience*. According to them *to experience*, is a continuous interactive process of doing and under going, of action and reflection, of cause and effect, that has a meaning for the individual in more contexts of his life. *An experience* makes sure that the individual gets another opinion of the world and/or himself.

According to Boswijk, Thijssen and Peelen (2005), an experience is what one got through, sensation, knowledge gained by experience. It is the sum of all interactions of a human being with his environment. In other words, an experience refers to the sum of all interactions of human beings with their environment and other people. Experiences depend on the context in and moment on which they occur. They are a subset of our total experience.' (Boswijk, Thijssen & Peelen).

The goal of creating experiences is to evoke a positive feeling with a brand or with the purchase or consumption of a product or service (Nijs, 2002, p. 65). And with that the realising of an affective reaction which leads to for example return visits. In order to discover on what extent these affective reactions occur and how they can be realised, the concept 'emotion' has to be explained. This concept will be explained in the next paragraph.

Characteristics and models of experiences

Experiences are characterised by a strong involvement. Experiences are memorable and personal and influence the mood of the consumers (Nijs, 2002). As said before, an experience is different than a service in the service economy. In services, the interaction with the customer is about finding a solution for problems. In services there is less differentiation than in experiences. For experiences, the focus is on the needs and desires of the customer.

There is a connection between an experience and emotion. Many researchers tried to find out if the emotion, evoked by an experience, leads to a measurable affective reaction like brand loyalty or influence the purchasing behaviour. Emotions can be described as follows (Nijs, 2002, p. 65):

‘Inner processes, which are stimulated by an event which is important for the individual and which are expressed in four representations: feelings, expressive behaviour, motivated behaviour and physiological changes’. This definition shows the difference between emotion and feeling, namely: emotion is a inner process, feelings are just one of the expressions of this emotions.

Expressive behaviour is concerned with the facial expression which are the effect of emotions. Motivated behaviour is also called passionate behaviour, it is a drang waaraan men moet voldoen. Physiological reactions are for example zweethanden of hartkloppingen. Emotieproces in fig. 2.14, p. 66.

For designing an experience it is important to realise the different emotions and the affective reaction on this: is this reaction positive or negative. Many models are developed which describe emotions which might occur when one is touched with a brand. However, in reality a brand evokes emotions limitedly, because marketeers still use the traditional marketing tools like print etc. However, Goossens developed a model which shows the influence of the mood of customers in consumer behaviour, shown in figure 2.

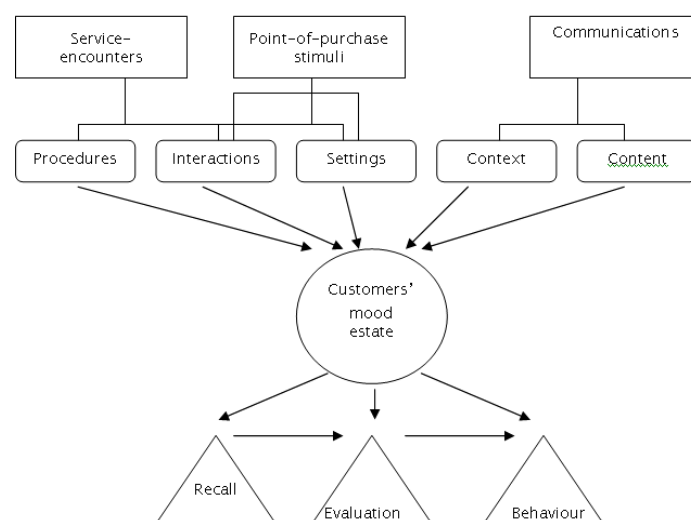


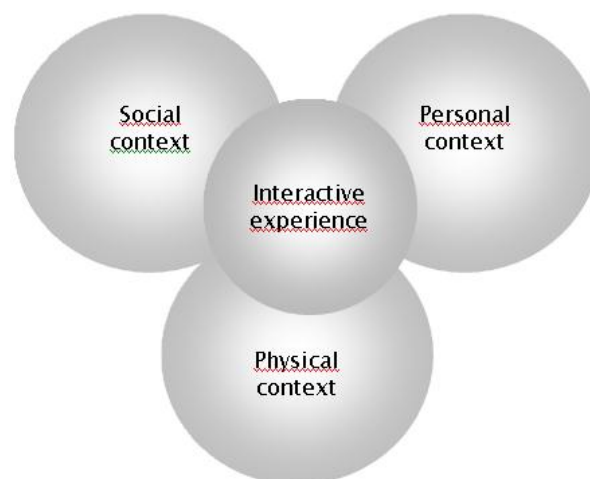
Figure 2 – The role of customers' mood estates on consumer behaviour (Nijs, 2002)

