Firms, families, and local economy: how luxury yacht firms are surviving Covid-19

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Abstract

This work in progress aims to investigate how firms adapted and reacted to the Covid-19 crisis. To do so, we analyze the yacht industry during the Covid-19 crisis, where hand-work and coordination of people are needed to carry out activities. Our research question is threefold: (i) how did businesses cope and react to the Covid-19 crisis?; (ii) has the family dimension interacted with the businesses dealing with the Covid-19 crisis? (iii) what are the societal consequences of firms' decision-making under the Covid-19 crisis?

Objectives. *The recent disruption in the market happened in the form of a health crisis and turned out to be highly drastic not only for individuals but also for societies. Big corporations, small and medium enterprises, governments, and most importantly each individual got affected by the Covid-19 pandemic. This resulted in a series of government mandates in the hope of reducing the spread of the virus. Firms to some extent followed the practice and attempted strategies to overcome the period of the pandemic (Bhattacharyya & Thakre, 2021). Some of them approached the pandemic as a short-term disruption while others envisaged long-term fluctuations that may determine the future of their business (Bhattacharyya & Thakre, 2021; Sharma et al., 2020). Their reactions spanned from early closures to smart-working, reduction in production volume and adapting shift patterns, lay-offs, filing bankruptcy, etc.*

However, as the effects of the pandemic are still unfolding, how firms are adapting and reacting in the medium-long term is a promising research area. In addition, most researchers studied the effects of Covid-19 on the vital businesses that carry out an important role in the economy or the service industries that can continue their operations by digitalization thanks to the option of smart-working (Bhattacharya et al., 2020; Donthu & Gustafsson, 2020; Feng & Savani, 2020; Kwon, 2020; Sharma et al., 2020; Van Hoek, 2020). The question would be to know how other remaining industries are dealing with the pandemic. So, this research is aimed at understanding how an industry that requires hand-working and the physical presence of people reacted and coped with the pandemic. Do some other externalities enable them to produce and be sustainable during this hardship? For instance, we anticipate that the early disruptions which led to the supply-chain difficulties would affect less those firms that belong to an embedded (local) economy. To the best of our knowledge, only a few articles extend their study to the family (Amore et al., 2020; Kraus et al., 2020) and societal aspects considering employees who are being hurt most (Donthu & Gustafsson, 2020; Feng & Savani, 2020). For instance, as previous research explained and contemporary studies show (Amore et al., 2020; Kraus et al., 2020), family firms seem to be less vulnerable dealing with crises. Therefore, we attempt to discover the latent mechanism of dealing with Covid-19 for an overlooked industry of yachting, whose characteristics are relevant to the raised phenomenon and to investigate if any peculiarity of such an industry would play a role.

This extended abstract is structured as follows. First, we introduce the main research on crisis management, Covid-19 crisis, the family role and societal impacts in crisis management studies; then we describe the methodology we will use to investigate the Covid-19 pandemic on businesses, families and societies. Last, we present our expected findings.

Theoretical Framework.

Crisis management

Previous research found that factors explaining firms' ability to cope and react to a crisis include firms' age, size,

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industry, prior experience, the impact of disruptions, and the family firm status. While age has ambiguous effects on coping mechanisms and survival rates (Corey & Deitch, 2011), smallness is associated with difficulties in recovering (Corey & Deitch, 2011) and a higher likelihood to fail (Dahlhamer & Tierney, 1998). Firms' industries are differently impacted depending on the kind of triggering event. With regards to the health crisis, in addition to the health sector, tourism, hospitality, logistics, and transportation industries are among the first sectors absorbing the most damages (Bapuji et al., 2020; Kwon, 2020). Prior experience with crises can increase firms' preparedness (Dahlhamer & Tierney, 1998), thus bringing a higher likelihood to survive (Haynes et al., 2019). On the opposite, when crisis experience is limited, negative emotions might intensify, creating more ambiguity and pressure in decision making (Doern, 2016). The impact of the crisis and its effects on the disruption of operations and business interruption are significantly related to business recovery (Dahlhamer & Tierney, 1998).

Covid-19 pandemic on businesses: first studies

Research on the effects of Covid-19 on firms is expanding with both theoretical (Eggers, 2020; Juergensen et al., 2020) and empirical articles (Amore et al., 2020; Bartik et al., 2020; Rapaccini et al., 2020). Preliminary findings show that the financial aspect is one of the first and major problems firms faced during the crisis, with some firms more affected than others, depending on their debt and cash holdings levels (Amore et al., 2020). Supply chains experienced major disruptions, as containment measures and lockdowns affected them sequentially or concurrently, paralyzing some industries (Ivanov & Das, 2020). Firms are starting to adapt, following three trends: increased resiliency, regionalization (Juergensen et al., 2020), and inventory boarding (Ivanov & Das, 2020). On the demand side, during the lockdown, most SMEs and large firms (66%) expected a substantial negative impact on their sales. Manufacturing firms were the most affected, together with accommodation, real estate, wholesale and retail trade (Rapaccini et al., 2020).

Some business models were less affected than others. For instance, service and knowledge-based firms were more able to cope with the crisis (Juergensen et al., 2020), while servitization helped to cope with the crisis. Alternative business models, based on pay-per-use or pay-for-performance were more resilient than traditional ones (Rapaccini et al., 2020). In some cases, firms reacted with coopetition, with competing firms cooperating to share resources and capabilities to better cope with the crisis, increasing their efficiency and responding to the new issues and customers' needs (Crick & Crick, 2020). Digitalization was also among the first reactions, with an increase in remote working. It also brought some positive sides, as increased efficiency and an acceleration in the adoption of Industry 4.0 technologies (Juergensen et al., 2020). The research suggested that firms' reactions also varied based on firms' size, with being small as both a liability and an advantage, for firms were more flexible and reorganized their work more easily (Eggers, 2020; Juergensen et al., 2020).

Family firms and the Covid-19 pandemic

Being a family firm can also play a role. Thanks to their higher ability to leverage their past experiences and preference for non-financial goals (Berrone et al., 2010), family firms are usually more able to respond to crises (Mzid et al., 2019). Familiness background has been successful both in the United States, Asia, and Europe in overcoming previous financial crises (Amann & Jaussaud, 2012; Huang et al., 2015; Minichilli et al., 2016; van Essen et al., 2015). However, some research demonstrated that family firms around the whole world have underperformed during the 2008-2009 financial crisis (Lins et al., 2013).

During crises stemming from natural disasters, family firms are affected twice, as disasters impact both the family and the firm (Haynes et al., 2019). To cope with unexpected events and crises, firms usually renew their strategies and business model to adapt to the changes in the environment, with small or significant changes (Cucculelli & Peruzzi, 2020; Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010). This is in line with what Tidd & Bessant (1997) discussed, claiming that innovations occur in a highly uncertain environment. Thus, crises can become a chance for firms to innovate (Tidd & Bessant, 1997; Williams & Vorley, 2014). Pieces of research have shown that being a family firm was a strength for overcoming the first phase of the Covid-19 pandemic (Amore et al., 2020). However, medium-long term effects of the pandemic are still unfolding, thus making the interactions between the family and business dimension a promising area for research.

Societal effects of a crisis

Management literature on crises barely considers societal effects alone. It incorporates the societal level with either individual or organizational levels (Freeman & Auster, 2012). Most of the published articles have built upon the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) dimension. As if the CSR is an umbrella term that embraces all the research that want to contribute to the science of management baring the societal perspective. While CSR was developed as a tool to help managers baring in mind a holistic and diverse view of stakeholders and their actions, it was also misconducted by the opportunists to whitewash their irresponsible actions. They used green promises and as literature calls it "greenwashed" in order to sustain their costs (Jain, 2017). One should re-evaluate whether CSR remained an asset of a responsible leadership or a whitewashing tool. After all, delivering goods at reasonable prices to the consumers while not disrupting the resource ecosystem at cost of the future is the advantage each firm seeks to have.

However, there have been other pieces of research addressing the societal effects of crises among businesses differently. Most of these articles focused on the 2008 financial crisis and framed their study around those years (Englert et al., 2020; Paulet et al., 2015; Stinchfield & Silverberg, 2013). In this study we will concentrate on the overlooked dimensions of corporate social orientations namely "employee orientation" and "partner orientation". By this, we aim to uncover the shifts in managerial mindsets before and after the Covid-19 crisis toward the employee and partner stakeholders.

We still do not know to what extent and how firms responded to the Covid-19 crisis and how it affected their firms, families, and society. Thus, we aim to address this question in this paper and study the distinct characteristics of yacht firms in reacting to the crisis.

Methodology.

Empirical Context and Participants

As the nature and scope of this pandemic as a specific type of crisis are unprecedented, a qualitative methodology is required to extend existing theory (Bluhm et al., 2011; Graebner et al., 2012). Most crisis management research adopts qualitative approaches based on interviews or case studies with small sample sizes, which allow a deep level of analysis (Doern, 2016). This approach has several benefits, being focused and manageable, with the possibility of understanding causal relationships between events (Herbane, 2010). As all crises are different from one another (Corey & Deitch, 2011), crisis management research is aimed at sharing lessons learned, rather than generalizations (Buchanan & Denyer, 2013). We conduct qualitative expert interviews to answer our research questions (Kvale, 1983; Neergaard & Ulhøi, 2007) and obtain an "understanding" (Outhwaite, 1975) of firms' reactions to the Covid-19 crisis.

As the Covid-19 is highly transmissible among individuals, sectors requiring hand-working and human presence experienced major disruptions (Rapaccini et al., 2020). As luxury industries include hand-working as one of the required characteristics (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009), we believe they are a suitable context to investigate the effects of Covid-19 on firms. Giving the complex nature of the final product and the need to coordinate different suppliers (Atalay et al., 2017; Blundel & Thatcher, 2005; Brun & Karaosman, 2019; Ponticelli et al., 2013), the choice of yacht industry can also highlight the consequences the Covid-19 crisis has on supply chains, on organizational practices, as well as on family and societal aspects.

We selected Italy as our empirical context for two reasons. First, it is one of the countries most severely hit by the Covid-19 pandemic, and one of the first countries to adopt policy measures to contain the diffusion of the virus (Amore et al., 2020). Second, it is a peculiar country for the global yacht industry, accounting in 2015 for nearly 40% of the global yacht production (Brun & Karaosman, 2019b). Italy also accounts for many world-leading companies, collecting a market share of 47 % and producing spillovers for the SMEs operating in the maritime (Ponticelli et al., 2013b). It also includes the Viareggio yachting district, which has an international relevance for the yachting industry (Cavallini, 2013).

We selected firms based on three criteria. First, firms should be active, mainly focused on yacht manufacturing, and relevant in the industry. This criterion was checked triangulating multiple sources: AIDA (Bureau Van Dijk), a database which contains financial and commercial historical data from firms operating in Italy, firms' websites, existing literature on the yachting industry (Cavallini, 2013), internationally recognized lists (2020 Global Order Book, Boat International), recognized network of nautical firms. We employed a purposive sampling technique (Guest et al., 2006; Morse et al., 2002), interviewing key informants such as top management team members (e.g. CEOs or COOs) or the responsible area managers. In some cases, we contacted firms thanks to the authors' personal networks in the industry (Conz et al., 2020). The third criterion is the willingness to participate in the study. To allow for variety, we included both firms within and outside industrial districts, and both family and non-family firms. Thus, we were able to gain insights regarding both similarities and contrasts among the cases (Guest et al., 2006). Consistent with several previous studies (Campopiano & De Massis, 2015), we adopted two criteria to identify family firms: self-identification as a family firm and family involvement in ownership and management. We examined the corporate websites to establish whether the firms self-identified themselves as a family firm and double-checked during the interviews.

Data Collection

Due to the social distancing measures, the interviews were conducted by telephone and digital communication tools (Skype or Zoom), depending on the availability of respondents. The interviews were all recorded with the respondents' consent. Before each interview, we sent each participant the purpose of our research and information about the use of personal data. During the interview, we introduced ourselves, and asked each question following our topic guide, while asking for additional details following a semi-structured approach. The topic guide was developed as follows: (i) presentation and description of the respondent's role and organization; (ii) crisis' consequences on the firm and stakeholders; (iii) firms' reactions and innovations; (iv) the crisis' consequences on the family and relationship with the business dimension; (v) long-term expectations for the crisis and firm.

At the time of writing of the proposal, we have performed 8 interviews with key informants of 7 entities. The small sample size is consistent with previous research on crisis management, whose samples are usually small, starting from 4 interviews (Herbane, 2010).

Data Analysis

Interviews were transcribed word by word and will be coded in an open manner (Corbin & Strauss, 2014) using Nvivo. Data will be iteratively analyzed to uncover common themes and compared with earlier literature (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Wolcott, 1994).

Findings. *This article will contribute to the management literature by generating insights into how firms were affected and reacted to the Covid-19 crisis, considering the firm, the family, and societal dimensions. Although at the time of writing this proposal we have not finished the data analysis, we believe some trends will arise from the interviews: (i) on the business perspective, firms are adopting business model innovations, organizational, work style, and schedule changes, while increasing servitization and shifting towards a continuous crisis-management model; (ii) on the family perspective, family leadership has an impact in accelerating decisions; (iii) on the societal perspective,*

some firms are supporting their employees and suppliers, thus contributing to the resilience of both firm, families and the communities where they are settled. Our research brings unique contributions as our data are rich in detail, being provided by business owners and managers during the first year of the Covid-19 crisis. Finally, our research has practical implications as it will highlight the challenges and issues firms and families faced in the Covid-19 pandemic, and their consequences on society. Doing so, we provide a guideline for supporting firms, families and society in facing an unexpected disruptive crisis.

Research limits. *This research aimed at identifying the effects of Covid-19 on the luxury industry of yachting, which has been overlooked by the majority of management research. While we were looking for some peculiar externalities that can explain how and why firms in this sector approached the pandemic, another externality that can play a role is related to the geography of firms. Therefore, this paper's findings may not be generalized for other countries. Furthermore, while we claim that we are investigating the effects of Covid-19 on the luxury yacht industry, it cannot be implied that each subsector of luxury industry (such as apparels) encounters the same difficulties and approach overcoming the pandemic. Besides, even though we did not intend exclusively to study the familiness effects on dealing with Covid-19, we used it as an auxiliary control to see whether this phenomenon can also explain the dynamics of overcoming Covid-19 consequences. Hence, the number of non-family firms does not match the family-firms cases, which is also a consequence of doing research in a crisis period, as some firms are not available for interviews.*

Originality of the study. *This qualitative study will contribute to many domains of management research. First, it provides new knowledge about the crisis management of a luxury manufacturing industry whose products do not seem vital for the daily lives of individuals, thus showing how a non-essential industry managed its survival with all the mandates and government regulations during the Covid-19 pandemic. Interestingly and as expected, the Viareggio district facilitated the industry of yachting to escape from the relevant hardship as the downstream and upstream sides of the network mostly coexist in the same region. Last but not least, business model innovation often happens when confronting external shocks and often is anticipated to capture bigger market gaps. This research unveils the prior underlying factor and explains how the yacht manufacturers of the Viareggio district are seizing the opportunity to change their business model due to the Covid-19 crisis. Besides, this article extends the ongoing studies that contribute to the research on family firms by studying both their coping mechanisms for their firms to survive and to the relationships with their employees. Last but not least, we attempted to understand how they treated their employees and how they planned to help them during this hardship.*

Key words: *Covid-19; yacht; luxury, family firm; local economy; crisis management*

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The role of influencer marketing during the lockdown: an analysis of Italian influencers

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Objectives. *It's October 19, 2020, a phone call that is definitely unexpected: the President of the Italian Council called Chiara Ferragni and Fedez. The President, Giuseppe Conte, asked the digital entrepreneur and rapper to help him convey a very important message. The Prime Minister asked the couple, who had been very active on social media, to help him convince Italians, especially young people, to wear masks during this difficult period of the COVID-SARS 19. During the lockdown, young people followed the influencers rather than TV programs and the news (Bloomberg,2020). This particular period has had a strong impact on everyone's life, increasing the need to communicate, share and establish authentic relationships through social networks. This trend has been confirmed by all the platforms that have recently evidenced an inevitable increase in the time users spend online and an unprecedented increase in the interactions on Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and YouTube between influencers and followers. So far, social networks continue to have the highest historical usage in the world. Indeed, since the onset of the health emergency, the creation of bulletin boards has increased by 60 per cent compared to the same period last year, with 40 per cent more content saved on an annual basis (Ipsos, 2020). We know that the world has changed. Like other global events with a global impact, COVID-SARS 19could potentially change the way we see the world, the way we think, and the way we live our lives. Despite human tragedies - the loss of life, broken families, widespread fear, economic and social changes - the pandemic-driven lockdown created a cultural legacy that will live long in our memories and the memories of the future generations. The Osservatorio Influencer Marketing (OIM) unifies Ipsos and FLU, specializes in influencer marketing and it is a leading market research company and an Italian agency belonging to Uniting Group Holding. OIM conducted a qualitative and a quantitative survey in May 2020 in Italy. The former was carried out in an online community of 30 people while the latter was conducted through 500 online interviews with the followers of influencers and the users whose age varied between 18 and 55 .The results of the quantitative survey show that one in four users started to follow new influencers and almost 70% of respondents agreed with the opinions of influencers while 18% of respondents even improved their opinion about the influencers. In contrast to what happened before the emergency, during the lockdown 63% of the interviewed users stated that they used social media to keep up with current events (dataPp that before the pandemic was 28%); 52% used social media to keep in touch with their family and friends (common habit to only 39% of users before the pandemic) (Flu,2020). There were also the most established habits to look at trends and photos of the moment, follow pages and profiles of brands and products, share and comment on content posted by themselves or by others and use social media as if they were a search engine. While the topic of academic research is already a hot topic, the COVID-SARS19 pandemic, coupled with trends in youth media consumption patterns, has created even greater influence in influencer marketing (Taylor, 2020). In the wake of numerous difficulties due to COVID-SARS 19, influencer marketing has emerged as an efficient way for relevant, engaging content to achieve global reach. (Hongwei He, Lloyd Harris, 2020).*

This article examines the role of influencers marketing during the lockdown caused by COVID-SARS 19, due to the limited academic research on the newness of this topic, a qualitative methodological approach has been adopted based on content analysis of some influencer marketing related to the Italian scenario: Chiara Ferragni, Clio make-up and Benedetta Rossi.