Service encounters is the service delivered to the customer. This is dependent on the personnel (interactions) procedures and the service environment. Whether a consumer is satisfied depends for example on the behaviour of the staff, waiting time etc. Point-of-purchase stimuli are all things which influence the use of the leisure product: the physical environment, contacts with the personnel, programming.

The external communication is as well as the content of the message as the context (the used medium, the timing). Those factors influence the mood state of a consumer. And this influences the recall (the level in what the experienced is remembered), the evaluation (the way the experience is determined) and behaviour (the mood influences the behaviour during the experience (staying longer) as after the experience (repeat visit)).

Good experience concepts are characterised by an integral approach (Nijs, 2002). The elements of an experience, which are identity, partnerships, products and packaging, physical environment, personnel and communication, are used in an integral way in order to realise meaningful experiences. A good experience concept is meaningful (actual), distinctive and has endurance: they can be used for a longer period of time in order to keep attracting the consumer. Besides it is possible to communicate them and they can be experienced at more levels. Everyone can give a different definition to the experience. Finally, an experience has an element of escaping, they contribute by escaping the real world.

The interactive experience model is developed by Falk en Dierking (Nijs, 2002, p. 53). This model states that the experience of individual consumers is determined by the personal, the social and the physical context. Below the interactive experience model is shown (figure 3).



*Figure 3 – The interactive experience model
(Nijs, 2002)*

The personal context

Each visitor has a unique personal context, a totality (geheel) of expectations and intended advantages of the leisure activity. The differences between each visitor have the following causes:

Differences are caused by earlier experiences with the product. A new visitor behaves different from repeating visitors. There are differences of knowledge and experience according to the experience. And finally there are differences with regard to the goal of the activity.

Product developers have to take care in mind the motives of the visitor and the differences between the wishes of for example new visitors and repeaters (Nijs, 2002, p. 54).

The social context

The social context in which the activity takes place, also determines the experiences. If a person goes on holiday with the group, the group influences the experience. This can be negative and positive. If there are not many people at a party, the party is experienced as unpleasant. On the other hand, busy events are neither appreciated, because they bring on traffic jams and long waiting periods for the cash desk.

Physical context

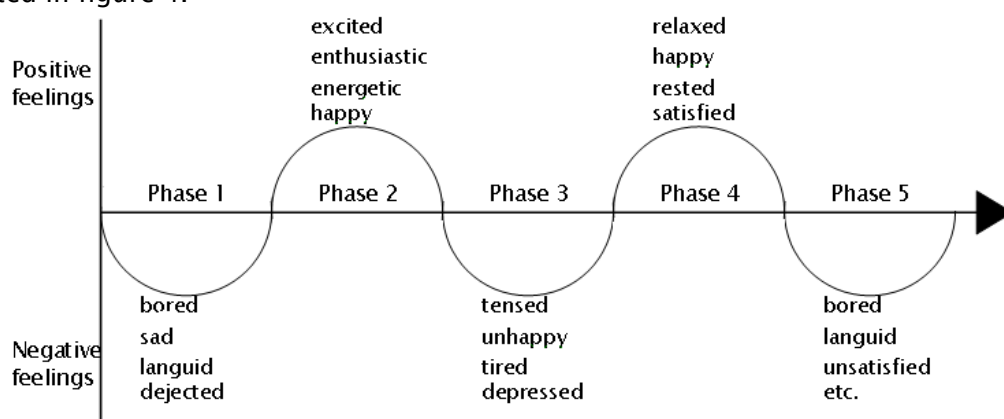
Besides the personal and social context, the physical context is important too. The physical context is composed of the following elements. Firstly, the design and architecture of the physical environment. For example the dreamworld in Disney-parks is carried out in the whole park, in every detail. A second element of the physical context is the 'lay-out' of the environment, for example a restaurant in a theme park causes that visitors stay longer. The third element is the feeling that the environment raises. An example of this is that people prefer to buy a house in a historical city-centre than in a new housing development. The final element of the physical context are the objects and activities. Examples are the attractions in the theme park and the paintings in a museum (Nijs, 2002, p. 54-55).