Influencers marketing are seen as unique people with a strong reputation in particular areas, who can generate useful content (Kim et al., 2017), followed by a significant number of online social network users (De Veirman et al., 2017). The reputation may be drawn from the expertise and consumer confidence of influencers in their field. Success and sway of influencers can be determined by their engagement, which defines the ability of consumers to respond to a post. One way of measuring the engagement is to compute a person in a post based on time spans such as monthly, daily or hourly periods and calculating the number of likes, comments, shares, retweets and favorites (Arora et al., 2019). Therefore, influencer marketing "represent a new type of independent third party endorser who shape audience attitudes through blogs, tweets, and the use of other social media" (Freberg et al., 2011). They are the leaders of online opinion who succeed in building their unique public image (also called self-branding). They do this through fascinating narratives that attract followers to their social media accounts (e.g. Instagram, Facebook, YouTube) for cultural /

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commercial purposes (Khamis et al., 2017). Influencers marketing are essential intermediaries for brands aimed at the new generation, which is notoriously hard to reach (Enke & Borchers, 2019). They share tastes and knowledge, including fashion, beauty, hobbies and everyday life, with other individuals, and provide product reviews. An influencer is someone who works on social media in exchange for compensation (Campbell & Grimm, 2019). Influencer marketing is a communication strategy that uses popular and influential users of social media (Gillin, 2009) and has become a new strategy increasingly adopted by companies (Lou et al., 2019; De Veirman et al., 2017). Influencers may post to any social media platform, although Instagram and Facebook are the most popular (National Advertisers Association, 2018). Enterprises pay influencers money or in goods, services, trips, experiences, etc. Influencer marketing is the most economically efficient and the most direct and organic tool when contacting potential customers as part of the innovative marketing strategies (Lou, et al., 2019). It could be defined as the use of influential opinion leaders (influencers), celebrities or non-celebrities, with many followers on social platforms, to foster positive attitudinal and behavioral responses in their followers (consumers) about the interests of the brand through the use of shared positions on such platforms, and to enable influencers and followers to participate in the co-creation of the brand. Influencer marketing aims to create favorable WOM (word of mouth) users to influence their various followers' actions (Petrescu et al., 2018). Influencers, apart from their digitally formatted messages, are considered as personal and credible sources to which the consumer can relate. (Boerman,2020; DeVeirman et al., 2017). Therefore, traditional advertising is being lost in the era of digitalization, sensory overload, social mistrust and individualization and then, marketing influencers are now powerful marketing means (Nirscl and Steinberg 2018). Finally, messages from influencers appear to originate from a "person like you or me" and not a probably distrustful company, which can be seen as a means of bringing consumers to buy their products (Jahnke, 2018).

As countries around the world have been locked down, businesses have cut back on their operations and marketing spending has been extensively cut, some observers predict that the social media influencer industry would be all but 'killed off'. As economic prosperity, personal pleasure and public health shifted to focus and community involvement, COVID-SARS 19 seemed to have ended influencer marketing as we know it. However, as a world adapted to the life of a pandemic, numerous influencers who are driven by trade continue to thrive, suggesting that influencers are even more important as marketing opportunities for ideas and products because people are hungry for online content (Archer et al., 2020). Statistics suggest that during the period of lockdown social media use increased dramatically, with an overall survey of 30 markets showing a 61% increase in commitment over normal rates of use (Forbes, 2020). During the lockdown, young people followed influencers rather than TV programs. Whilst some influencers have struggled clearly to adapt to changing market conditions and to rapidly seize business opportunities (Bloomberg,2020), others have embraced the world crisis, exploiting public insecurity and disorientation in order to develop power and reach marketability and market share, mainly posting COVID-SARS 19 (Archer et al., 2020).

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, the extent of impact of influencers in the advertising/promotion sense was debated considerably. A 2018 ANA study found that 75% of consumers are likely to use influencer marketing, but only 36% of them are convinced that it is effective. Even though influencer marketing is not dead, and it is likely only going through a revival phase during COVID-19 (Taylor, 2020).

The major research on influencer success has mainly concentrated on numerical requirements such as the number of participants, retweets or page rankings. The only criterion for remuneration may be the number of followers (Wiedmann et al., 2018). These requirements may intuitively appear excellent for predicting the success of an influencer camp, but they are not sufficient to show the content in the social network of influencers marketing and the reason for the success of the influencer marketing. This article examines the role of influencers during the lockdown caused by COVID-SARS 19, since there is a lack of academic research on this topic. A qualitative methodological approach was adopted based on the content analysis of 559 Instagram posts by Italian influencers - Chiara Ferragni, Benedetta Rossi and Clio make-up.

The research question is: What role did influencer marketing play during the lockdown?

Methodology. *The aim of this study is to understand, referring to the Italian scenario, the role that influencer marketing played during the global pandemic (COVID-SARS 19) and whether its activities had different impacts on their role within the society, with reference to the Italian market. In order to answer the research question, three influencers of the Italian scenario were examined, each belonging to a specific category: Chiara Ferragni as lifestyle influencer, Benedetta Rossi as food influencer and Clio Zammatteo (Clio Make-up) as beauty influencer.*

Chiara Ferragni has a total of 23,511,327 million followers divided as follows: 1,213,390 million followers on Facebook page, 152,000 subscribers on YouTube channel with over 1 million views for some videos published, 509,000 thousand followers on Twitter and 21,636,937 followers on Instagram.

Clio Make-up has a total of 7,106,833 million followers: 1,340,000 million subscribers to the YouTube channel with a record of 4 million views for some tutorials, 2,639,703 followers on Facebook page, 181,000 thousand followers on Twitter and 3,127,130 million followers on Instagram.

Benedetta Rossi has a total of 12,813,997 million followers: 2,330,000 million subscribers to the YouTube channel with a record of over 3 million views for some videos, 7,060,749 on Facebook page, 15,000 thousand followers on Twitter and 3,408,248 followers on Instagram.

The choice fell on these three characters because according to a study conducted by the Influencer Marketing Observatory (OIM) emerged that Chiara Ferragni, Benedetta Rossi and Clio Make-up were the most followed influencers during the lock-down due to the global pandemic.

In order to achieve the objective, a content analysis has been carried out through the posts published on the official Instagram pages.

The reference period within which the analysis was carried out, goes from March 9, 2020, the start-date of the lock-down in Italy, until May 18, 2020, the last day of lock-down.

For the purpose of the analysis, a qualitative study was conducted through NVivo, a qualitative research software used to classify, group and organize unstructured data, which helps to improve the rigor of data analysis and reduce errors in the dissemination of data in manual analysis (Crowley et al., 2002). More specifically, 332 posts by Chiara Ferragni, 176 Benedetta Rossi and 51 posts by Clio-Makeup were analyzed in the period of reference; the most repeated words were identified through words counting, obtained thanks to the use of "Word Frequency" by Nvivo. Word frequency is a code that assists researchers in their research projects. It provides a list of words, without making changes, in order to avoid bias. Finally, word frequency provides a sample word cloud chart or other type of graphics, that utilizes Stata's own scatter graphs. The word cloud chart is simple, while the code that generates the chart, is more complex and it is provided to the user for possible modification, betterment and adaptation with respect to individual needs (Dicle et al., 2018).

Findings. *The evolution of social networks has led to an exponential increase in the visibility of influencers, and their media power has increasingly emerged. In order to help and launch unity campaigns and contributions to defeat the COVID-SARS 19, but also to recount their own national lives, a more prominent position was used.*

According to a very recent analysis published by Nielsen, it was found that during the lockdown people's confidence in influencers increased, mainly due to the role played during the pandemic, raising public awareness, entertaining and pampering their followers, thus relieving the stress due to the "stay at home". In addition, they gave examples of creativity, proposing activities and solidarity, capturing the emotional part of the users, through storytelling about their lives. Influencers were among the first to adapt to this change

Tab. 1: The carried-out analysis highlights very interesting results, summarized in the following table

Marketing Influencers	*Word Frequency*	*Media Engagement Rate*	*Media Engagement rate in the analysed period*	*Follower increment/decrement*
Chiara Ferragni	*Son (67), Emergency/Quarantine/Hospital (24), Memories (23), funny video (22), sponsor (17), family (16), birthday (10), cook (8)*	*2,16*	*3,86*	*+ 1.450.912*
Benedetta Rossi	*Cake (20), Tart (10), Emergency (6), Easter (6), Gnocchi (5), Parmesan cheese (4), Pizza (4), Cookies (4), Doughnut (4)*	*1,17*	*2,33*	*+ 634.879*
Clio Make-up	*Clio Pop-up (18), Daughter's birth (8), Homemade (7), Tutorial (4), (6), Focaccia (2), Sponsor (2), Cake (2)*	*0,93*	*3,37*	*+ 142.167*

559 posts have been analyzed, and from the results that emerged in the Table 1 it can be immediately noticed that the highlighted words refer to concepts related to the family, the emergency due to COVID-SARS 19, tutorials on how to cook, prepare homemade masks, or make funny videos. It is clear that the focus on the activities they normally perform has shifted, giving space to different ways of communication. It is noted that the word "sponsor" for example, very rarely emerges, in the case of Benedetta Rossi it is not repeated even once, while words like "Emergency", "Homemade", "Family/Son/Daughter", are repeated much more frequently for all three cases of analysis.

This is one of the most interesting aspects that emerged from the results.

Let's remember that being a marketing influencer is basically a job like others, what made the difference with them was also the companies, who understood the importance of continuing to talk to consumers but in a new and authentic way; clearly the role of influencers was decisive, who decided to stop their commercial communications turning towards: socially inclusive, responsible and ethical communication. It remains, in our opinion, a missed opportunity for companies that have decided not to change their communication or say anything about it.

From the overall analysis of the posts, different themes emerged: concepts related to the awareness of users towards the pandemic and through crowdfunding initiatives. This is particularly true in the case of Chiara Ferragni. Moreover, through the proposal of homemade activities or products, for example baking cakes or creating homemade face masks, the influencers have entered people's daily life, sharing moods and helping them to make the hours fly. In fact, in addition to entertaining and producing creative content, their role has been informative and focused.

Another important element is the use of words such as "Emergency/Quarantine/Hospital, Homemade, Family", which are expressions of collective feelings and social solidarity. It can define this concept such as emotional solidarity. It is considered "the degree of closeness between individuals, whereby a sentiment of 'we together' is championed over the notion of a 'self-versus-other' dichotomy" (Woosnam et al., 2009).

Other collected data, are represented by the level of engagement (which we remind you, it is the level of involvement related to a content through reactions or comments), which during the period analyzed has increased, this is certainly because people had more time available but also because the content was of interest; to confirm what said above, there is another significant data given by the exponential increase in the number of followers, + 1.450.912 for Chiara Ferragni, + 634.879 for Benedetta Rossi , + 142.167 for Clio Make-up.

It is clear that the role of influencer marketing, in this period of health emergency has evolved. The sphere of entertainment is undoubtedly the area of predominant interest for followers, but it has emerged a particularly interesting fact related to the ability of influencers to get in tune with their followers, so let's talk about the empathic aspect. From Table 1 in fact, it is possible to notice how the engagement has increased during the lockdown period, even if the contents in the posts were not sponsorship, but stories of life, memories and entertainment activities.

Wanting to observe the role of influencer marketing in an evolutionary perspective, we can say that, according to the results, the key word for success will be "Trust": content made with professionality, seriousness and authenticity.

Research limits. *The present work has limits that can be traced back to various aspects. First of all, the use of a single social platform, Instagram, does not allow a view of the activities of the total marketing influencer, but only related to the posts published on the platform under analysis. In the future research it can extend to other Social media platforms (e.g. Facebook, TikTok). Secondly, the analysis has been carried out paying attention only to the Italian scenario, in the future research it can extend with a cross-country analysis; at the end, the number of influencers, which we remind to be three, could be limited in order to generalize the results. In a future research it could also be analyzed the perception that followers have had of influencers during the lockdown.*

Practical implications. *The role of influencer marketing within the society can also have a more important impact on different issues compared to those usually treated. The activities performed during the lockdown, which differ from those that people practice daily, could also arouse interest from companies that do not necessarily operate in the influencer's sector. From the data, it has emerged that the role of influencers has also had great social impact, so many companies could choose to use influencer marketing even just to promote ethically correct and socially responsible behavior or even, to convey the interests of their target audience. The corporate communication, in fact, is moving towards a new trend, the humanization of the brand as an element to create a sustainable competitive advantage over time. Human branding creates connection with the brand and increases the level of trust, it is the element that supports the use of marketing influencers as ambassadors not only of a product or service but also of a mode of communication that aims to create long-term ties.*

Originality of the study. *Influencers played a prominent role on the Internet during the lockdown in terms of data sharing, promotion of good practices and charity. The role of influencer marketing has undergone the evolution that has led to the production of quality content that can capture the users' attention. But perhaps it is also true that, once again, it can be said that the social role of the influencer and their human aspect have been further emphasized in this situation. Influencers were able to provide information and advice on the behaviors to be held to address the current critical issues, which meant that followers were more interested in their online activities. The significance of the most followers obtained must be attributed, in some cases, to the capacity that some of them have had to develop beneficial initiatives. A powerful example of this was Chiara Ferragni and Fedez, who decided to collect the funds needed to create a temporary intensive care pavilion at the San Raffaele Hospital in Milan. Benedetta Rossi was the influencer who delighted and pampered her followers through the creation of recipes, offering support and company. Through daily shared tutorials, Clio make-up has entertained its followers. We can summarize these behaviors through the identification of 3 different concepts: no sponsor, emotional solidarity, socially inclusive, responsible and ethical communication. The analysis has verified how many have decided not to share or reduce the content to be sponsored during lockdown, at a time when disparities between people have increased, and many marketing influencers have had socially inclusive behaviours. This is a great example for the society.*

Key words: *Influencer marketing, COVID-SARS 19, Instagram, Social Media, Communication Management, Content Analysis*

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From brand control to brand co-creation: paradigm shift and emerging new brand perspectives

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Objectives. *Brandsphere (de Chernatony, 2006) has radically changed in recent years, especially since the rise of the Internet and related interactive technologies (Christodoulides, 2009). New technologies led to a deeper involvement of consumers in the processes of collaborative knowledge and innovation (Nambisan 2002; Sawhney et al., 2005; Verona and Prandelli, 2006), in the processes of design and production of goods and in the evolution of brand values (Vargo and Lusch, 2016). Consumer empowerment (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Denegri-Knott et al., 2006; Magee and Galinsky, 2008) expanded by the emergence of powerful digital tools and related user-generated content (Schultz et al., 2012; Østergaard et al., 2015), makes ineffective traditional command-and-control approaches to brand management and traditional hierarchical communication models. The current processes undermine the traditional branding as a process strictly controlled by companies (Keller, 1993; Gensler et al., 2013), thus favoring an open and collaborative approach of branding (Merz et al., 2009; Muniz and Schau, 2011; Ind et al., 2013). On these premises, brand strategies need to be substantially rethought, undergoing significant transformations and inevitable adaptations to these new participative and interactive environments.*

This working paper aims at discussing the evolution of brand paradigms in the direction of co-creation and participative approaches in the last three decades. The brand has always been considered as a strategic resource owned by the company and as such has always been placed at the base of the company's core strategies. The Nineties defines a turning point for brand management, in which a series of seminal studies (Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1997; Fournier, 1998) reviews the theoretical foundations of branding, built around the idea of the brand as an integrated part of the marketing mix (Borden, 1964; McCarthy, 1964; Carpenter and Lehman,1985; Kotler, 1965; Shugan. 1987) or as an element of corporate identity (Bernstein, 1984; Albert and Whetten, 1985; Gray, 1986; Abratt, 1989). Aaker's (1997) study and the relational theory (Fournier, 1998) mark a definitive turning point in the way of conceiving the brand (Payne, Ballantyne and Christopher; 2005) and anticipate the following value co-creation theory. In 2000s, Prahalad and Ramaswamy in fact theorize the phenomenon of co-creation, at the center of numerous subsequent studies (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2000; 2004a; 2004b; Hatch and Schultz, 2010; Ramaswamy, 2008; 2009; Ramaswamy and Gouillart, 2010; Ramaswamy and Ozcan, 2016). Despite of different definitions in the literature (OHern and Rindfleisch, 2010; Zwass, 2010; Ranjan et al., 2016), the concept of co-creation is widely used to indicate a collaborative process between consumers and companies, aimed to co-create brand value "through network relationships and social interactions among the ecosystem of all stakeholders" (Hatch and Shultz, 2010, p. 592). Consumers increasingly want to actively contribute and co-create their desired brands (Kennedy and Guzmán, 2017).

With the emergence of brand co-creation, it becomes clear that brands cannot be managed through a pre-determined process. The empowered consumers (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Pitt et al., 2002; Denegri-Knott et al., 2006; Magee and Galinsky, 2008; Pires et al., 2006) are less receptive to company messages and influence branding decisions and activities (Füller et al., 2009), both positively and negatively. They can act as the main opponents of brands, as in the cases of No Logo movements (Klein, 2000) and brand hijacking phenomena (Wipperfurth, 2005, Langley, 2016, Laskin, 2018). Thus, the illusion of brand control emerges (McAfee, 2009). Brand management teams are no longer able to contribute to the formation of the brand meaning alone (Kaufmann et al., 2016) and to define and control brand meaning unilaterally, but they must be considered actors among many others (Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013).

Interactive models of internet communication generate a continuous interaction of "multiple" communication channels and "multiple" conversations by "multiple" actors for and about brands (Vollero, Siano and Schulz, 2019). Brand boundaries are gradually fading, bringing out the idea of an open, borderless brand (based on the principles of interactivity and dynamism (Pitt et al., 2006; Fournier and Avery, 2011; Mairinger, 2008; Pharr, 2011).