The combination of the contexts is designed by the individual and the interaction between the contexts determine the experience. No visitor will experience the same thing.

'The visitor's experience can be represented by a series of snapshots, each freezing in time a moment of interaction of the 3 contextual components (Nijs, 2002, p. 55).'

It is important to realise that for every target group at any time another (combination of) contextual component(s) is important for the experience quality (Nijs, 2002, p.55).

It is important to realise that an experience is not constant, an experience has to deal with change. For example the mood of the consumer is changing whole the time. This is illustrated in figure 4.

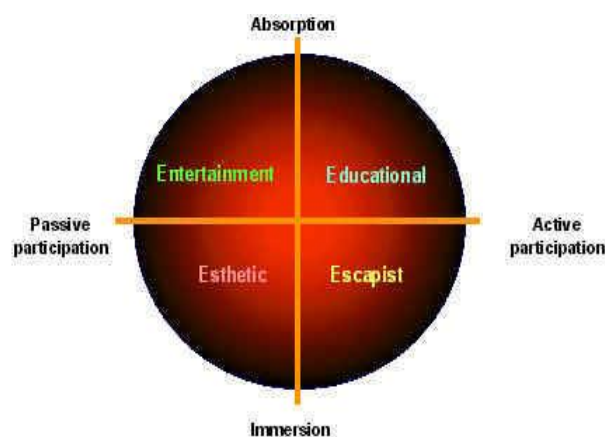


*Figure 4 – De cycle of feelings
(Nijs, 2002)*

Figure 4 shows the changes in the mood estate of the consumer. It is important to realise that an experience has a dimension of time (tijdsdimensie). This is important because experiences can be developed in order to bring the consumer from a negative phase to a positive phase. It is also important because an organisation must realise that an experience is not constant and that it has to be directed.

Pine and Gilmore (1999) state that the most important difference between an activity and an experience is, is that in the case of an experience, the consumer gets involved in the activity. The most important dimensions in which a consumer can be involved are the level of participation of the consumer and the relationship of the consumer with the environment. Those variables are expressed in the figure below. The first variable (the level in which the consumer influences the experience) is shown horizontal and goes from passive to active. The individual can watch a match of the national team (passive) or can play a tennis match (active). The other variable (the relationship of the consumer with the environment) is shown vertical and goes from absorption to immersion. The individual can watch fascinated a DVD at home (absorption) or can watch a movie in 3D-theatre (immersion).

Those two variabels result (according to Pine and Gilmore) in four domains of experience, which are shown in figure 5.



*Figure 5 – Four domains of experiences
(Pine& Gilmore, 1999)*

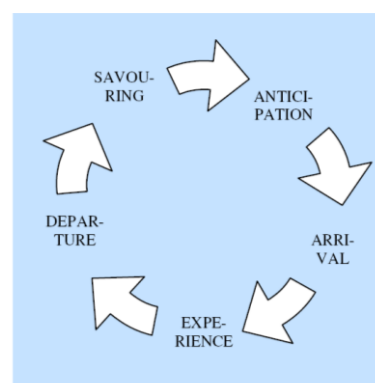
The first domain is Entertainment, which is usually passive, for example watching TV, reading a book or following a theatre show. Adding another dimension will result in that the experience will be remembered. The second domain is Education, this is education in an active form: the student participates actively in the learning process. The third domain is Escapism (escapisme), which is the opposite of Entertainment. By Escapism one creates his own world waar je volledig in opgaat. For example casino, virtual reality games. In Disneyland Entertainment and Escapism are combined: after you watched the movie (Entertainment) you can experience the story in Disneyland (Escapism). The fourth and last domain of experiences is Esthetic. The goal is being there. For example, watching the Grand Canyon, visiting a museum. It is usually determined by designers and architects. An example of adding esthetic to an experience in the Apple I-mac.