In the last decade, branding become an evolutionary process that implies the possibility of establishing, destabilizing and re-establishing (Deleuze and Guattari, 1999, Wider, 2018) its starting structures by incorporating

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creative and spontaneous flows from the outside (Wider, 2018). Brand is never equal to itself and continues to evolve together with the scenarios and social interactions. Alongside the notion of open-source brand, the concept of negotiated brand has recently emerged (Gregory, 2007; Ranjan and Read, 2016; Vollero, Dalli and Siano, 2016). The negotiation process of brand implies the need to ensure that the brand identity evolves in a collaborative way, increasing the possibility of solving conflict situations.

Starting from the literature review, which clearly shows "tectonic" changes in branding (Jones, 2012), the present research aims to trace the evolution of branding. Based on Kuhn's (1970) definition of paradigm as the entire constellation of beliefs, values, methods and techniques shared by members of a community in a given historical period (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Berthon, Nairn and Money, 2003), it is possible to define a paradigm shift between the logic of brand control and the logic of brand co-creation.

In addition, this study aims to provide an integrated conceptual framework for the evolution of branding and highlight the direction toward it is moving.

Methodology. *We analyze brand control and co-creation approaches using Kuhn's study of paradigms. In the kuhnian view, paradigm shift (Kuhn, 1962;1970; Burrell and Morgan,1979; Bjerre, Heding and Knudtzen, 2008) occurs as a result of the observation of anomalies to which existing theories are unable to provide explanations. We define, in fact, the phenomena described in literature review and contextual change analyzed as anomalies and it is precisely in the light of these new "non-ordinary" phenomena manifested in branding that researchers and brand managers are forced to reject the basic belief system (Guba and Lincoln, 1994) of the old theories of brand management and brand communication and accept new ones (Kuhn 1970). Taking into account theoretical background, assumptions, methods (quantitative, qualitative or mixed) and toolkit of brand communication and implication, the approaches of brand control and brand co-creation are classified as paradigms (Kuhn, 1970; Berthon, Nairn and Money, 2003; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; De Conti, 2016, Burrell and Morgan, 1979).*

Following Burrell and Morgan (1979), the two paradigms are identified from basic meta-theoretical assumptions, which underpin the framework, theorization and modus operandi of the branding theorists. In more details, to provide an integrated conceptual framework of branding, we extract from literature distinctive factors to well-define and compare the brand control paradigm and the brand co-creation paradigm. We take into consideration the terminology used by authors and scholars of branding and we extrapolate the most used concepts to analyze branding and associated phenomena. The dimensions extracted are: brand boundaries (Jones, 2012; Pitt et al.,2006), brand communication flows (Christodoulides,2009), brand manager role and consumer role in branding processes (Keller, 1993; Louro and Cuhna, 2001; Heding, 2008; Wider, 2018), branding activities (Ramaswamy, 2000; Brodie, 2009), branding approach (Shotter and Tsoukas, 2011) and brand communication mix (Vollero, Siano and Schultz, 2019).

Departing from this paradigmatic analysis, we also examine and map the brand perspectives emerging within the Brand Co-Creation paradigm. We compare them on the basis of the above-mentioned extracted factor.

Findings. *Research from the 1960s to the 1990s are manifestations of a managerial mentality center on control, deeply rooted in brand management practices (Christodoulides, 2009; Iglesias and Bonet, 2012) and manifested in the term 'management' itself (Wider, 2018). Brand control approach defines a closed and self-referential brand structure where consumers as seen as passive recipients of brand values and meanings (Christodoulides, 2009; Iglesias et al., 2013). The exchange between brand and consumer is linear and unidirectional.*

The methods of brand control approach are mainly quantitative, and use one-way communication model and a pure brand communication-mix, in which company can maintain some control. In the logic of brand control, the brand's desire to build a brand story and convey it to its stakeholders, so brand storytelling can be conceived as a effective managerial tool.

Studies from 1990s determine a radical change moving towards a vision of shared and co-created values and meanings of the brand. The brand co-creation approach defines a new logic of branding focused on stakeholders (Merz and Vargo, 2009; Christodoulides, 2009; Gregory, 2007) and a deeper involvement of stakeholders in the creation of brand values and meanings (Ramaswamy and Ozcan, 2016). This approach looks at consumers as co-creator of brand values and meanings (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2000; 2004a; Vargo and Lusch 2004; 2006; 2008; Christodoulides, 2009; Iglesias et al., 2013). The exchange between brand and consumer is bidirectional and dyadic (Fournier, 1998) and brand meanings is orchestrated by brand managers and co-created through dialogue (Ramaswamy, 2008) with fans on social media (Rosenthal et al., 2017).

The methods of brand co-creation approach are mainly qualitative or mixed methods. In brand co-creation logic, we can discern the use of interactive communication model and of hybrid brand communication mix (Vollero, Siano and Schulz, 2019), that support the concept of engagement, interaction and dialogue between company and consumer. Interactive digital media become an integral part of a company's communication mix (Erdem et al. 2016; Labrecque et al. 2013). An effective tool to enlarge the experience of brand storytelling is transmedia storytelling (Jenkins, 2006). User generated branding (Arnhold, 2010) and crowdsourcing are modalities of brand management that starts from this user generated content.

Taking into account the indications suggested by Kuhn (1962 and 1970) we argue that it is insufficient to speak of "approaches" as purely analytical schemas or points of view, but it is needed to use the expression of paradigms, because in them an entire worldview and all its implications are revealed (Orman, 2016), and they can be used as a reading grid (De Conti, 2016) of the phenomena involved in branding. The two paradigms of Brand Control and Brand Co-Creation are completely opposite in their theoretical assumptions, methods and brand communication techniques.

They offer alternative views of reality (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), and to understand their nature involves two different views of branding. Extracting from literature distinctive factors, we can well-define and compare the two paradigms.

In the brand control paradigm, the brand has well-defined borders and interacts in a unidirectional way with stakeholders (top-down communication flows) (Christodoulides, 2009; Iglesias et al., 2013), projecting the self towards the outside (self-referencing) and excluding the consumer from the value creation system.

In Brand Co-Creation paradigm, the brand opens its own borders and brand manager became "stimulator" of content from "controller" of signification brand processes. There is still partial control over communication flows. Brand manager establishes how consumers can participate in branding processes (Ramaswamy and Ozcan, 2016) but consumer is not a passive recipient of brand communication (bidirectional communication flows) (Fournier, 1998). It is precisely the co-creation of value and the evident reversal of roles in the company-consumer relationship that determines an even more visible reduction of the brand boundaries (Jones,2012) and therefore the need to find points of contact and negotiation with consumers.

In this section we also highlight that within the Brand Co-Creation paradigm a number of brand perspectives emerge: Negotiated Brand, Open-Source Brand, and Brand Hijacking. We trace the differences between them using the above dimensions.

The Negotiated Brand perspective poses the need to find a way to control the external communication flows coming from a consumer who competes with the company in the value creation system (Gregory, 2007; Ranjan and Read, 2016; Vollero, Dalli and Siano, 2016). Brand boundaries are partially disappearing. The brand manager became a "negotiator". Through brand touchpoints interacts with their communities and mediate the different positions trying to solve conflict situations and to develop the brand identity in a collaborative way (Ind, Iglesias and Schultz, 2013). These interactions are guided by reciprocity. The consumer becomes a competitor of brand in the value creation process (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004), becoming aware of her/his negotiation power.

The perspective of the Open-Source Brand, which embraces the idea of a brand without borders, is based on the need to adopt logics of adaptation to external flows (Pitt et al., 2002). The consumer (single or gathered in community) becomes the protagonist in the value creation system, appropriating the identity elements and brand values - re-meaning and re-modeling them, through their own experience (Fournier and Avery, 2011). Brand manager becomes an observer and an active receiver in this signification process. From the logics of participation and negotiation, the brand moves towards new logics of adaptation (Fournier and Avery, 2011) and survival.

Lastly, in brand hijacking perspective, brand's borders disappeared and consumers have a full control over the brand. The communication flows became unpredictable and incontrollable, since brand manager reduce her/his power on entire brand signification processes and assumes a role of "protector" of brand values in situations of brand attack (Kristal et. al., 2018). The closure of the company within its own boundaries is replaced by a vision in which prosumers create the offer and are the main authors of the brand messages, creating and defining the brand values (Wipperfurth, 2005). It becomes clear that the company's control over the brand drastically decreases, by force of consumer empowerment.

We can state that the paradigm shift is closely correlated with the progressive empowerment of the consumer more evident in digital environments. Consumer empowerment impacts the dynamics of brand control, leading to a loss of brand control by firms. Progressive consumer empowerment and loss of brand control are the two features that lead to new branding dynamics: a greater consumer empowerment leads to a lower degree of control over the brand by companies.

We use a scale ranging from a maximum degree of brand control to a minimum degree of consumer empowerment and, conversely, from a maximum degree of consumer empowerment to no control of the company over the brand. We pass from full control of the company to the total empowerment of consumers over the brand. On this scale we place the examined brand perspectives. In Negotiated Branding and Open Source Branding we are still in a collaborative phase (collaborative brand co-creation), in Brand Hijacking there is no collaboration (non-collaborative brand co-creation) (Kristal et al., 2018; Siano et al., 2021). This defines how control over the brand by companies is disappearing and that it is consumers who reshape and give new and creative forms to the brand.

The control degree is diluted in the paradigm of the Brand Co-Creation, in which branding mechanisms are finalized to participation of consumer in the value creation system. In Brand Co-Creation, the consumer has greater power over the brand (Mitchell et al.,2001), but the degree of control by companies is still medium-high. In fact, the concept of Brand Co-Creation is based on the idea of a "stimulated involvement" of consumers in brand value-creation processes since consumer participation in branding mechanisms is under the control of the company.

Brand Negotiation, as the word "negotiation" itself suggests, defines a situation of balance of power between brand and consumer. The actors involved into negotiation are placed on the same level and have the same weight in the negotiation. This situation of balance is the most desirable for the company and represents an ideal (Vollero, Siano and Schulz, 2019). In reality, the axis of power is continually shifted towards the consumer.

In the perspective of Open-Source Brand, the brand becomes a property of a very large community of consumers empowered (Pitt et al., 2002). The empowerment of consumers is medium-high, and the degree of corporate control over the brand is really low, but not totally absent (medium-low level).

In Brand Hijacking perspective, company totally losses the control over the brand (Wipperfurth, 2005) and the empowerment of consumer is high. The brand identifies with consumers and their relationships.

Research limits. *The conceptual paper presents the typical limitations of the deductive approach based on literature review. The two paradigms defined represent the most informed and sophisticated view (Guba and Lincoln,* *1994), that we have been able to conceive based on the extant studies and followed over the years by branding scholars. These definitions do not imply a complete unity of thought and we are aware that paradigms, as basic sets of beliefs, are not open to testing with traditional methodologies in conventional sense (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).*

Implications and future research. *Based on the analysis of observable phenomena in the field of branding and the theories that have followed, we assert that the paradigm shift has occurred, and that this requires an adjustment and adaptation of management theories towards inclusive, participatory and open approaches (Ballantyne and Varey, 2006). It becomes clear that the company's control over the brand drastically and inevitably decreases, by force of consumer empowerment. The consciousness of the illusion of brand control (McAfee, 2009) and the abandonment of brand control logics project brands towards new realities more in line with the social and cultural contexts in which it is immersed. Given that the brands receive ever-increasing input from a wide network of contributors, the processes that can be used to support the brand building (internal practices for keeping the coordination of the brand development) should be on the top of the agenda for researchers in the future (Veloutsou, Delgado-Ballester, 2018). The need arises to adopt flexible and open-ended communication processes and an emerging and unplanned strategy to prepare for the uncertain and unpredictable conditions to which brands are subjected. This behaviour should be aimed at finding a balance between opening the brand to external flows and protecting brand. As brand managers are no longer able to unilaterally define and control brand meaning they need to perceive themselves as one actor among many (Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013). Brand managers have to accept that from brand guardians, they have become brand hosts and in this new role they can try to coordinate the brand support and, in some occasions, they become observers of the changes that other stakeholders impose (Veloutsou, Delgado-Ballester, 2018).*

It is necessary that companies accept the opening of the brand and the flexibility to re-imagine or even overturn the history of the brand with narrative of consumers. Future research will have to be oriented in this direction, in the analysis of the possible actions that brands can take to make manageable, apparently unmanageable flows.

In the final part of this working paper, we propose a framework which integrates the brand paradigms and the emerging brand perspectives. It has theoretical and practical implications. In fact, the holistic view that derives from it is useful for scholars, managers, and practitioners. It allows a conscious understanding of the path of evolution of branding and the direction in which it is moving. It helps to overcome the fragmented way in which brand perspectives are generally treated in mainly from an operational point of view, especially by practitioners.

Originality of the study. *The attempt to interpret changes in branding through the concept of paradigm is not new. In the current historical phase, however, changes in branding approaches are much more profound and discontinuous than in the past. These changes suggest us to use the concept of paradigm to clearly and rigorously distinguish the overcoming of an old model in favor of a new one, that includes theories, methods, and tools suitable to explain and investigate new social, cultural, and technological phenomena involving branding.*

The dynamism of the changes taking place leads to a continuous review of the concept of co-creation in branding. The theories we report under the Brand Co-Creation paradigm want to push researchers to focus on new mechanisms, especially in digital environments. Brand Hijacking, Open-Source Branding and Negotiated Branding are considered in this paper as new branding perspectives emerging from the paradigm shift and which seem destined to strongly influence branding activities in the future.

Key words: *brand control, brand co-creation, negotiated brand, brand open source, brand hijacking, paradigm shift*

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The impact of salesperson's ambidexterity and career stage: a quantitative study

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Objectives. *To meet the growing challenges of today's hypercompetitive marketplace, organizations are trying to focus on highly critical and value adding types of sales and experimenting with new paradigms, to improve the effectiveness of the B2B sales force (Sharma and Sheth, 2010; Cuevas 2018). As changes in the context are challenging existing sales force models, organizations are looking for new ways to optimally manage their resources and achieve multiple goals (Yu et al. 2013; Rapp et al. 2017; Sleep et al. 2020). The research in recent years has highlighted various ways of optimizing resources in salesforce management and suggested various ways of focusing on objectives and incentives at the salesperson level.*

In recent years, the paradigm of Sales Ambidexterity has emerged, as the effort to pursue apparently irreconcilable results and objectives, which even seems to increase sales performance (Yu et al., 2013; Vieira et al., 2019).

The Sales Ambidexterity domain has been researched and developed at individual level aside the salesperson's personal orientations literature, which represent a rich and relevant research domain, as the boundary spanning role of the salesperson makes it relevant to consider their orientations and psychologic disposition towards work and personal goals. In fact, extant research has investigated for decades the various nuances of the individual orientations of the salesperson, linking them to the company vision but also on an individual level to the outcome variables (Saxe and Weitz 1982; Sujan et al. 1994; Kohli et al. 1998; Harris et al. 2005). Another relevant aspect on the sales literature related to the individual salesperson orientations is the one on the personal disposition and attitude across the salesperson's career (Pappas and Flaherty 2006; Khusainova et al. 2018), since it is known to have an impact on the salesperson's performance and job satisfaction.

In particular for boundary spanning roles such as sales, personal orientations and goals are not only relevant in an instant perspective: the combinations of attitudes, orientations, aspirations and priorities in career evolution, was observed and developed by the Career Stage framework (Cron et al., 1988). The various career stages have been used to understand the salespeople evolution and progress in their careers as their attitudes and behaviors change (Flaherty and Pappas 2002), also trying to describe the relation with performance, commitment, and turnover intentions, better than age and job tenure.

This work intends to deepen an aspect of great interest in the BtoB literature of recent years: the salesperson's ambidexterity. Starting from the definition of Sales Ambidexterity as the ability to pursue multiple goals simultaneously, as customer acquisition and retention, or hunting and farming (De Carlo and Lam 2016), we propose to observe this salesperson's orientation and behavior across the salesperson's career.

Assuming that the personal evolution and life cycle has an important effect on the aspirations, priorities and effectiveness of sales professionals, we propose the Career stage (Cron 1988) perspective as a pivotal dimension to assess the changes in the personal disposition of the salesperson and the impact on sales outcomes and job satisfaction.

Methodology. *The designed theoretical model was developed according to the Sales Ambidexterity previous research, including already established measures for the dimensions under investigation, among which the hypothesized relationships were built according to the literature and tested through a quantitative survey.*

In particular, Sales Ambidexterity, was operationalised as a composition of hunting and farming (De Carlo and Lam 2016; Lam et al. 2019; Vieira et al. 2019), taking the Acquisition orientation and Retention orientation from Lam et al. (2019). This concept of ambidexterity was born and tested within the salesperson individual orientation literature and therefore has been flanked by various concepts and constructs pertaining this domain. Therefore, to study the antecedents' side, this work focuses on unexplored dimensions of salesperson's orientation on goal orientation, which is a novelty in this Sales Ambidexterity stream (Jasmand et al. 2012). In particular, the goal orientation measures taken from Silver et al. (2006) considers learning orientation (LO), performance approach orientation (PAP) and purposes the concept of performance avoidance orientation (PAV), as the focus on avoiding performing poorly and on being evaluated negatively. Customer orientation (CO) (Johnson and Friend 2014) was also included to complete the set of orientations and following the literature on ambidexterity (Jasmand et al. 2012; Vieira et al. 2019).

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On the outcome side, the self-reported sales performance measurement (Homburg et al. 2011) was included. However, since the performance itself does not provide details on the composition of the customer portfolio and on the effectiveness towards the acquisition and retention of customers through the attitudes and actions of the salespeople, measures of effectiveness of the acquisition and retention of customers were inserted to provide deeper insights on the side of ambidexterity outcomes, trying to enrich the discussion and the implications. Particularly, Customer acquisition effectiveness (CAE) was adapted from Jolson (1997) and Customer retention effectiveness (CRE) was adapted from Crosby et al. (1990). An important aspect to include according to the career stage literature was job satisfaction (JS), which was included from Guenzi et al. (2019).