Pine and Gilmore state that the best experience is a combination of all four domains. An example of an experience where all four domains are represented, is Club Disney (Nijs, 2002, p. 63). Club Disney is an experience especially for children through ten years old (and their parents). The Disney-figures entertain the children and their parents, tinker courses are related to the Education-domain, the playgrounds give the children an opportunity to escape and the structure, the aanblik en the sound of these playgrounds form an real esthetic and escape experience.

Schmitt (1999) connects experiences with brands. Schmitt says that for experiences marketing, five strategic experiential modules (SEM's) can be used to create experiences for consumers. The modules can be used to create different forms of brand experiences.

- Sense-module; caters to the senses to arouse sensory experiences. Used to make a difference between organisations and products, to motivate consumers and adding value to a product;
- Feel-module: caters to feelings and emotions of the consumer in order to evoke an affective reaction. Is used to evoke mild positive feelings by a brand, but also to evoke strong emotions by marketing campaigns like Greenpeace. Occur usually by consumption and is influenced by the buying and consumption environment and using motive;
- Think-experiences: call on the creative, cognitive capability of the consumer. By surprise, intrigue and provocation, problem solving experiences are offered;
- ACT-module: focusses on the physical experiences, lifestyle and social interaction;
- Relate-module: tries (different than the others) to bring about a collective experiences. For example Harley Davidson: Harley Davidson is a way of life. P. 62-65

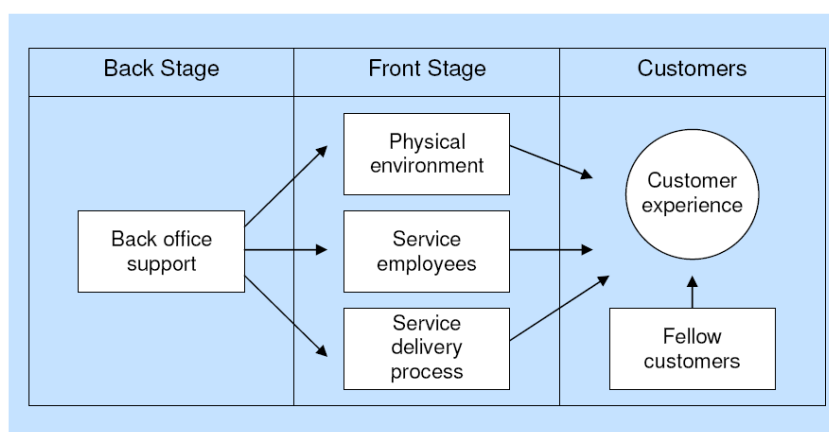
Voss & Zomerdijs (2007, who see the customer experience as a journey which starts long before the actual transaction and ends long after the transactions, mention some characteristics of an experience, from the point of view of the customer journey. The first one is that a customer experience is built over an extended period of time, starting long before the actual sales experience or transaction and includes pre and post purchase experiences. The second characteristic is that the journey consists of numerous touchpoints between the customer and the organisation (or brand). These touchpoints need to be carefully designed and managed. The third and last characteristic is that each touchpoint has the potential for innovation. The journey is often cyclical, which is illustrated in figure 6. This figure shows the service journey, guest experience cycle of Walt Disney World (Voss & Zomerdijs, 2007).



*Figure 6- Service journey,
Guest Experience cycle Walt Disney World
(Voss & Zomerdijs, 2007)*

Organisations can create new journeys or change elements of an existing journey, to make it more comfortable or efficient. Mostly, organisations change elements of the journey and do not create a complete new journey. Sometimes organisations add elements that were considered outside their boundaries to the customer journey, like transport to and from the service location (Voss & Zomerdijk, 2007). An example of such an extended service journey is designed by Virgin Atlantic for its Upper Class passengers (Voss & Zomerdijk, 2007). Flying with Virgin Atlantic includes more than only flying. It is designed as a seamless and experiential journey, which starts with booking and ends with transportation home. Having booked, Upper Class passengers are picked up by a chauffeur-driven car, driven to the airport, go through a unique Drive Thru Check In process and are dropped off at customs, close to the entrance to the Virgin Atlantic Clubhouse. This clubhouse has a range of services from restaurants and bar to a massage and hairdressing salon. At weekends there are activities to engage passengers, for example a Gibson guitar clinic. Onboard the plane in addition to flat-bed seats there is a bar where passengers can congregate and an in-flight massage service. At the airport of the arrival, passengers can go to an arrival lounge to relax, have breakfast, shower and have a foot massage, before being escorted to their final destination. The core offer of Virgin Atlantic is a transatlantic flight, but Virgin Atlantic recognised the complete journey involved and has innovated at every step.

Voss & Zomerdijk (2007) mention five design areas which directly or indirectly contribute to a customer's experience. Organisations have to pay attention to all five areas when they design or change a customer journey. The five areas are: physical environment, service employees, service delivery process and fellow customers. The context of these five areas are shown in the figure below, figure 7.



*Figure 7 – Experiential design areas
(Voss & Zomerdijk, 2007)*

The physical environment, also mentioned the 'stage', is the setting in which a service is delivered or experience is created. It is a key variable which influences the customer perceptions and behaviour. It can play the role of for example accommodating customers and guiding behavioural actions. In a restaurant it is for example the comfort of the venue.

The service employees are also called the ‘actors’. The delivering of service by service employees is considered to be the key factor influencing the customer experiences. In the example of the restaurant, the behaviour of the staff influences the customer experience.

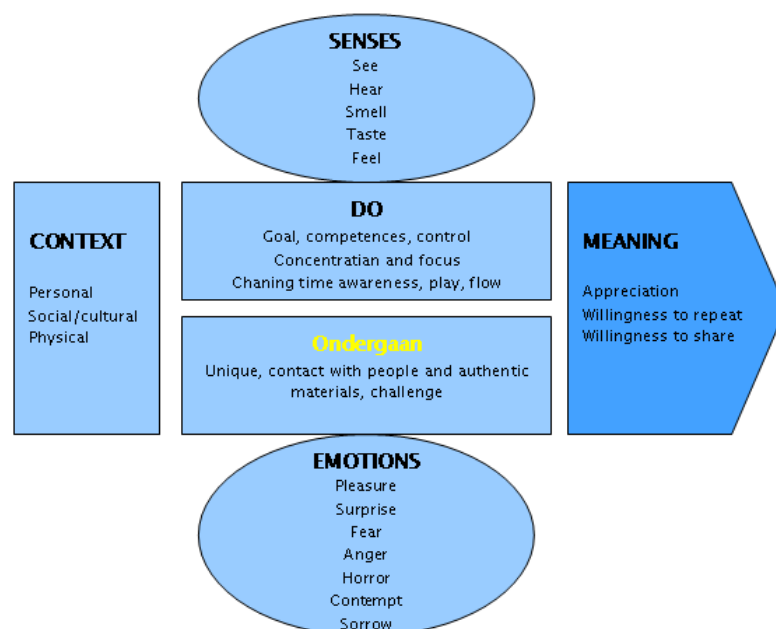
The service delivery process (also mentioned the ‘script’) is a series of actions or events which take place to deliver the service. The service delivery process determines the customer journey or the flow of the customer through the organisation. It is the script for the service performance, defining the acts, scenes, intervals and actors which are involved. In the restaurant-example it is for example the flow of the meal, the waiting time to be served.

Fellow customers (the ‘audience’) influence the customer experience, positive or negative. For example unruly behaviour of fellow customers can destroy the service performance and so the customer experience. On the other hand, socialising with other customers can make an experience more enjoyable. In the example of the restaurant, the presence of for example noisy children may influence the customer experience.

The last area is the back office support, also mentioned ‘back stage’. The physical setting, the service employees, the service delivery process and fellow customers take place front stage and directly influence the customer’s experience. However, many things that go on back stage influence the front stage performance.

It is important for organisations to be aware of the five areas mentioned above. When an organisation wants to develop or improve the customer journey, it has to regard to these five areas and their importance in the customer journey.