Finally, the inclusion of Career Stage (CS) measure was pursued by including some more recent and parsimonious measures of the original Cron (1988) scale, following the Career Stage from Perrone (2003). All the measure scales with sources, anchors and loadings are available in the appendix.

The data was collected with e-mail survey on a sample of Italian BtoB salespeople (N = 199) in May-June 2020, through the contact list of a large Italian sales trade association.

The gender the distribution within the samples is M=96% F=4%, while the average age of 56. The sample includes salespeople and sales professionals of fairly high age and experience. It is particularly important to consider age and experience, as before the development of the Career Stage paradigm were the most used variables to describe the expectations and priorities of individuals. Subsequent analyses will clarify the link between personal variables on orientations, behaviors and the link with outcome measures through the Career Stages.

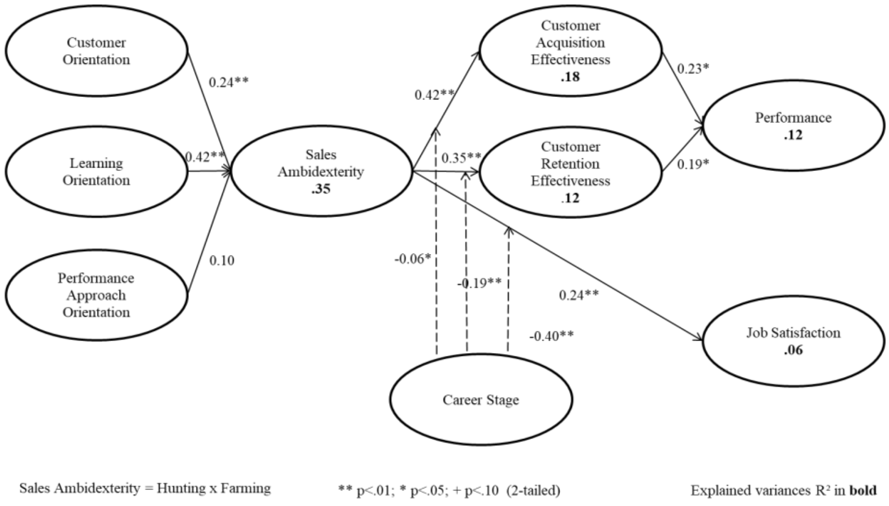
The quantitative analysis allowed assessing the measurement model and the structural model through Partial Least Squares (PLS) SEM, which is particularly indicated for estimating complex models in medium sized samples. The measures respected all the psychometric properties required by the PLS SEM approach (Chin et al. 2012; Hair et al. 2012; Hair et al. 2017) as summarised in Table 1. The Sales Ambidexterity construct was treated with a two-step approach as recommended by previous research (Panagopoulos et al. 2020), while Career Stage was operationalized as a moderator of the relationship between Sales Ambidexterity and the effectiveness variables that mediate the relationship with performance and job satisfaction.

Tab. 1: Measurement model assesment criteria

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. CUSTOMER ORIENTATION	0.83									
2. LEARNING ORIENTATION	0.41	0.78								
3. PERFORMANCE APPROACH ORIENTATION	0.17	0.32	0.92							
4. ACQUISITION ORIENTATION	0.35	0.50	0.22	0.85						
5. RETENTION ORIENTATION	0.30	0.29	0.26	0.16	0.89					
6. CUSTOMER ACQUISITION EFFICACY	0.26	0.22	0.15	0.45	0.03	0.89				
7. CUSTOMER RETENTION EFFICACY	0.37	0.26	0.07	0.29	0.24	0.45	0.83			
8. JOB SATISFACTION	0.31	0.25	0.13	0.27	0.17	0.38	0.40	0.83		
9. PERFORMANCE	0.17	0.32	0.92	0.22	0.26	0.15	0.07	0.13	0.00	
10. CAREER STAGE	0.11	0.17	0.15	0.32	0.12	0.18	0.08	-0.09	0.00	0.70
Cronbach's Alpha	0.77	0.68	0.91	0.80	0.87	0.87	0.79	0.90	0.9	0.92
Composite Reliability	0.87	0.82	0.95	0.88	0.92	0.92	0.87	0.92	0.94	0.92
AVE	0.69	0.60	0.85	0.71	0.80	0.79	0.70	0.70	0.83	0.49

Source: own elaborations

Fig. 1: Theoretical model and results



Source: own elaborations

Tab. 2: Summary of hypotheses and results

Hypotheses	*Support*
H1a there is a positive link between customer orientation and ambidexterity	***Supported***
H1b there is a positive link between goal orientations and ambidexterity	***Partially Supported***
H2a there is a positive link between ambidexterity and performance	***Not supported***
H2b there is a positive link between ambidexterity and job satisfaction	***Supported***
H3a CAE mediates the relation with ambidexterity and performance	***Supported***
H3b CRE mediates the relation with ambidexterity and performance	***Supported***
H4 career stage moderates the relationship between ambidexterity and outcomes	***Supported***

Source: own elaborations

Findings. The results of the SEM and Bootstrapping analysis (N=5000) on the relevance and validity of the relationships among the investigated dimensions (figure 1), are summarized in table 2. *We found support for the hypotheses of a positive influence of customer orientation on Sales Ambidexterity (0.24)(H1a), while the goal orientation hypothesis found only partial support (H1b). Particularly, LO has a positive and significant link with ambidexterity (0.42), while PAP does not show any significant relationship with ambidexterity, also confirmed in the bootstrapping analysis, while PAV was dropped as it did not respect the psychometric properties required for the measurement model. Thus, on the antecedents' side, customer orientation and learning orientation have a positive influence on Sales Ambidexterity, given that both emphasize farming and hunting respectively. Performance approach orientation did not show to be relevant and significant.*

On the outcomes' side, the results of the analysis support the hypothesis of a mediated relationship between ambidexterity and performance (H2a - not supported), which leaves room for subsequent hypotheses on mediation by CAE (0.42) and CRE (0.38). In addition, the relationship between ambidexterity and job satisfaction is positive (0.241) and significant (T=2.85 p=0.004) (H3a, H3b). Ambidexterity does not seem to have a direct relationship with performance, but rather mediated one, by the effectiveness in acquiring and retaining customers. Hunting is the strongest component, probably given by a slight prevalence of customer acquisition activities, which for years have been the main measure of sales evaluation and consequently an element of reinforcement and specialization of salespeople.

Respondents show high job satisfaction linked to ambidexterity, supporting H2b, especially driven by hunting, traditionally considered essential in obtaining performance results and gratifying. Moreover, according to the goal orientation, the objective achievement through challenging and complex tasks can lead to further appreciation, as the transformation of these results into customer satisfaction and loyalty make the results sustainable in the long term.

In short, the sales performance provided by sales ambidexterity furtherly strengthens job satisfaction.

As regards moderation, it was hypothesized (H4) that Career Stage (CS) could play a role in defining the relationship between ambidexterity and performance and job satisfaction outputs. The relationship with the efficacy variables, CAE and CRE, and JSAT were then subjected to moderation by CS and all three moderations were found to be significant (T = 2.53 p = 0.025; T = 2.42 p = 0.016; T = 2.48 p = 0.013), supporting the moderation effect hypothesis.

Indeed, the Career Stage has a moderating impact on the outcomes, in particular in the relationships between Sales Ambidexterity and its outcomes, confirming that the attitudes, priorities, motivations and concerns of individuals in their career have an impact in this particular sets of relations. Therefore, the Career Stage dimension must be taken into consideration when reflecting or planning salesforce training and incentive operations aiming at Sales Ambidexterity.

In sum, the results show the importance of customer orientation and learning orientation in influencing the various aspects of ambidexterity, describe the relationship with performance through the mediation of customer acquisition and retention efficacy, and the Career Stage moderation. Findings confirm that the attitudes, priorities, motivations and concerns of individuals in their career have an impact on salespeople's outcomes.

Research limits. *The limitations of this study might include the choice of a series of antecedent and outcome variables, all linked to the individual domain of the salesperson, filling gaps existing in the ambidexterity literature while remaining in the individual domain. Further studies could investigate the effect the organizational support and sales management actions on the salesperson. In addition, the estimation of such a complex and orthogonal dimension as the Sales Ambidexterity leads to a relatively limited predictive capacity of the general model.*

In general, it should be recognized that performance resides on many variables including the way the salesperson approaches their time allocation, which however could be flanked by further individual and organizational variables in future studies, to improve the predictive capacity of the model in accordance with Hair et al (2011).

Finally, the sample only includes Italian BtoB salespeople and sales agents. Although the sample is quite broad and diversified at the level of industries, ages and roles, it includes a majority of sales agents, who in fact represent a relatively peculiar type of sales role. Hence, future studies may target the sales staff of large organizations for an additional level of generalization.

Practical implications. *Based on the results of the study, salespeople orientations and Career stage should indeed be taken into consideration when reflecting or planning salesforce training and incentive initiatives aiming at Sales Ambidexterity.*

In today's context in which salespeople are required to have increasingly superior skills in consultative selling and strategic management of customer relations, without ever ceasing to play their role as business developer, Sales Ambidexterity could be an enlightening paradigm for the management of salesforce, provided that there is adequate clarity in the assignment of roles and tasks to salespeople, also supported by adequate training and incentives.

Furthermore, given the known importance of training and motivating the salesforce when a change in objectives and activities is introduced, the dimension of the Career Stage must also be taken into account. In companies, not only the difference in terms of age and experience of salesforce must be clarified, but also the psychological and motivational disposition of individuals based on their personal evolution must also be seriously considered. The results of this study confirm that in fact the activities carried out by salespeople in their daily lives and also their ability to produce sales results with new or already acquired customers is also linked to their Career Stage. Therefore, particular attention is paid to the diversification aspect of the proposed training, to allow salespeople obtaining better results for themselves and in general for their organizations, which through a correct implementation of ambidexterity can obtain better and stable results over time.

Originality of the study. *The theme of the salesperson's ambidexterity, a vital issue in defining the seller's behavior and performance, has never been studied together with career development, career concerns and orientation patterns. This paper tries to fill this gap, investigating the salesperson's orientation, ambidexterity and performance, from a Career Stage perspective. This work aims to build on the literature and on previous quantitative research, to test and describe the relationships, interaction and impact of salespeople's orientations and Ambidexterity across Career Stages, on the main sales outcomes (Performance and Job Satisfaction), with added the effect of Customer Acquisition and Retention Effectiveness.*

Indeed, support was found for the Career Stage having an effect on the salesperson effectiveness related to the Sales Ambidexterity type of orientations, as well as in relation with own job (Cron et al. 1988).

Key words: *sales; selling; salesperson; ambidexterity; career stage; sales performance*

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Appendix

Construct Name, Source and Anchor		***ITEMS***	***LOADINGS***
Salesperson Learning Goal Orientation (Silver et al. 2006) 7-point scale, "1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree"	LO1	It is worth spending a lot of time learning new approaches for dealing with customers.	0.77
	LO3	It is important for me to learn from each selling experience I have.	0.79
	LO4	Learning how to be a better salesperson is of fundamental importance to me.	0.77
Performance-Approach Items (Silver et al. 2006) 7-point scale, "1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree"	PAPO1	I am motivated by the thought of outperforming my peers in my firm.	0.90
	PAPO3	I am striving to demonstrate my ability relative to other salespeople in my firm.	0.95
	PAPO4	It is important to me to do well compared to others in my firm.	0.94
Customer orientation Johnson & Friend (2014) based on Plouffe et al. (2009) 7-point scale, "1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree"		Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:	
	CO1	A good employee has to have the customer's best interest in mind.	0.71
	CO3	I offer the product/service that is best suited to the customer's problem.	1.85
	CO4	I try to find out what kind of products/services will be most helpful to a customer.	0.91
Acquisition orientation (Lam de Carlo and Sharma, 2019) 7-point scale, "1=does not describe me at all and 7=describes me very well"	AO2	I am at my best when I engage a new prospect that I have never met before.	0.84
	AO3	I prefer to spend the majority of my day prospecting and closing new accounts.	0.83
	AO4	The most enjoyable part of the job is selling to new accounts.	0.87
Retention orientation (Lam de Carlo and Sharma, 2019) 7-point scale, "1=does not describe me at all and 7=describes me very well"	RO1	Spending time working with current customers is the most enjoyable part of the job.	0.91
	RO3	The most gratifying is working with an established customer.	0.90
	RO4	Of all my responsibilities, I most enjoy using my skills to maintain and grow existing accounts.	0.87
Performance Homburg, Müller & Klarmann (2011) 7-point scale, "1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree"		How do you evaluate your sales performance in comparison with your colleagues, based …	
	PERF1	on the achieved sales in the last 12 months?	0.91
	PERF2	on the achieved orders in the last 12 months?	0.85
	PERF3	on the achieved total contribution margin in the last 12 months?	0.87
Salesperson's evaluations of his or her job satisfaction (Guenzi et al. 2019) 5-point scale, "1=Completely		Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:	
	JSAT1	1. your work is very satisfying.	0.79
	JSAT2	2. you feel that you are really doing something worthwhile in your job.	0.85

Disagree and 5=Completely Agree”	JSAT3	3. your work is challenging.	0.84
	JSAT4	4.your work is very interesting.	0.88
	JSAT5	5.your work gives you a sense of accomplishment.	0.81
		To what extent do you agree on following statements about relating to customers? -*I'm very capable to:*	
Customer acquisition effectiveness- adapted from Jolson (2017) 7-point scale, “1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree”	CAE1	1. Find new prospects.	0.87
	CAE4	4. Probe for the needs of potential new customers.	0.90
	CAE5	5. Make sales presentations to potential new customers.	0.89
Customer retention effectiveness (adapted from Crosby et al. 2017) 7-point scale, “1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree”	CRE2	2. Contact my customers to better serve their needs.	0.86
	CRE3	3. Provide information customers request in a timely manner.	0.78
	CRE4	4. Explain to my customers why it is a good idea to keep the current contract in force.	0.86
		Please indicate the level of concern you currently have for each of the tasks listed below:	
CAREER STAGE ACCI short (Perrone et al. 2003) 5-point scale, “1=no concern and 5=great concern”	CS1	1. Finding the line of work that I am very best suited for.	0.67
	CS2	2. Finding a line of work that interest me.	0.71
	CS3	3. Getting started in my chosen career field.	0.73
	CS5	5. Becoming especially knowledgeable or skillful at work.	0.75
	CS6	6. Planning how to get ahead in my established field of work.	0.73
	CS7	7. Keeping the respect of people in my field.	0.75
	CS8	8. Attending meetings and seminars on new methods.	0.86
	CS9	9. Identifying new problems to work on.	0.87
	CS10	10. Developing easier ways of doing my work.	0.77
	CS12	12. Having a good place to live in retirement.	0.45

Covid-19 and distribution channels management: the new challenges for small wineries

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Objectives. *Covid-19 has changed the business landscape suddenly for almost all the firm in the world. It is possible to argue that some businesses might suffer more than others, and they face major challenges in order to survive and develop in the near future. In many cases, it is necessary to rethink the business model and invest in new relationships to serve different market segments. Based on the Italian occurrence, the study aims to unfold how small wineries will continue to reach their consumers in a changeable situation.*

More than one year is gone since the Covid-19 outbreak beginning, and many events succeeded that had a profound impact on the distribution channels of small wineries. Here, it is possible to remind the two-month lockdown between March and April 2020, the Italian policymaker choice to limit the so-called "movida" (night clubbing, dining at restaurants, among the most relevant). Then, in the second wave of the outbreak, the Italian policymaker, according to the new colour-code of the different regions, chooses to exclude the possibility to dine out since the end of September for the yellow regions, as well as choose for the total closing of restaurant and other public exercises when the colour of the zone become orange and, even worse, when red. In sum, there were discontinuous openings and closing, decided by the policymakers week after week. Also, this uncertain situation led to move several events that have a high impact on wine sales in the future (e.g., weddings, other religious celebrations, parties, family reunions).

*Then, it is relevant to consider the impact of the end of tourism in the offline distribution for small wineries. Italy is since ever a popular destination for foreign tourists moreover for the variety of food and wine delicatessen. Covid-19 had an unprecedented impact on international tourist arrivals. As UN-WTO states (*UNWTO, 2020, Impact Assessment of The Covid-19 Outbreak on International Tourism), it declined by an average of 70% in the January-August period. A pre-existing base oriented toward domestic tourism will have provided wineries with robustness against international visitors' missed revenue (Wine Tourism, 2020).*

Considering some data, it is possible to underline that global wine trade falls of -10% in March, -22% in April, and -27% in May reduced international export by 1.8 billion of euro in 4 months, which is equivalent to a -17% in value compared to 2019. This decrease broke the positive general trend of the last decay (Sanchez Recante, 2020). On the off-trade, after some stockpiling signs detected during the first weeks of March (up to 20% in volume), the sales were down (up to 16.1% in value) from the second half of March. When looking at the value, a shift to entry-level wines has also been observed in this channel. For example, bag-in-box sales increased by even 40% compared to the same period last year, stabilising their increase during the rest of the lockdown phase to +20% (Sanchez Recante, 2020). Another survey, conducted by "Wine Monitor Nomisma", shows that small wineries (under 1 million euro of turnover) have suffered more compared to other players during the economic crisis in the wine sector. These firms are showing worse performances in terms of sales contraction in several channels. The pandemic crisis contributes to shedding light on the structural problems that characterised the Italian wine sector. This scenario, led by uncertainty, has damaged more small wineries that have to face the closure of Ho.Re.Ca channels (Ho.Re.Ca registered -41% of wine sales volume in 2020) in addition to their lack in terms of commercial, financial and human resources. The post-Covid economic recovery has been suggested to be developed starting from multichannel sales, diversification of the export's actors and countries, an improvement of brand awareness by using social media customer engagement strategies (Hollebeek et al., 2011) and the development of better relationships with distributors (Survey Wine Monitor Nomisma, 2020; Federvini, 2020).