Voss & Zomerdijs saw the customer experience as a journey. Thijssen (2009) agrees with this and developed a so-called Guest Journey Model. This model is shown in figure 8.



*Figure 8 – The Guest Journey Model
(Thijssen, 2009)*

At the left part of the Guest Journey Model there is the context in which the experience takes place. Somebody’s personal situation, social/cultural and physical aspects are part of this

context. The personal context is for example the expectations someone has of an activity. The social context determines the experience too, if you go on holiday with a group, the group determines the experiences. The physical context is the environment in which the activity takes place.

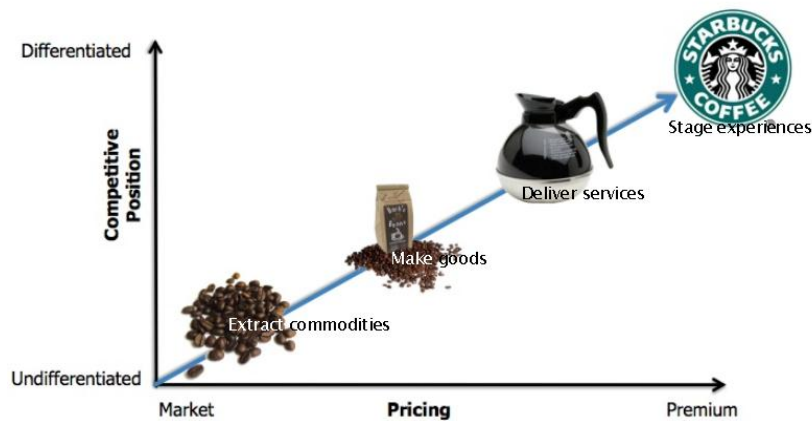
By meaningful experiences, our senses are used while we go through something (ondergaan). We are stimulated positively or negatively by what we go through (ondergaan) and that leads to some emotions. The experience results in sense and meaning in the form of appreciation (positive or negative), the willingness to repeat and the willingness to share the experiences with other people. The model is called the Guest Journey, because it illustrates the journey as guest through the time. After all, each human being is looking for meaningful experiences. The Guest Journey Model in figure 7 describes an experience and puts meaningful experiences in a particular context, in a particular process of doing and undertaken in time and at a particular place, near what sensory perceptions evoke emotions which give sense.

Concepts used with reference to experiences

Experience economy

The term 'experience economy' is nowadays a widely used concept, which made progress in especially the last decade. J. Pine and J. Gilmore (1999) were actually the first ones who described and explained the concept experience economy. The experience economy is about organisations which create a memorable, intangible experience for their customer, as a result of which customers have a positive remembrance with the product. As a result of the development of technology, the growing competition between organisations and the higher expectations of the customer, services look more like commodities nowadays. Services become more standardised than before. The experience economy challenges this and stimulates organisations to create (personal) experiences for everybody. Pine and Gilmore themselves say about this the following: 'Experiences are events which appeal to people in a personal way. Buying an experience is paying to spend time for enjoying a row of memorable events, which are organised by the organisation in order to involve you in a personal way (Pine and Gilmore, 1999)'.

Pine and Gilmore (1999) state that people are able to pay more for the same product, if a memorable experience is connected with this product. This gives the organisation the opportunity to breathe new life into their product. Pine and Gilmore illustrate this with the following example. Organisations who deliver coffee beans (which is a commodity) receive only a few cent for their product. This is about five cent per cup of coffee. But the price rises when a producer of the same coffee beans crushes and packs up and sells them in a store, the price of a cup of coffee will rise to 20 cent. And when this cup of coffee is sold in a café, which adds some service to the cup of coffee, the price will be risen to for example 2 euro's. But when this cup of coffee is served in for example the Starbucks or on a terrace on the Piazza San Marco in Venice, people are able to pay much more for this cup of coffee. This is because the drinking of a cup of coffee is an experience for them. The connection between the price of coffee and the way of offering these coffee, is shown in figure 8.



*Figure 8 – The progression of value
(Pine & Gilmore, 1999)*

In the experience economy traditional marketing is not enough. The traditional marketing is only focussing on the physical needs of the Maslow pyramid. In the experience economy must the focus be on the psychological needs of the consumer (Nijs, 2002, 28).

The phase after experiences become commodities is by Pine and Gilmore (1999) mentioned the transformation-economy. The consumer is looking for experiences which lead to a lasting change for the consumer.

Pine & Gilmore are speaking about the experience economy, but Nijs (2002) prefers the term affection-economy. It is about touching the consumer and join his or her values: at the right place, on the right time and with the right sound (Nijs, 2002, p. 35).

Imagineering

Nijs (2002) states that the concept 'Imagineering' originates from the world of theme parks, especially by the Disney-concern. An imagineering is somebody who is creative in which task is to give the infrastructure of the theme park an tot de verbeelding sprekende uitstraling. He creates this in co-operation with the technicians. The imagineers of Disney are the basis of the field of imagineering that can be described as the designing of experiences (Nijs, 2002). Nijs herself adds something to the definition of imagineering. She states that it is important to realise that imagineering also can be used to design less tangible experiences and attractions. Another point of Nijs (2002) is that imagineering also can be used outside the business of theme parks. Imagineering is a general approach of designing experiences.

Nijs mentions some differences between concepting and imagineering. The first difference is that for imagineering the emotional needs de uitgangspunten zijn and not the mental needs. The second difference is that imagineering is not only about communicating ideas but also about the creation of experiences. The third difference is that for imagineering the continuing character of the experience is leading.

Conclusion

The concept 'experience' is a varied concept. In this chapter there are several definitions shown of this concept. It is important to realise that there are two ways of explaining 'an experience'. The first way of explaining the concept 'experience' is that experience is a physical process, the second way is of explaining experience as a mental process. Developers of experiences have to be aware of this difference.

It is also mentioned that it is important to realise that an experience is not constant. This is at least due to the emotions of the customers who are involved. Emotions are changing over time and influence the experience.

Other factors which, influence an experience are the physical environment (the setting), the personnel, the fellow customers and the back office support. All these factors have to function optimally, because each factor influences the experience of a customer.

Some models were shown which illustrate the context of experiences.

5 Conclusion

In this report the nature of services, the nature of hospitality and the nature of experiences were discussed. It became clear that there is a lot of literature available about these subjects. It became also clear that further research is needed, especially for hospitality and experience?. That is needed because today there is no general agreement about what hospitality is. There are different opinions about this subject.

This report started with the history and the different definitions of services. During the time the approach of organisations had changed from a product-oriented approach to a service oriented approach. Also the definitions of services had changed during the last decades. First the definition of services focussed on the service itself and included only the services offered by the service organisation. Later on, Gummesson and Grönroos provided other dimensions to the definition of services. Gummesson added some characteristics to service, for example that they can be exchanged but that they can not be experienced in a tangible sense. Grönroos added to Gummessons' definition, that services must be seen as a process, in which interactions between customers and service providers play an important role.

After the history and definitions of services, some models were shown which explained the phenomenon services in more detail. An example is the Flower of Service which shows the core service surrounded by some supplementary services. Which supplementary services surround the core service, depends on the nature of the service offering. Grönroos' Augmented Service Offering combines the basic service package with the service process.

After these models some concepts which are related to services were discussed, for example 'relationship', 'relationship marketing', 'customer relationship management', 'communication' and the 'quality of services'. All these concepts are connected with each other. For example, communication with customers is very important, because without communication an organisation can not establish a relationship. The quality of services was also mentioned and has several dimensions. Important is to realise that the customer plays an important role in the quality of services. Another concept which was introduced was service management, which was defined as that an organisation appreciates the service perspective as a strategic approach and understands how to manage the organisation in order to develop a total service offering.

After the chapter about services, the chapter 'The nature of hospitality' began. Hospitality is a part of services. As said before, it was observed that at this moment there is no agreement about what hospitality exactly is and which characteristics it has. The opinions vary on this issue. It is important to develop a general agreement on what hospitality is, because a misinterpretation of hospitality influences for example the training of employees.

Nevertheless there is agreement about one aspect of hospitality, that is that hospitality has to deal with strangers. However, there is no clarity about what a stranger is. One states that everybody is a stranger, the other states that a stranger is somebody who is different.