The relationship with ho.re.ca. firms are usually carried on by intermediaries. According to the terminology proposed by Baritaux et al. (2006) and Hall & Mitchell (2008), the actors might be addressed to two main categories: market makers and matchmakers. They differ for the way goods' ownership flows in the intermediation process and how the actor is compensated. Furthermore, market makers and matchmakers may act at different points of the marketing and sales channel and perform various roles, according to the country or the type of wine distributed.

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Moreover, the operative dimensions of market makers and matchmakers can be very different, and there are some large companies and a large number of small or niche actors (Lapsey & Moulton, 2001; Gaeta & Pomarici, 2001; Hall, Mitchell, 2008). The actors belonging to the market makers category are wholesaler, distributors and importers or exporters. The market makers participate in the ownership flow, and their reward comes from the bid-ask spread; indeed, matchmakers do not participate in the ownership flow, and their reward comes from a revenue-sharing commission due to the matching of buyers and sellers in order to help them to transact. The actors belonging to the matchmaker's category are agents and brokers. They are essential for small wineries, especially for international trades.

In fact, the European wine sector is predominantly shaped up by small and medium enterprises (European Parliament, 2012). The performances and internationalisation of a firm are closely connected to generate and exploit resources. This activity is considered substantially different between SMEs and MNEs (Laufs & Schwens, 2014). From a resource-based view, a small business may find themselves to face more resource constraints than big firms do. This aspect may be correlated with a lack of personal and financial resources. Therefore, small wineries need to establish a good marketing channel with wine distributors representing strategic agents to access the market. When trust and adaptation capabilities increase, so does buyer-seller potential cooperation (de Carvalho & Sequeira, 2013). Moreover, cooperative strategies represent an effective way for the smallest firms to expand their knowledge of the export markets and reinforce their resource (Mora & Akhter, 2012). However, maintaining a good working relationship between the suppliers and the distributors is critical for success in almost any industry, as it is for the wine industry (Escobar & Gil, 2016).

Besides, the wine sector depends highly on big retailers known to push their prices down because of their strong market power (PTV, 2012). Large retailers gain every time more market power, purchasing a significant volume of goods at very low prices. For this reason, they prefer to deal with strong brands that have the common ability to pull, rather than push, the product through the marketing chain (Lapsley and Moulton, 2001). Therefore, it is known that the big brands operate directly with the large retail sector while they tend to exclude too small suppliers (Pomarici et al., 2012).

To avoid these difficulties, small wineries can commercialise their products considering the option of selling directly to the consumers through offline and online channels. Offline direct selling success is guaranteed by allocating a place dedicated to the welcoming, presentation, wine tasting and sale of the products. Nowadays, Wine cellars are points of reference for all wine lovers, organised to secure the sale of their traditional products. Today, wine cellars include a more selective range of products to satisfy customers and bring them towards new forms of consumption, such as wine by the glass (Soressi, 2011). Women and young people prefer this channel, relying on wine cellar experts' advice on safe purchasing, food combination, a good quality/price balance and building a wine relationship, not only in terms of curiosity but also knowledge (Flamini, 2011). Online direct selling provides a solution for small winemakers to reach new market segments, establish valuable relationships with customers, and increase word-of-mouth (Louvieris et al., 2003).

However, it is possible to argue that the new scenario brought by the pandemic has only improved the current changing in the distribution system. In order to appreciate the ongoing changing of the wine distribution structure, it is good to resume the strategic and structural factors that characterised the modern wine distribution system.

The Ho.re.ca. distribution channel, with its dynamism, represents the primary voice of wine on-trade consumption and a significant outlet for the wine industry. Ho.re.ca. stands for Hotel, Restaurants and Catering, and is the expression to recognise all the firm working directly with consumers. This channel is which is at the core of the small wineries' distribution strategies.

On the contrary, the off-trade consumption passes through supermarkets, discount stores, traditional retail, and specialised stores (bottle stores, vintners and wine cellars). The Ho.re.ca. is still one of the significant communication vehicles for the market, especially for small wineries. The attention for this channel is guaranteed by the possibility to maximise wine image and perception through the direct relationship between wine and food. Being present in high rated restaurants is a milestone for all the wineries who aspire to be perceived as high quality. It is essential not to forget that wine's primary function is to accompany food (Hall and Mitchell, 2008). However, despite all of this, wine sales to restaurants do not generate optimal profits for small wineries (Velikova et al., 2019).

Thus, the study aims to understand how small wineries faced the breakdown of their traditional distribution channel, and accordingly, trying to grasp which kind of strategies have been developed to continue selling wine and reach customers. For the reasons mentioned above, the study aims to answer the following research question:

RQ: "how small wineries reacted to the breakthrough of their traditional distribution channels brought by the pandemic?"

Methodology. *The present is an ongoing study that adopts a qualitative approach that has been chosen to explore the new phenomenon in the real context (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2014). So far, more than 20 wineries have been selected for data collection. According to the results of the first round of interviews, the study will be developed according to a case study or multiple in-depth interview methodology. In either way, data collection foresees the engagement with key informants such as entrepreneur, sales agents, and player of the Ho.Re.Ca. context in order to obtain robust insights about events (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2014; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007)*

Marche region, with more than 200 wineries and more than 800 hundred hectoliters produced every year (ISTAT, 2020), might be an interesting context to study how these actors are still coping with the pandemic and develop a new perspective for the theory and practice of wine marketing. Indeed, in the Marche region is possible to find several *varieties of wine that are under protected designation: there are 5 varieties of wines labelled as DOCG (Denominazione di Origine Controllata e Garantita), 15 varieties of wines labelled as DOC (Denominazione di Origine Controllata) and 1 variety labelled as IGP (Indicazione Geografica Protetta) (which include white, red and rosè wines harvested in Marche Region) (OIV, 2019, www.marcheturismo.it; Gismondi, 2020; Valoritalia, 2019).*

To make some example, as a white wine, it is possible to mention the "Verdicchio dei Castelli di Jesi DOC", which has a DOC denomination, while the "Verdicchio di Matelica riserva DOCG" has a DOCG denomination. For red wines, it is possible to mention the "Vernaccia di Serrapetrona DOCG" it was the first wine to obtain the recognition of DOCG, for theDOC, the "Rosso Piceno DOC". Finally, the IGT area includes the provinces of Ancona, Fermo and Macerata, and it was instituted in 1995 (www.quattrocalici.it/regione/marche/).

Also, a qualitative approach has been selected to explore a recent phenomenon and because it has been deemed particularly suitable to develop a new understanding of how complex events unfolded over time (Pettigrew, 1992; Langley, 1999).

Findings. *Small wineries have faced several difficulties due to the unprecedented economic crisis caused by Covid-19. According to trends ongoing in the wine sector, this situation implied a changing in the relationship between small wineries and their distribution system. Difficulties do not derive only from the recent economic crisis: nowadays, small wineries play in an increasingly competitive international environment characterised by mature and declining per capita consumption in the traditional market and increasing competition from new emerging wine producers (Köhr et al., 2018). Albeit large distributors continued making business also under the pandemic, Ho.Re.Ca. has been chosen from small wineries because they struggle to emerge within large retails. As a matter of fact, large retailers ask for high quantities and have disproportionate bargaining power with small wineries.*

In this context, winemakers are challenged to understand the distribution through new and multiple available channels and consider the advantages and risks of implementing a multichannel strategy (Gurau and Duquesnois, 2008). Therefore, small wineries begin to develop strategies in order to reach consumers and buyers through different distribution channels (Calderón et al., 2019). If multiple channels are not integrated, the strategy could have negative consequences (Sharma and Mehrotra, 2007; Neslin and Shankar, 2009): conflicts between channels may appear if they compete for the same customers, sales from a new channel may be insufficient to cover their costs, or new channels may cannibalise the sales of existing ones. In order to achieve the success of a multichannel strategy, it is imperative that online channels might be not managed separately but are coordinated and integrated, at all levels, with pre-existing channels (Herhausen et al., 2015; Verhoef et al., 2015).

Therefore, small wineries found themselves at a crossroads between investing for going online and, alternatively, develop new distribution channels and relationships within the supply chain by managing a multichannel approach. However, the study suggests that going online is still a significant challenge for small wineries.

Then, it is possible to suggest how the recovery of wine tourism from the covid-19 pandemic is a good opportunity for wineries to focus more on sustainable ways of production and recover traditional farming practices. An emphasis on local communities and shifting to domestic markets could also be in the recovery plan.

Research limits. *This study's limitations stem from his explorative nature and the small number of companies that will be analysed, despite the suitability of this number within the scope (Yin, 2014). However, the representative of the firms that have been selected for the purpose of this study might be another limitation because our analysis is focused on the Marche Region, arising possible thoughts on the geographic limitation of the sample.*

Furthermore, this is an ongoing study, and after that, unfortunately, the pandemic has not ended yet, so it is difficult to predict further situations that obviously will need further investigations.

However, future research lines might consider a more significant sample of small wineries to conduct more in-depth analysis using qualitative and quantitative methods.

Practical implications. *Despite the explorative nature of this study, the results can have several practical implications. Analysing the relationship between small wineries and their distribution system can shed new lights on how the actors might manage interdependencies between channels. This study allows the small wineries to understand the importance of a strategic approach for managing the distribution channels. Especially for SMEs, the development of the relationship with key actors of distribution channels is a strategic activity to ensure the firms' long-term survival.*

This study highlights the importance of using more than one channel in an integrative way, which become even more relevant after an unprecedented economic crisis brought by the outbreak that makes actors aware about the risk of being involved in only one distribution channel (which means being dependent from that), that can also cause additional problems like the logistic issue.

Furthermore, the study provides a description of the ongoing changing nature of small wineries distribution channels towards a multichannel system. The analysis suggests that winemakers should understand the distribution strategy through multiple available channels and consider the advantages and risks of implementing a multichannel strategy (Gurau and Duquesnois, 2008).

Particularly attention should be given to developing a strategy, as many small firms are still without, and when developing a strategy that avoids negative consequences brought by being dependent only on a few channels or few players. The typical shortcomings when developing a new strategy are usually correlated with a lack of necessary knowledge, resource and capacity to create, develop and manage a successful distribution relationship.

Moreover, the study contributes to revealing the factors that affect the process of technological and managerial transformations of the distribution system, especially issues related to the integration to online channels and the digitisation of several activities that push the more traditional offline channels.

The present study's final contributions aim to make confident small wineries from any unknown potential future risks that might affect their distribution channel, improving multichannel distribution systems that can work only in an integrative way.
For the purposes of future research, it would be interesting to verify the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on the use of e-commerce as a channel to reach consumers directly; moreover, if we will assist in processes of aggregation of small wineries, in particular in the form of consortia in order to face the business power of large distributors.

Originality of the study. *The originality of the study relies on the new challenging scenario brought by the pandemic in 2020 that small wineries had to face.*

In fact, Covid-19 had caused an unprecedented economic crisis, when policymakers were forced to shut down several businesses and suddenly the demand that came from on-trade consumption drop-off. The outbreak and subsequent business actors and policymakers reactions were unexpected situations for everyone, but it significantly impacted small wineries. They had to face the impossibility to sell through their primary distribution channel.

Albeit this still represents an incredible challenge for small business in general, it is challenging especially for small wineries that play in a very competitive market and that relied upon their survival in that channel. They had to face a surreal situation and continue to cope with SMEs' typical lack of resources.

However, the outcomes of this scenario might also be seen under a positive light. In fact, many firms reacted to the massive adoption of new digital tools in order to continue to reach customers and buyers. Thus, it has been observed acceleration of the ongoing trends of the distribution system.

No doubt, the economic crisis has adversely affected most of the SMEs, in some cases reducing their development rate. However, small wineries that identified the changes in the market and reacted promptly maybe could have reached long term benefits from this period by improving their distribution system and their skills for developing new distribution strategies.

The study's originality not only relies on the period examined, but the outcomes of the analysis also propose a new perspective on how these firms might manage distribution and their capability to reach their customers throughout different distribution channels. Thus, the study proposes a novel perspective on how small wineries might cope with the outbreak until the end of this global nightmare.

Key words: *small wineries; distribution; covid-19; SME; tourism; distribution strategies*

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The visitors experience in historical urban centers: city tourism and the influence of the environment on the shopping experience

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Objectives. *It is not odd to say the Covid-19 pandemic is one of the crucial events of last years, and that it has implications that will last at least a decade. The pandemic has impacted businesses across the world, especially for retail stores, restaurants, and the tourism sector. Since life hasn't stopped nor the needs of the people, most of the population is preferring to shop online (Kim, 2020), and avoid traveling. UNWTO (2020b) predicted international arrivals to decline between 58% and 78%, or a loss of flows between 852 and 1,142 million tourists in 2020 alone. For international tourism, therefore, an unprecedented crisis is looming that would bring the sector back to 1950 values, wiping out the decade of sustained growth recorded after the global economic crisis of 2009. That crisis had caused a modest loss of international arrivals of 4%, while SARS had caused a decline of just 0.4% in 2003 (UNWTO, 2020a).*

Shopping is an important component of travel as it assorts perceptions of products, services, and places, and the shopping experience is the sum of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction that tourists gain from the individual characteristics of the products and services they purchase (Piazam & Ellis, 1999). The service and products provided by retailers are an important part of the destination experience (Murphy et al., 2000). In this regard, shopping refers to a contemporary recreational activity involving looking, touching, searching, and buying, which helps to escape from the daily routine (Timothy, 2005). Thus, the shopping activity represents one of the most significant spending categories for tourists and the destinations are one of the main attractions of a region and an integral part of the tourist experience (Meng and Xu 2012; Jin, et al. 2017). In particular, both in-store and out-store elements appear to be relevant in the overall tourist experience (Bitner, 1990; Berman and Evans 1995; Lin, 2004; Yüksel, 2007; Levy & Weitz, 2009).

In this context, a trip to a tourist destination, especially an international destination, is a complex experience. Tourists may be satisfied with some aspects and dissatisfied with other aspects of their trip. Tourist satisfaction at the destination level is therefore conceptually different from satisfaction at the transactional level because the overall experience of the tourist is the sum of the many individual experiences experienced during the stay at the destination. These experiences can include interactions with a wide range of both natural and cultural attributes of the destination and are influenced by residents' attitudes toward tourists and their perceptions of service quality and price (Yu and Goulden, 2006; Wang and Davidson, 2010). The factors that influence perception and tourist shopping satisfaction are numerous. Some of these factors are related to the characteristics of the place visited (including the shopping area, quality, variety of products offered, services, and overall interactions and other attributes of the place that are not directly related to shopping) and others relate to the background of the tourist (country of origin, ethnicity, religion, etc.).

This study aims to investigate the role of out-store and in-store elements of the shopping environment of historical centers in determining the tourist shopping experience, and the influence of experience on the overall tourist shopping satisfaction. A literature review was carried out to identify the elements that set the retail environment, as well as for measurement models for customer experience and satisfaction. Pleasure and attractiveness were identified as important success factors for the environment of shopping destinations (Donovan et al., 1994; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Kemperman et al. 2009). Furthermore, eight measurement models for the shopping experience (e.g., Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Gentile et al., 2007; Verhoef et al., 2009; Seung-Hyun et al., 2011; Bustamante and Rubio, 2017) and four for the customer satisfaction (e.g., Oliver, 1980; Fornell et al., 1996; Terblanche and Boshoff, 2006) were identified. Several theoretical approaches have been used to measure customer satisfaction (expectancy disconfirmation theory, the importance-performance analysis, the equity theory, the attribution theory, the value percept theory, dissonance theory, etc.). A common feature of all these measurement approaches is their consideration of satisfaction as a relative concept measured concerning a standard such as values, inputs, experiences, etc. These standards are often tourist-induced inputs, thus recognizing the active involvement of individuals in co-creating their destination experience (Foster, 1999).

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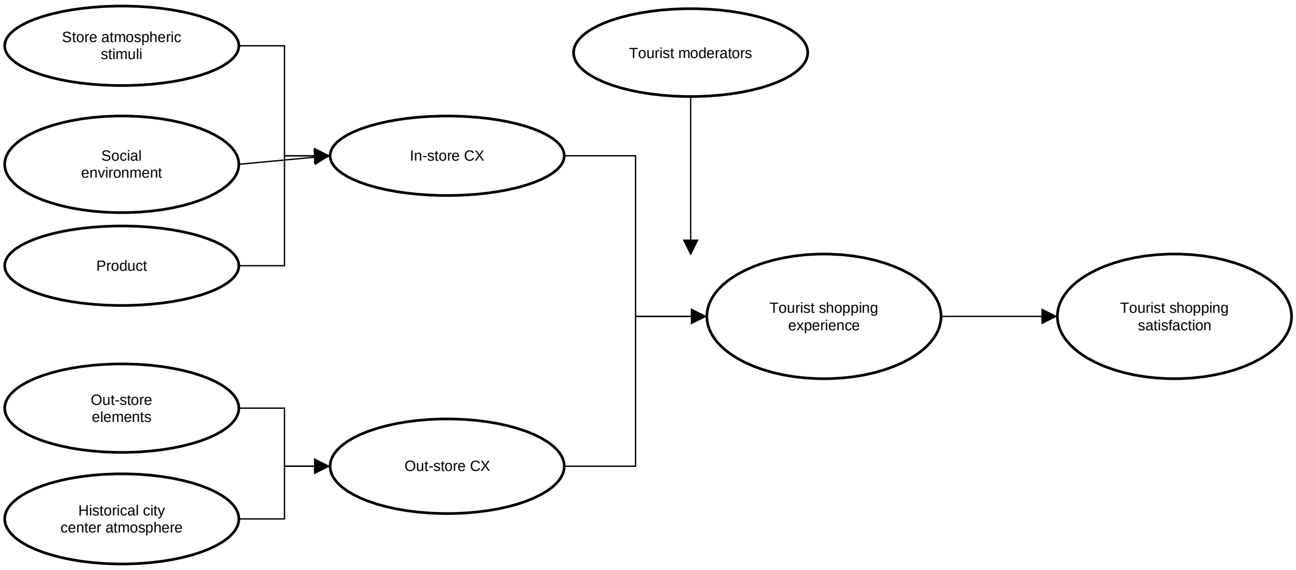
Methodology. *Based on the previous considerations, a conceptual model (Figure 1) was defined and an empirical study was conducted.*

Fig. 1: Conceptual Model



Source: Author's elaboration

The analysis has been carried out in Rome, Italy. The center of Rome and its shopping streets are an example of a space of particular historical and architectural interest, where shops and monuments coexist and are therefore enjoyed simultaneously by tourists. From a practical perspective, this study is useful to have a better understanding of the elements that improve the sales performance of retailers, and for the redevelopment of historical centers.

A total of 392 responses were collected both from domestic (32,9%) and international (67,1%) tourists. The questionnaire was administered in the English language for international tourists and in Italian for the domestic ones. The Italian respondents were represented mainly by women (60%). Conversely, of the 263 international respondents the percentage was more balanced between women and men (53% and 47% respectively), and they were mainly from European countries (Germany, France, Switzerland, Austria, United Kingdom, Spain). Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Tab. 1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Sex	
Male	*44,4%*
Female	*55,6%*
Age	
<20 years old	*1,8%*
21-30 years old	*41,6%*
31-40 years old	*34,9%*
41-50 years old	*16,4%*
51-60 years old	*3,3%*
>60 years old	*1,8%*
Level of education	
Middle school diploma	*0,5%*
High school diploma	*30,9%*
Bachelor degree or higher	*68,6%*
Profession	
Student	*9,8%*
Employee	*33,7%*
Retired	*16,1%*
Entrepreneurs	*17,6%*
Managers	*13,1%*
Family income	
0 € - 9.999 €	*10,2%*
10.000 € - 29.999 €	*42,1%*
30.000 € - 49.999 €	*32,4%*
50.000 € - 69.999 €	*11,5%*
70.000 € - 89.999 €	*1,5%*
More than 89.999 €	*2,3%*

Source: Author's elaboration

Findings. *The dimensions qualifying the atmosphere make it possible to formulate some considerations regarding the role of shopping in the historic center. The shopping experience is multidimensional and is also fed by the environment in which it takes place. The cultural dimension of the shopping experience emerges from the description of the atmosphere (multicultural, elegant, charming, touristy, ancient, historic, food, events, etc.). Not only accessibility, cleanliness, and safety, but the entire offer that characterizes the historic center creates a positive impact on the experience, from the variety and type of stores to the presence of non-retail mix activities, to the Made in Italy characterization of the stores themselves.*

According to these results, the preferred cities are Rome (44.9% of the interviewees), followed by Florence (21.43%) and Venice (13.78%), followed by Milan (7.5%) and Naples (5.1%). In this case, there are no differences between Italian tourists and international tourists. Some travel habits differ considerably between Italian and foreign tourists. Most Italian tourists said they stayed for 2/3 days (67.44%) while, on the other hand, most of the international tourists said they stayed for more than 5 days. This difference is most likely justified by the geographical distance that international tourists have to face compared to domestic tourists. This difference can also be seen in the type of accommodation chosen to spend the holidays. Most Italian tourists declare that they have chosen a B&B (42.64%), while international tourists mainly choose five-star hotels (28.89%). Furthermore, for the high geographical distance, international tourists tend to visit as many places as possible during the same trip, saving time and money.

The differences between domestic and international tourists are less marked when it comes to the factors that most influenced the choice of destination for the trip. At this point, international and Italian tourists get along well, having overall declared the local culture, art, and history as the most influential aspect. It is of great interest for our study to see that only 8 people (2.74%) have chosen shopping as the main aspect for their choice of destination. However, this data does not disprove the weight of shopping during the trip and this is confirmed by the results of our study.

Atmosphere

Section 2 of the questionnaire investigated the atmosphere of the historic center and the shopping streets to detect the main opinions and attitudes of the tourists. Both Italian and international tourists declare that they have not found it difficult to reach the shops in the city center. The results support the fact that for tourists the stores located on the shopping streets are quite accessible and the location of these outlets is appreciated. Furthermore, it emerges that the passage of cars is not a relevant aspect for the tourist's shopping and the stay experience. Furthermore, most of the tourists did not plan their shopping activities before departure. The statements that found a greater agreement among tourists, and which therefore represents the main elements that make a tourist's trip more pleasant, are the historical sites of the city, considered necessary to visit them to consider complete the tourist experience, the streets of the center, the buildings that line the shopping streets, the residents, the local language, the local gastronomy and the recreational facilities in the streets (restaurants, bars, bookstores, galleries, etc.).

Consequently, according to the data collected on the atmosphere of the historic center, our assumption that the atmosphere of the historic center and the shopping streets affect the experience of the visitor through its structural elements, local culture, hospitality, livability, and shopping can be considered verified. Regarding the importance of the shopping activities during the stay, the results confirm that shopping is one of the main activities during the holiday. As for the expenditure for the shopping activity, once again we notice a divergence between Italian and international tourists. 91.87% of Italians declared that they did not spend more than € 300 on purchases, while 72.4% of international tourists spent more than € 300. The favorite products of tourists remain souvenirs. While 84.6% of Italians declare that they have bought a souvenir during the trip, the same also admit international tourists (93.6%). Follows clothing, with 59.3% of Italians and 76.8% of foreigners. The third category of favorite products of tourists is local food and wine (34.1% of Italians and 70.4% of international tourists). The 53% of tourists said they had not previously planned the shopping activities, while the rest of the respondents confirmed that they had done so. For those who have planned the shopping activity to do, the most sought-after information concerns the main shopping streets. This information once again highlights the importance of the shopping streets and supports our hypothesis.

Out-store and in-store elements

Looking at the relevant aspects for the shopping experience, the study shows that among the key out-store components indicated by tourists as being able to impact their decision to join a store are: shop windows (87.4 %), external entrances and signs (51.47%), shopping streets (65.14%), and accessibility/location of the store (20.1%). All the tourists who claimed to have planned the shopping activity before the departure also claimed to have bought products that they had not planned. According to them, the elements that have had the greatest influence on this process are the shop windows, the shopping streets, and the accessibility/location of the store. The most important aspects relevant for tourists were the variety of shops available (average of 4.51), the shop windows (average of 4.43), and the accessibility and location of the store (average of 4.40). These high averages highlight the importance that the out - store elements have for the overall tourism shopping experience and confirm our second hypothesis, according to which the elements of the out-store environment (windows, entrances and signs, the position of the store) influence the perception of the tourists' sales environment.

Instead, the in-store elements which have the greatest impact on the time spent inside the store are music (28.26%), odors and perfumes (52.01%), temperature (56.83%), store layout (44.23%), sales staff (37.8%), and product characteristics (39.14%). Instead, which can influence the purchase of unplanned products mainly are: sales staff (56.7%), product price (64.8%), product characteristics (72%), product positioning on the shelves (49.5%). As well as *for the out-store elements, the most important in-store factors for tourists are been identified: product characteristics (average of 4.68), temperature (average of 4.27), store layout (average of 4.26), and sales staff (average of 4.26).*

These results support our third hypothesis, according to which the tourist shopping experience inside the store is influenced by a series of atmospheric store stimuli (music, lighting, smells and fragrances, temperature, colors, price signs, positioning of products on the shelves), social environment (interaction with sales staff, number of people in the store), and product characteristics (variety of assortment, quality of products, price, and promotions).

Overall shopping experience

Looking at the overall shopping and staying experience, both the in-store atmosphere elements and the atmosphere of the historic center and the out-store environment elements were noted as an overall positive assessment. Overall, satisfaction with the shopping experience and stay in Italian cities of art is positive. All these results help to confirm that the tourist's overall shopping experience is influenced by both the in-store and out-store experience. Furthermore, the overall experience of the tourist impacts on Tourist Shopping Satisfaction. We can see this in the direct relationship between the responses to the components that shape the shopping experience and the responses to the enjoyment of shopping and tourism.

For the travels during the restrictions caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, a final mention is warranted. It was noted that during this period only 6.7% of tourists traveled and the shopping experience during these trips does not seem to be very positive. Overall, tourists do not seem to be happy with the atmosphere of the historic centers in the countries they have visited. This could be related to the fact that leisure facilities and shops in all countries of the world are closed or work under severe restrictions imposed by governments.

Research limits. *This study is still ongoing. However, some limitations can be identified. The study referred to the last time that respondents had done indoor shopping in Italy and therefore tended to a previous period of 3 to 6 months prior to the survey. This may generate cognitive bias in the distortion of the memory of the experience. Moreover, this effect could be even more amplified by the fact that at the time respondents answered, the restrictions dictated by the lockdown did not allow them to carry out the same type of activity (traveling and shopping freely).*

Besides, the research was performed in the historic center of one Italian city, which could make our results not directly generalizable. The perceptions of tourists in other cities can vary. Further studies are therefore required to enhance our understanding of the factors that have an impact on the overall tourist experience in historic centers.

Practical implications. *We believe that the Italian experience in the field of art cities and natural shopping centers can converge towards the creation of an elective space for the general observation of tourism phenomena, which is very special. Its assonance with the dominant keys of interpretation of tourism - such as postmodernism and the economy of experience - finally, accentuates its relevance, offering numerous and still unexplored points of interest.*

Originality of the study. *The research aims to analyze the shopping experience of tourists during their stay in an Italian art city. The scope was to identify how the elements, both internal and external to the point of sale, and in particular the atmosphere of the historic center can influence the overall perception of the sales environment, purchasing behavior, and the degree of satisfaction following the shopping experience. To the best of our knowledge, there is a paucity of studies about the shopping activity in a particular environment like historical centers and, specifically, about the effects of experience in determining the satisfaction for shopping activities performed in this environment.*

Key words: *Covid-19; Tourism shopping, tourist behaviour, shopping experience, satisfaction*

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How store atmosphere affects the purchasing intention of design products: the case of furniture

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Objectives. *Design plays a critical role for companies' competitiveness and innovation (Noble and Kumar, 2010; Landoni et al., 2016; Hernández et al., 2018). Over the years, several studies (Hanzaee and Andervazh, 2012; Arboleda and Alonso, 2014; Hashim et al., 2014) demonstrated its positive impact on consumers' behaviours, especially in terms of purchasing intention. Homburg and colleagues (2015) empirically demonstrated that among the three constitutive dimensions of design previously proposed by Arboleda and Alonso (2014) (i.e., functional, aesthetic, and symbolic), the symbolic attributes constitute the strongest driver of consumers' purchasing intention. Despite this evidence, to the authors' knowledge, there is a lack of contribution concerning the specific context of the furniture sector, even though it is worthy of investigation as it is a design-intensive industry, whose products' success and innovation are strongly influenced by the creativity of worldwide recognized designers (Dell'Era and Verganti, 2010; Magistretti et al., 2019). In this regard, consistent with Homburg and colleagues' findings (2015), it is reasonable to suppose that the symbolic dimension of furniture products would have the greater influence on purchasing intention, as furniture products enable consumers to express their self-identities. Consumers, in fact, often base their purchasing decisions on the extent to which a furniture product communicates a sense of self-identity, based on its psychological meanings and emotional appeals (Bumgardner and Bowe, 2007; Lindberg et al. 2013). Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study arose as follows:*

H1: The symbolic dimension of a design furniture product positively influences the purchasing intention of consumers more than the aesthetic and the functional dimensions do.

Starting from this assumption, the overall aim of this study was to deepen the relationship between design attributes and purchasing intention of furniture products, by investigating what companies can concretely do in order to trigger consumers' buying intentions and, consequently, to affect their actual behaviors. In the early 70's, Szybillo and Jacoby (1974) anticipated that the product design, intended as the set of design attributes of a product, significantly influences the perception of its quality which, in turn, affects consumers' willingness to purchase the product itself. More generally, other scholars (Hanzaee and Andervazh, 2012; Younus et al., 2015; Ruswanti et al., 2016) highlighted the importance of the role played by product design (e.g., colour, dimension, material, and shapes) in affecting consumers' purchasing intention. For example, Ruswanti and colleagues (2016, p. 251), by assuming that "product design is the product attributes most explicit, because it shows how the product is shaped", claimed that such features can be easily perceived by consumers, thus they are taken into account by them when evaluating products (Rindova and Petkova, 2007).

Notwithstanding the richness of contributions investigating the antecedents of purchasing intention with respect to design attributes of a product, to the authors' knowledge, there is a lack of research concerning the potential role of store-related factors, such as store atmosphere. Nevertheless, starting from '70s, the concept of store atmosphere has received increasing attention, both in academic and managerial fields. Based on the pioneer study of Kotler (1973), several scholars investigated the concept and provided different categorizations of its specific attributes. Store atmosphere has been generally referred to as all the physical and non-physical elements of the store that could affect the shoppers' behaviour in a retail environment (Eroglu and Machleit, 1989; Hoffman and Turley, 2002). A consistent stream of literature explored the impact of atmospherics on emotional states (Turley and Milliman, 2000), shopping value (Babin and Attaway, 2000), and consumers' purchases (Turley and Milliman, 2000). While some scholars adopted a micro-level perspective by focusing on specific variables including color, music, or lighting, others relied on a holistic approach and focused on the overall effect of atmospherics on shopping behavior (Mattila and Wirtz, 2001; Michon et al., 2005; Bonnin and Goudey, 2012). Based on this latter perspective, this study expects both a positive influence of store atmosphere on purchasing intention and a moderating role of such variable on the relationship between product design and purchasing intention.

Over the time, in fact, the shopping experience has gained increasing importance and retailers have been encouraged to offer entertaining shopping experiences with the aim to enhance the consumers' expenditure and store patronage (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Hart et al., 2007; Esbjerg et al., 2012; Yim et al., 2014). This led to suppose

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that, when customers strongly appreciate a specific retail environment, which increases their enjoyment and shopping experience, they are more keen to purchase furniture products. Therefore, the second hypothesis emerged as follows:

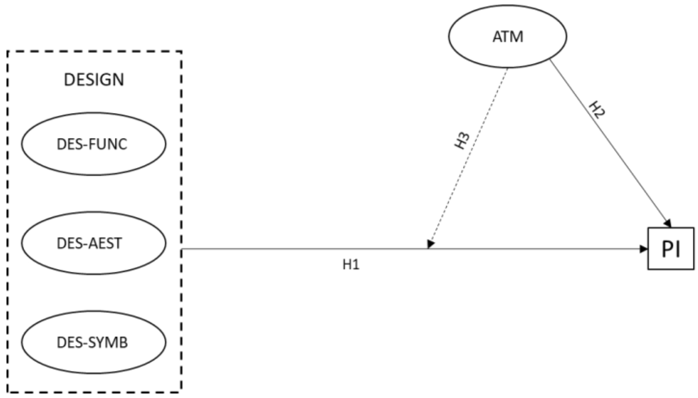
H2: Store atmosphere positively influences the purchasing intention of design furniture products.

Meanwhile, a further expectation concerns the possibility that store atmosphere acts as a moderator on the relationship between design attributes and purchasing intention. On one hand, the impact of design attributes on purchasing intention could increase with an improvement in the store atmospherics, since consumers that are attracted and amused by a pleasant environment could improve the appreciation of design products and, in turn, their purchasing intention. On the other hand, given the importance of the store atmospherics in developing a satisfying shopping experience (Machleit and Eroglu, 2000), it is also likely to suppose that when consumers strongly appreciate a specific retail environment, they are willing to enhance their expenditure and store patronage, regardless of their appreciation of product design. Hence, the impact of product design on buying behaviour could increase/decrease with an improvement in store atmospherics, as proposed in the third hypothesis of this study:

H3: Store atmosphere moderates the positive relationship between design attributes and purchasing intention.

Methodology. *Purchasing intention (PI) is the dependent variable, while functional (DES-FUNC), aesthetic (DES-AEST) and symbolic (DES-SYMB) dimensions of design are the independent variables. Store atmosphere (ATM) is the moderator. Figure 1 shows the overall model under investigation with the related hypotheses.*

Fig. 1: Research model



Source: personal elaboration.

Data for this study were collected through a self-administered questionnaire carried out on a random sample of Italian people. The questionnaire was distributed by using both the online and the offline procedure, starting from June 2019 until March 2020. Notably, the questionnaire consisted of three sections aimed at exploring: (i) the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, (ii) the impact of design attributes on their purchasing intention when choosing a furniture product, (iii) the role of store atmospherics on their purchasing behaviors. A total number of 357 filled-in questionnaires was collected; however, after the answers were carefully examined, the sample has been reduced to 350 units. These are mainly aged between 18 and 35 years (>80%); come from Northern and Central Italy (~50%) or Southern regions (~50%); have a high level of education and most of them are still students (~51%) living with their parents, brothers, and sisters (>40%).

After having analysed the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, an exploratory factor analysis, based on the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) method, was developed in order to investigate the main elements of store atmosphere influencing consumers' behaviors. Later, a SEM analysis was developed with the aim to investigate the relationship between the defining attributes of design (i.e., DES-FUNC, DES-AEST, DES-SYMB) and PI, by focusing on the role of ATM as a moderator on such a relationship. Based on previous recommendations (Hulland, 1999), the procedure was articulated in two steps. Firstly, the measurement model including the constructs (i.e., latent variables), the survey items (i.e., observed variables), along with their relationships, was specified and tested. Secondly, the structural model was assessed (Hair et al., 2010).

The analysis was performed using the statistical software SPSS (version 23) and WarpPls (version 7.0).