In hospitality the host and the guest play a central role, it is all about the interaction between them. However, especially the host is very important in hospitality, because he provides hospitality and his acting influences the experience of the guest. The host has to find out the

needs and expectations of the guest and must be able to think and act from the guests' perspective. When the offered service matches with the needs and expectations of the guest, a hospitality experience is the result.

Nowadays, matching supply and demand is insufficient; the guests desire that their expectations will be exceeded. The guests also want what they expect. The supplier has to offer surplus value that distinguishes itself by the competitor.

The last subject that was discussed in this report, was 'The nature of experiences'. As said earlier, nowadays the host has to create surplus value to satisfy the guest. The guest of today wants to experience something. It was found out that experiences are not something of the last decade, but that experiences exist for a much longer period. Walt Disney played an important role in creating experiences. He created experiences with his animations and later on with his theme parks.

In the chapter about experience, it was also found out that it is a varied concept. Several definitions of the concept experience were mentioned. It is important to realise that there are two ways of explaining 'an experience'. The first way of explaining the concept 'experience' is that experience is a physical process, the second way is of explaining experience as a mental process. Developers of experiences have to be aware of this difference. It is also mentioned that it is important to realise that an experience is not constant. This is at least due to the emotions of the customers who are involved. Emotions are changing whole the time and influence the experience. Other factors which influence an experience are the physical environment (the setting), the personnel, the fellow customers and the back office support. All these factors have to function optimally, because each factor influences the experience of a customer.

Some models were shown which illustrate the context of experiences. One of these models is the Guest Journey Model. This model shows that an experience is influenced by many factors, for example the personal context of somebody, but also emotions. These emotions determine how one experiences an experience. The experience results in sense and meaning in the form of appreciation (positive or negative), the willingness to repeat and the willingness to share the experiences with other people.

To conclude, the concepts services, hospitality and experiences are varied concepts. It can also be stated that there are different opinions about and ways to explain these concepts. Especially for hospitality further research is needed, to result in a general agreement about this concept. As said before, a misinterpretation of this concept might influence future employees.

A fact is, that for all concepts, the interaction between the host and the guest are crucial. A host has to find out what the needs and expectations of the guests are. Otherwise he can not satisfy the guest. This is an agreement between all the three concepts; services, hospitality and experiences. In the future, the focus must be on the interaction between host and guests, in what the guest (and his needs and expectations) are in the middle.

The Research Centre of the Hospitality Business School wants to define the concept hospitality. It is for the Research Centre important to define some concepts, starting with some basic concepts: what was hospitality originally and what is a stranger? The authors'

opinion is that one can use the definition of S. Thio, namely that hospitality has to deal with strangers and that the nature of hospitality is related to friendliness, kindness and hospitableness. The nature of hospitality refers to the sharing of food, drink and accommodation to people who are not regular members of a household, for example neighbours, strangers etc. Thio states that the basic function of hospitality, is to establish a relationship or to promote an already established relationship.

However, this is not enough, hospitality includes much more than the characteristics mentioned above. That is why a combination of the different definitions must be done. The authors' opinion is to involve at least the opinion of Brotherton and Wood (2008). They argue that hospitality is composed of two themes, namely: hospitality as a means of social control, especially the control of 'strangers', people who are essentially alien to a particular physical, economic and social environment. The second theme of hospitality mentioned by Brotherton and Wood is hospitality as a social and economic exchange.

These authors can be used to come to a clear definition of the concept hospitality. It is important to avoid vague concepts. Like Brotherton and Wood who state that everybody is a stranger. This is a confusing observation, if you agree with it or not. One must be careful with the use of this kind of vague descriptions. In this report, also the Guest Journey Model was introduced, but this model can be optimised. At this moment there is no dimension of time in the model, which is an important part of a journey. The model can be combined with the Hospitality Model, developed by Jellema and Hattink (2007). This model can be used as input, of which the Guest Journey model is a consequence.

It can be concluded, that the Research Centre of the Hospitality Business School can use some of the definitions of hospitality in order to define the concept hospitality. At least the opinion of Brotherton and Wood can be used, and enhanced in future. The Guest Journey Model has to be developed more, a dimension of time must be added.

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