Findings. *The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity suggested a good fit of the factor analysis for the ATM construct (i.e., KMO>0.50; p-value at 0.000 of the Bartlett's Test) (Hair et al., 2010). Based on Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than one (Kaiser, 1960), ATM's items were grouped into three factors, accounting for the 47,12% of the total variance, described as follows:*

1) *Structural variables - labeled as ATM_1 - account for 20,73% of the total variance and refer to the structural features of the store, such as surrounding area and shops, architectural style, location, entrances, aisles, exterior display windows, lawns and garden, scents, color schemes, flooring and carpeting, music.*
2) *Internal variables - labeled as ATM_2 - account for 17,09% of the total variance and refer to those features that are directly observable within the store, such as cleanliness, privacy, employees' characteristics, price display, lighting, space, furniture, temperature, exterior sign.*

3) Organisational variables - labeled as ATM_3 - account for 9,30% of the total variance and refer to the organizational attributes of the store concerning the crowding, placement of cash registers, certifications, uniforms of the employees and characteristics of customers.

A first step in testing the measurement model consisted in evaluating the individual items' reliability for each construct, by checking the related factor loadings, Cronbach α-values and the composite reliability (CR). Multiple runs of SEM estimations were performed in order to retain all the items' factor loadings greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). The final estimations provided reliability values of the measurement model and the robustness of the constructs. In particular, CR values range from 0.815 and 0.922, exceeding the acceptable threshold of 0.70 as recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs were further tested through the analysis of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The AVE values close to or exceeding the threshold of 0.50 established the convergent validity of the model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Moreover, all the square roots of AVE values were greater than their corresponding correlation values, confirming that the discriminant validity of the model is assured (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 1 summarizes the measurement model.

Tab. 1: Assessment of the measurement model

Variable	Loading	St. error	t-value	p-value	α	CR	AVE
DES_FUNC					0.781	0.860	0.605
functionality	0.783	0.048	16.438	<0.05			
quality	0.772	0.048	16.174	<0.05			
ease of use	0.837	0.047	17.701	<0.05			
comfortability	0.716	0.048	14.878	<0.05			
DES_AEST					0.704	0.819	0.531
style	0.780	0.047	16.365	<0.05			
appearance	0.668	0.048	13.797	<0.05			
hedonism	0.738	0.048	15.399	<0.05			
creativity	0.724	0.048	15.059	<0.05			
DES_SYMB					0.545	0.815	0.687
added value	0.829	0.047	17.515	<0.05			
social status	0.829	0.047	17.515	<0.05			
ATM_1					0.879	0.901	0.432
surrounding area	0.747	0.048	15.591	<0.05			
surrounding shops	0.610	0.049	12.491	<0.05			
architectural style	0.601	0.049	12.291	<0.05			
location	0.635	0.049	13.049	<0.05			
entrances	0.659	0.049	13.581	<0.05			
aisle	0.628	0.049	12.892	<0.05			
exterior display window	0.588	0.049	11.995	<0.05			
lawns and garden	0.709	0.048	14.732	<0.05			
scents	0.654	0.049	13.480	<0.05			
color schemes	0.641	0.049	13.182	<0.05			
flooring and carpeting	0.726	0.048	15.107	<0.05			
music	0.667	0.048	13.766	<0.05			
ATM_2					0.837	0.874	0.437
cleanliness	0.758	0.048	15.858	<0.10			
privacy	0.678	0.048	14.018	<0.10			
employees' characteristics	0.651	0.048	13.415	<0.10			
price display	0.663	0.048	13.674	<0.10			
lighting	0.703	0.048	14.577	<0.10			
space	0.633	0.049	12.993	<0.10			
furniture	0.651	0.049	13.404	<0.10			
temperature	0.660	0.049	13.600	<0.10			
exterior sign	0.530	0.049	10.723	<0.10			
ATM_3					0.708	0.811	0.464
crowding	0.563	0.049	11.437	<0.05			
placement of cash registers	0.726	0.048	15.118	<0.05			
certifications	0.696	0.048	14.416	<0.05			
uniforms of the employees	0.725	0.048	15.083	<0.05			
characteristics of customers	0.683	0.048	14.122	<0.05			
PI	1.000	-	-	-	1.000	1.000	1.000

Source: personal elaboration.

The inner model has been set as linear due to the violation of the assumption of normality of data (Kock, 2017). The paths coefficients were considered significant with a t-value greater than 1.96 (in absolute value) and a p-value not exceeding 0.05. Results highlighted that only DES-SYMB positively influences the PI of furniture products ($\beta=0.23$, $p<0.05$), thus providing evidence to the hypothesis H1 of this study. Similarly, ATM_1 and ATM_3 affect consumers' PI *with positive and negative signs respectively (β=0.29, p<0.05, β=-0.093, p<0.05), meaning that structural features of the store, like the architectural style and the surrounding areas, improve the purchasing intention of consumers while organizational features, concerning for example the exhibition of certifications and characteristics of other customers, act as a constraint. The impact of ATM_2 on PI is not statistically significant. These findings partially confirm our H2.*

Moreover, ATM partially moderates the relationship between design attributes and PI. By considering only the relationships that are statistically significant (i.e., DES_SYMB>PI, ATM_1>PI, ATM_3>PI), ATM_1 positively moderates the relationship between DES_SYMB and PI (β= 0.296, p<0.05), thus suggesting that the better perception of the structural factors of a furniture store by consumers, the higher their purchasing intention would be affected by the symbolic attributes of a furniture product. On the other side, ATM_3 negatively influences the relationship between DES_SYMB and PI (β= -0.188, p<0.05), meaning that a high sensitivity of consumers towards the organisational factors of a furniture point of sale could result in a limited attention towards the symbolic features of a furniture product, thus discouraging them to acquire it. This final consideration leads to a partial confirmation of our hypothesis H3. Table 2 reports the results of the structural model estimation.

Tab. 2: Structural model estimation

Path	*Beta*	*t-value*	*p-value*	*Result*
H1: DES > PI				*H1: Supported*
DES_FUNC > PI	*-0.033*	*-0.613*	*0.270*	
DES_AEST > PI	*0.027*	*0.504*	*0.307*	
DES_SYMB > PI	***0.226***	*4.379*	***<0.001***	
H2: ATM > PI				*H2: Partially Supported*
ATM_1 > PI	***0.283***	***5.520***	***<0.001***	
ATM_2 > PI	*0.068*	*1.286*	*0.100*	
ATM_3 > PI	***-0.093***	***-1.766***	***0.039***	
H3: ATMDES > PI				*H3: Partially Supported*
ATM_1DES_SYMB > PI	***0.296***	***5.795***	***<0.001***	
ATM_3DES_SYMB > PI	***-0.188***	***-3.629***	***<0.001***	

Source: personal elaboration.

Research limits. *The quantitative nature of the research allowed limited possibilities to obtain subjective opinions from the respondents. In this sense, the use of other qualitative methodologies (e.g., focus group, participant observation, etc.) would be useful in future research to overcome this limit.*

Another limitation lies in the composition of the sample analyzed, mainly composed of young Italian people. Even if this should not be considered as a limitation in a technical sense, future comparisons between different cultures and/or generations would enable to obtain further interesting results.

Practical implications. *In order to influence consumers' buying intentions, furniture companies should redefine their overall product strategies by focusing on the symbolic attributes of a design furniture object. In particular, they could promote the messages implicitly conveyed by their products in a way that these attributes, which enable to express and to improve the social identity, would be adequately perceived by consumers. These considerations require more efforts from companies in distinguishing the different moments of the customer journey, to improve the overall effectiveness of their strategies, as individual intentions do not always translate into actual purchasing behaviours.*

Furniture companies should, also, work to improve different elements of the store atmosphere, which mostly affect consumers' mind. In this sense, they can rely on an adequate management of atmospherics, especially focusing on structural features of the store, concerning exterior display window and colour schemes for instance, which seem to be the most influential factors of purchasing intention. The moderating role of structural atmospherics further suggests the importance of investing in a pleasant and appreciable retail environment to improve the attention of consumers towards the symbolic attributes of design products, thus enhancing their willingness to buy them. In this regard, organizing and promoting in-store initiatives (e.g., community and social events in which consumers can live pleasant experiences) could be helpful for stimulating the attention and curiosity of consumers towards design attributes of the products, particularly symbolic ones, with the aim to influence their purchasing behaviours. Finally, it is important to highlight that these investments should be considered and monitored as medium/long term activities, especially in light of the increasingly rapid evolution of consumers' needs and desires.

Originality of the study. *This study enriches the debate on the design management by providing new insights concerning the furniture sector, where design plays a critical role for companies' competitiveness and innovation (Dell'Era et al., 2017). Prior research (Hanzaee and Andervazh, 2012, Arboleda and Alonso, 2014; Ruswanti et al., 2016), indeed, widely recognized the effects of product design and store atmosphere on consumers' purchasing intention, but few to no contributions have been found related to this specific industry.*
Consistent with extant literature (Bumgardner and Bowe, 2007; Lindberg et al., 2013; Homburg et al., 2015), the findings of this study confirm the importance of the symbolic attributes of furniture products in affecting consumers' purchasing behaviours, thus highlighting that both their needs and expectations are changing. While in the past consumers were more attracted by the functional and the aesthetic features of a product, nowadays they are increasingly looking for intangible attributes, which allow them to better express their self-identities. Moreover, by investigating the moderating role of store atmosphere on the relationship between design and purchasing intention, this

research provides managers with practical suggestions that could be particularly useful for redefining furniture companies' strategies within their retail environments.

Key words: *design; furniture sector; retail; store atmosphere*

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Turning challenges into opportunities during the covid-19 pandemic: fieldnotes from "people in retail"

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The coronavirus pandemic of 2020 has drastic implications for the retail industry. Three separate focus groups were conducted to shed light on potential future developments. Sixteen participants (87.5% male), working at various levels, discussed how the pandemic has changed their industry and how the brick-and-mortar sector will evolve in the future. The online focus groups were conducted using pre-determined questions, the responses to which were recorded and then transcribed. The data collected was coded into themes and subthemes using NVivo software. During the discussion, several key insights emerged: 1) the main theme was ensuring a safe environment for customers and employees, with each company facing different issues and offering different solutions, 2) during the pandemic - but also in the future - flexibility will be a key skill required by those who want to work in retail, and 3) digitization and e-commerce will not replace human interactions in retail - at least in the foreseeable future. The picture that emerges thus places people management at the top of retail executives' priorities.

Objectives. *Following the spread of the pandemic COVID-19 and the release of strict containment measures in many countries, people's daily lives have changed radically: Entertainment, work, social interactions, and even education are mediated through the screen of a PC, notebook, or smartphone. Even the way people make purchases has changed, the shopping experience is very different from the near past. Customers have to queue in front of stores, follow purchase limits per item, follow the floor signage through the supermarket, wear masks, keep distance from other customers and store staff, and so on (Martin-Neuninger & Ruby, 2020). It is not surprising that, in this scenario - characterized by restrictive measures and new rules - many consumers shift their preferences from brick-and-mortar retail to e-commerce. As significant examples, in the US, the share of e-commerce in total retail increased by 4.3% between Q1 and Q2 2020. A similar trend was recorded in the UK, where the share of e-commerce in retail increased significantly from 20.3% to 31.3% between Q1 and Q2 2020 (OCED, 2020). Furthermore, some forecasts suggest that e-retail sales will account for 22 % of total retail sales globally by 2023 (Statista, 2020).*

However, it can be argued that such a trend was already present before the pandemic. In fact, e-commerce was already increasing as a share of total sales prior to COVID-19 (OCED, 2020), and data prior to this epidemic suggested that 70% of all consumers began their consumption experiences with "webrooming" (i.e., consumers looking at products online before going into physical stores; Aw, 2019). Indeed, mainstream media began using the term "retail apocalypse" to describe the decline of brick-and-mortar retail (Kaufinger & Neuenschwander, 2020).

Nonetheless, even after the COVID-19 odyssey and the "prophesied" retail apocalypse (Bhattarai, 2019; Morris, 2019; Thompson, 2017) -the majority of transactions occur in physical stores (OCED, 2020). Several scholars support the hypothesis that there is no retail apocalypse (e.g., Mende, 2019). The "simple" explanation is that the retail landscape is evolving and retailers that do not follow this evolutionary trend will be considered obsolete and will fail (Morgan, 2018). As previously mentioned, COVID-19 caused a shift in the evolutionary trend in retail, from incremental to more transformative (Dannenberg et al., 2020). In addition, greater collaboration with stakeholders is required to enable retailers to understand organizational changes required by the pandemic (e.g., reallocating staff roles). This flexible approach will set the stage for retailers to manage the rapid rebound in consumption following the end of the pandemic, while preparing for the normalization of consumption once the rebound has subsided (Pantano et al., 2020). The aim of this paper, then, is to shed light on these changes that will affect the retail sector in the near future. To do this, we have adopted a descriptive approach based on the thoughts, opinions and experiences of those who lived through the pandemic crisis at its worst.

Methodology. *Three different focus groups were organized to explore people's opinions and experiences and to gain insight into the changes that will affect retail in the future. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic face-to-face meetings were not possible, so the focus groups were conducted online. Online focus groups not only save time and resources,*

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but also allow for automatic and accurate storage of discussion data. The focus groups were asynchronous and spanned three weeks. Four moderators were present in each of them.

All participants (n = 16; 87,5% male) in the 3 groups worked for different companies. The first group consisted of 5 individuals who worked as store managers. The second group included 5 individuals who worked as HR managers. The third group consisted of 5 top managers from 5 different companies. The different working positions of the group participants allowed for a different perspective on the topic discussed in the focus groups.

A semi-structured protocol with minimal supervision was used for the interviews. Participants were asked to respond in alphabetical order to 3 different and open-ended questions. Participants were free to intervene during the other responses to add weight to the discussion or to emphasize certain aspects they felt were important. In addition, the moderator asked additional questions as needed to clarify what participants were saying. The list of questions was developed in advance, in consultation with all authors and with some experts with several years of retail experience. The questions were related to 1) the problems due to the occurrence of the pandemic COVID-19 and the support that the company provided to the employees in the stores, 3) what skills are most valued in times of pandemic, and 4) what the opportunities in the post-COVID-19 scenario are.

We used NVivo 12 software (QSR International) to analyze most of the data collected in the focus groups. A thematic analysis was carried out. The aim was to explore the opinions of the discussants about what has changed due to the spread of the pandemic COVID-19 and what will change in the near future. The following procedure was used to code the data: The main themes were based on three questions asked during the focus groups; the main themes were divided into several emerging sub-themes; the information was analyzed and coded by the moderator.

Findings. *The following results were obtained by analyzing the questions asked during the focus groups. We collapsed the first two questions due to overlapping dialogues. The final questions therefore concerned: 1) the problems due to the spread of the pandemic COVID-19 and the support provided by companies, 2) which competences and skills were most valued during the pandemic, and 3) which opportunities and changes will occur in the scenario after COVID-19.*

In the first focus group (i.e., the one composed of store managers), when asked what problems were caused by the pandemic and how they encountered them, one participant stated that he felt "like a firefighter putting out as many fires as possible[1]." In general, it was noted that most of the problems were related to the ability to ensure a safe environment for customers, but that the solutions chosen were related to the specific sector in which the company operated. As a relevant example, those who worked in the automotive sector chose a solution based on "two cars with radios to ensure contact between the customer and staff" to ensure a safe process for customers. Those who worked with small shop areas were forced to introduce "shifts between staff" and have customers queue outside the store to respect the maximum internal capacity. Those who sold disinfectants struggled with the "enormous traffic [of customers]" and had to respond with frenetic work by staff who were "busy meticulously disinfecting sales tools […] and constantly making announcements about safe distancing". The problem was the safety of the shopping environment. To comply with the new regulations, operators had to implement various solutions.

There was consensus on two aspects: 1) the pandemic forced companies to implement innovative solutions and 2) higher customer conversion rates. Regarding the first aspect, most companies implemented digital technologies to ensure service continuity and fulfill customer requests remotely. For example, one clothing store manager implemented a digital system that allowed customers to "rate the wearability and fabrics" of garments to "close more remote sales." Others implemented digital platforms to allow customers to book their appointments remotely, create virtual tours, and so on. In general, each sector had its own specific problems, and to solve them, digital technologies were used in different ways. The second aspect on which there was general agreement was a higher customer conversion rate. One of the interviewees confirmed, "What's interesting is that the people who came to us had a very high interest", and therefore "the conversion rate went up in inverse proportion to the traffic in the store, which went down". In summary: fewer customers, but much more interest in the product.

For participants in the second group (i.e., the group composed of HR managers), the most important issue was ensuring a safe shopping environment, not only for customers but also for employees. As one participant put it, it was about "reassuring, reassuring and reassuring again". And to achieve this, participants emphasized the fundamental role of digital technologies. In practice, most companies were forced to build or expand their digital channels to ensure continuity of service.

In addition, two other relevant aspects crystallized in the discussion: people's desire for social connection and a higher customer conversion rate. Regarding the first point, most participants agreed that after the first quarantine period (i.e. March 2020 - May 2020), "people wanted to go outside and seek social contact". However, this meant problems as "the rules [for people] were not clear. Therefore, it was difficult to enforce them without being obstructive". On the second aspect, participants in this focus group also emphasized a higher conversion rate among customers. As one of the panelists noted, "we found that obviously fewer people came, but the conversion rate was much higher. The conversion rate was 4% or 5% higher than the year before." So people wanted out and were willing to spend money, even if it was quite a challenge for businesses to deal with the mass of people and comply with the law.

From the discussion of the problem with the third focus group (i.e., the one composed of top managers), similar aspects to the first group emerged to some extent. As mentioned earlier, the main problem was to ensure safe shopping

[1] All direct quotations were directly translated into Italian by the authors.

and different solutions were adopted depending on the business to comply with the new laws. Massive use of digital tools was also reported in this group.

However, two unexplored aspects were highlighted in this third focus group: employee motivation and employee digital skills. In terms of motivation, for many staff the quarantine meant foregoing full pay, so "when it started again, the general climate [motivation] was very bad." The situation was dire. The lack of financial security and forced disengagement from routine caused a "pretty negative emotional and existential state". As a result, motivation was low and even when things got back on track, employees felt let down by the company. The second theme related to employees' digital skills. Several participants reported situations where "customers were way ahead in using new technologies [compared to employees] and therefore it was impossible to guarantee the same kind of shopping experience or convey the same professionalism". In summary, unmotivated employees and lack of digital skills were two main problem areas for top managers.

Figure 1 shows a word frequency cloud of the first main theme about the new problem created by the pandemic.

Fig. 1: Word frequency cloud of problematics node.

The second question asked during the focus groups asked participants what skills and competencies are most valued in times of pandemic. Basically, most participants in the first focus group (i.e., the one composed of store managers) cited flexibility as the most important skill to respond to the challenges of the pandemic COVID -19. One participant noted, "It was a matter of pure flexibility. Even before the pandemic, which will become the 'B.C.' of retail, we had an e-commerce channel [...] but now everything is online. So in order not to lose sales, we had to move from physical to digital, and that required flexibility." Thus, the ability of staff to adapt to new technologies and to the contingencies of the pandemic was by far the most valued. Flexibility was important because most firms were adding or expanding "a layer of technology (e.g., a digital channel) between employees and the customer," and if employees didn't have the flexibility to learn how the tool worked, it just added "additional friction and slowness" to the sale.

Another theme that emerged during the discussion with this first group related to soft skills: problem solving, proactivity, curiosity, creative thinking, and others were mentioned by participants. They were considered important as they are fundamental for reorganizing activities in times of legal constraints.

Similarly, in the second group (i.e., the group composed of HR managers), a general agreement was found on the importance of flexibility. One participant confidently stated that "traditional selling will no longer be there. [...] What we need today is to adapt to the situation and to the context". In terms of future trends, another panelist predicted that "the new normal will be a bit more Darwinian. You either adapt or retail is not for you. And those who resist change will probably lose."

Flexibility was also evident in the third focus group (i.e., the one composed of top managers). Indeed, the pandemic situation required employees to "change jobs four times in one day" and consequently, "those who had the ability to successfully deal with different and unforeseen situations stood out more than those who look at the numbers." In summary then, flexibility was highlighted by the whole group as a key skill that will be increasingly required of retail employees in the future.

Figure 2 shows a word frequency cloud of the second main theme about the most valued employee skills.

Fig. 2: Word frequency cloud of competencies and skills node.

The third and final question asked during the focus groups related to the opportunities and changes that will occur in the post- COVID -19 scenario. In response to this question, participants in the first focus group (i.e., the group that consisted of store managers) and the second focus group (i.e., the group that consisted of HR managers) emphasized that the pandemic has made retail personnel much more aware of the importance of customers to brick-and-mortar stores. As one participant noted, "the big takeaway from the pandemic is that staff are now aware that those on the other side of the counter, who are often a nuisance and often come in ten minutes before closing time [...] are the very ones who keep this big circus [retail] going." In the future, retailers must be able to satisfy customers by providing them with a "fluid shopping experience" based on a "perfect integration between the physical and the virtual tools". Another focus was on the enormous digitization process that will occupy the retail industry in the near future. Before the pandemic, "the goal of integrating digital technologies into the store or sales process was to create a wow experience." Post-pandemic, technology integration should instead have a social connection value, aiming to "create relationships and bring customers closer." However, such integration between physical and digital should not be done blindly; it is necessary to "understand what technologies are needed to satisfy customers." Thus, for most participants, the key to success lies in the ability to tailor a "fluid" shopping experience to the customer, where "barriers [between digital and physical channels] are completely broken down and employees are seen as fundamental levers."

Fig. 3: Word frequency cloud of changes and future opportunities node.

As for the third focus group (i.e., top executives), discussants focused more on the changes affecting retail than the opportunities created by the pandemic. The challenges for the industry as a whole are to be able to answer the question of why a customer should "get off the couch and go somewhere to buy something they can buy from the couch without wasting energy and maybe even saving some money". "Retail Entertainment" thus may become essential. In order to offer such an experience, companies need to consider two basic aspects. The first is to listen to customers more. CRM systems will be essential for this as they enable a one-to-one relationship. "Talk to people as people" is how trust and loyalty can be built and customer retention rates increased. Second, digital tools must "become means to enhance the shopping experience", in other words, enhance the diversifying role of employees through the means of digitalization.

Figure 3 shows a word frequency cloud of the third main theme about the opportunities and changes that will occur after the pandemic. Finally, in Table 1 a synthesis of all the salient aspect emerged during the focus groups is reported.

Tab. 1: Synthesis of the knowledge gained in the discussions.

Themes	**Focus Group 1**	**Focus Group 2**	**Focus Group 3**
Problems caused by COVID-19	• Provide a safe shopping environment. • Different businesses, different solutions adopted. • Higher conversion rates.	• Provide a safe shopping environment. • Reassure customers. • Implement technology based on digital technologies. • Higher conversion rates.	• Provide a safe shopping environment. • Different businesses, different solutions adopted. • Low motivation of employees. • Low digital skills of employees.
Most valued competencies	• Flexibility, in the sense of being able to adapt to the volatility of the context. • Soft skills.	• Flexibility, in the sense of being able to adapt to the volatility of the context.	• Flexibility, in the sense of being able to adapt to the volatility of the context.
Opportunities and future changes	• New sensitivity to the importance of the customers. • Integration of physical and digital tools to ensure a "fluid" shopping experience.	• New sensitivity to the importance of the customers. • Integration of physical and digital tools to ensure a "fluid" shopping experience.	• Integration of physical and digital tools to ensure a "fluid" shopping experience. • Strive to create "retail entertainment" experiences. • Enhance the diversifying role of employee through the use of digital technologies.

Research limitations. *The main limitation of the study is based on the sample chosen. Although all discussants were either experts or actively working in retail, they represent a random sample. Moreover, due to the exploratory design of our study, we did not collect descriptive information about the participants' firms. Therefore, we were unable to identify differences in perceptions of the pandemic crisis and actions taken based on region, location, industry, and firm size.*

Practical implications. *Through a descriptive approach, the study provides an overview of the retail sector from the perspective of those who work in the business. Important insights emerge from the study both in terms of the skills retailers need to cultivate to better adapt to the challenges of the future and the opportunities that arise, particularly in terms of technology integration, employee empathy with customers, flexibility, and technology literacy among store personnel. The practical implications are therefore relevant as they lie in the possibility of understanding how this sector can successfully respond to the crisis.*

Originality of the study. *The originality of the study is based on the novelty of the situation created by the pandemic COVID -19. It can be said that the pandemic, in all its tragedy, has accelerated the use and influence of technology in the economy. This research was conducted to find out 1) how retailers in Italy are weathering the pandemic crisis, 2) what skills and competencies have been and will be most useful in dealing with the legal constraints and successfully running the business, and 3) insights into the possible future changes that will affect the retail industry as a whole.*

Key words: *Retail; People; Flexibility; Covid-19; Employees.*

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Understanding the shopper journey for improving customer experience: an empirical study in grocery retail

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Objectives. *Preparing the shopping list, driving to the store, finding parking, defective carts, long lines for fresh products, finding items, poor product info, checkout, payment, unclear receipts, carrying heavy shopping bags home, and forgotten items are some of the most common barriers experienced by grocery shoppers during their customer journey. These are also the most common reasons why shoppers decide to switch to alternative retailers or to online grocery channels. Retailers have to (1) understand these critical moments of the grocery shopping journey, and then (2) find new solutions to simplify them using technology. This effort produces results that increase shoppers' customer experience (CE). This is the only option for online retailers to survive and to guarantee the future of their physical stores.*

CE was first investigated in consumer behaviour literature more than 30 years ago (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982), but has now become a milestone concept in marketing, both for academics and practitioners, due to the high competition between firms and their need for differentiation (Kranzbuhler et al. 2017). A great CE is at the base of a sustainable competitive advantage for companies and it is at the heart of customer loyalty (Grewal et al. 2017). It has been shown that satisfied customers across multiple sectors spend more and exhibit deeper loyalty to companies (Enrlich et al. 2017).

Indeed, customers nowadays can choose among many different options not only to buy their products, but also to choose among several channels of distribution. The traditional loyalty scheme is no longer effective as customers can easily enroll in several loyalty programs. Research (Lhuer et al. 2015) found that improving CE from merely average to something that wows the consumer can lead to a 30 to 50 percent increase in measures such as likelihood to renew or to buy another product. Lemon and Verhoef (2016) confirmed that CE represents one of the top priorities of executives for the next 12 months.

So how can a traditional grocery retailer master CE?

This is the question this paper tries to address. Several challenges are ahead of this industry, in particular where there is low involvement, such us for routine products that consumers are used to buy frequently, and where they are substantially indifferent about from which retailer they buy. Creating differentiation while selling this type of product is particularly challenging for retailers, and here CE can make a difference for a store to be the one selected by a customer. In our view, the customer journey represents the framework retailers should use in order to plan and deliver a great CE. Analysing the customer journey and reshaping the retailers' strategy according to the inputs received means being very customer-centric and embracing a concreate customer-based strategy. By illustrating the case of a retail chain in Italy, the present work wants to show how (1) in order to create and deliver a great CE the key is to rethink and reshape the customer journey, and (2) how CE impacts grocery store performances. Moreover, this paper studies the customer journey for a multi brand grocery retailer and not for a single product; to this end, the integration of different prospectives on customer behavior and a comprehensive analysis of the different tools of the retailers mix (e.g in store atmosphere, display, promotions, sales staff, etc) is deemed necessary.

This paper answers the call that previous researchers (Lemon and Verhoef 2016; Kranzbühler et al. 2017) have made on the need for empirical testing and validation of the construct of CE and its relationship with the customer journey idea.

Methodology. *Given the exploratory aim of our research and the rich contextual nature of customer journey analysis, the qualitative approach emerged as the most appropriate to gain in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. To collect data, we selected a grocery retailer in Italy whose management was interested in this topic and was willing to: support the setup of the study, in particular in the selection of stores to be used in our analysis; allow the researchers to collect data from its customers; and provide secondary data on store performance. The company didn't allow the research team to disclose its name, we will refer to it as Danco throughout this paper. The chain is, at the moment, rated second in Italy in terms of market share.*

In terms of market penetration, the company is a leader, in particular in the region of central Italy. For this reason we involved in the study the subsidiary managing the central part of Italy. This subsidiary works in three areas. These

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areas are also those where the internet penetration and e-commerce market share is - in general - lower than Europe's average. This situation was functional to understand the customer journey in areas where the diffusion of the internet and the adoption of digital channels is growing, but is still far from maturity. This allows for a better understanding of the customer journey in a situation without a strong internet and digital diffusion, to point out how to improve the customer journey flow thanks new touchpoints, and eventually digital ones.

The first step of our research consisted of the selection of the stores in which the field research would be conducted. To this end we interviewed Danco's management to identify potential stores with different shopping experiences proposed. Six interviews were performed with managers who held different roles in the company. These interviews allowed us to map the stores managed by the company according to several criteria linked to the experience offered. The first relevant information was linked to the relevance of the three areas for the subsidiary: Areas 1 and 2 emerged as being more relevant than the third in terms of number of stores, turnover, and expansion potential given the figures on population in the area. We therefore focused our attention on Areas 1 and 2 for the selection of the stores in which to conduct the study. The interviews also revealed that the management was aware that the stores in Area 1 offer, in general, a better experience than those in Area 2.

We therefore matched the different stores in the two areas to find a couple of stores that could be comparable in terms of dimension, structure of the store, type of city in which they are present, and location within the city:

- *POS1 - located in the center of the most important city of Area 1; this store offers a better experience, i.e., attention to the particulars of the retail offer and store atmosphere, offers for local food products and several services not offered in the second store, such as in-store dining area with wi-fi, self scanning tools, and digital totems for extension of the non-food offers.*
- *POS2 - located in the center of the most important city of Area 2; this store has a similar sale surface as POS1 and offers the same assortment of products with the same price positioning (products are purchased by the same buying office that determines guidelines for sell-out prices), but lower attention is dedicated to the exposition of products and store atmosphere within the store and none of the above-mentioned services present in POS1 are provided by the store. This results therefore in a worse CE.*

The comparison of the data from the customer journey of these stores would allow us to verify which is the impact of CE proposed within the store from a customer's perception during their journey and its impact on the stores' performance.

Several research methods were used to collect data and generate useful knowledge for the grocery store companies' customer-based strategies:

1. *An ethnographic research was performed to map the customer journey pointing out the positive and negative aspects of the journey;*
2. *Two focus groups with the retailers' clients were conducted to gain richer insights on customers' journey and how to improve the CE; and*
3. *Structured interviews to shoppers were run in the stores to measure their perceptions about their CE and the solutions discovered by the focus groups.*

During the ethnographic stage, the purchase phase of the customer journey was mapped with direct observations, while the pre- and post-purchase phases were investigated with in-depth interviews at the end of the shopping trip within the same sample. During the study, participants were asked to wear eyeglassess to allow eye tracking: this mapped the most recurrent paths, the most attractive areas within the store, and the points of attention attracted during the journey.

Eye-tracking glassess allowed the researchers to record the whole journey of the customers in the purchase phase and to identify the recurrent patterns of the in-store visit. Eye-tracking data collection integrated with other traditional methodologies of data collection and, in particular, with the think-aloud observation as it allowed the researcher to monitor actions that the customers may have difficulty pointing out verbally to the researcher.

The ethnographic research allowed for identification of both positive and negative elements of the customer journey. After this phase, two focus groups were created with the clients of the two stores, as selected with an ad-hoc in-store observation.

The focus group was structured in two parts. At the beginning the participants were asked to discuss their customer journey related to grocery shopping at that store, with a particular emphasis on the pre- and post-purchase phases of the journey. The second part of the discussion was meant to co-develop ideas to improve the customer experience in the store.

These ideas were checked with a larger sample of clients of the two stores through structured interviews at the point of sales. The interview also included questions to check the customers' perceptions of the experience in store, basing on the key findings of the ethnographic and focus group studies. The final sample was composed of 93 respondents, 79.5% women. Ages ranged from 18 to over 60, with 22.7% younger than 39 years old and 58% between 40 and 60 years old.

Data analysis and its interpretation was an ongoing interactive process closely related with data collection (Decrop and Derbaix 2010). Categories, patterns, and propositions emerged from a systematic comparison of the data and were permanently called into question (Glaser and Strauss 1967). Data was coded in several steps, from the most descriptive to the most interpretive, from the most concrete events to the most abstract processes, going from "experience-near" to "experience-distant" (Geertz 1973). Memos and diagrams were also used to assist in interpretation and to establish connections between concepts.

Findings.

1. Pre-purchase stage

The first action the company should put into place to support this phase is a solution to support the creation and management of the shopping list. Several digital solutions are available and proposed by other retailers. We checked the perceptions of customers on two main types of applications: an application on the smartphone or a connected kitchen tool to create the list scanning the products. The impression on the two solutions are different, as not all the customers seem to appreciate a digital solution: «I don't want a digital list, I don't want to be always connected» ... «I'm not sure it's a good idea, it forces you to go always in the same store». Those who are in favor of this idea prefer the kitchen tool: «the second is better, everybody can contribute to it, it's not personal on a phone» ... «it's enough to scan the product and it enters in the list, it's better than search the product in an application and flag it». Customers would link the list to the other problems in this phase that are, first of all, the promotions : «if it's done with a tool of the store it should recall the promotions», and secondly, the need to manage the list according to the store layout : «it should also be automatically reordered to optimise the time in the store according to where the products can be found». Customers would also link this tool to a problem that emerged in the post-purchase phase, which is the need for variety in cooking: «it could be great if it proposes you new recipes with the products in the list and suggests the other ingredients to buy to do it». Also, the possibility offered by digital solutions to safeguard the items purchased in a higher frequency by customers is not perceived in the same way by customers: «it's a good idea, so you can save time on your preferred products» ... «I don't like it, it may oblige you to buy these products more often than ou planned and reduces the variety of your shopping».

The second problem that emerged in this phase was the promotion screening, which is linked to the price comparison. Both activities, are relevant for some customers but not for others: «this would be great, in particular if it can alert you that a promotion you pointed out it's interesting for you, for example with a like solution, is starting» ... «it's too much invasion of your life like this, the stores will control you then» ... «the possibility of having the digital promotional leafter is already there, some solutions also allow the comparison of the leafter, how many of you are really using them?».

2. Purchase stage

One main issue in this phase is the perception of the long wait time at the assisted sale desks in POS2. As already mentioned, this could be solved by working on the store atmosphere to reduce this perception, as happens in POS1. In this part of the study, we asked the customers if they could imagine a possible solution to save time during this part of their journey. The questions were asked in both focus groups, and therefore also to customers of POS1. Interesting considerations emerged to better manage the CE in this part of the journey: customers would appreciate avoiding going to the area of the desk to pick up their number, this way they could save time in the checkout. They would also appreciate, if they plan to buy at different desks, they don't have to pick up another number and start waiting again. Finally, they'd appreciate using the waiting time to shop in the store and be alerted when their turn gets closer. All these requirements would imply a digital solution to be effectively performed in the stores. On this, again the opinions of customers diverged, as some of them would be happy to have a mobile app that allows them to save time, while others would prefer this function to be present on the self-scanning tool. Still others thought that the store should find a solution to manage it without too much technology: «why always on your phone or on some technological tool? why they can't simply call you with a microphone? (agreements)». Customers agreed that this is a solution that can be found at the service desks, and it could be replicated at the checkout in the post-purchase phase where there is a similar waiting problem.

At POS1, we checked the usage of some services available only there that could be introduced in POS2 as well. First of all, we asked respondents the reasons for the low usage of a digital kiosk for non-food items. The results showed that its presence should be better communicated to customers, since 71.4% of the respondents declared they did not know what it was. Those who use it said they would appreciate a greater assortment of products available through the kiosk. Secondly, we checked the usage of the self-scanning tool available in the store: 54.4% declared they do not use it, and among those, 83.9% reported that they never used it. Going into more detail on the reasons for this lack of usage, the majority (34.6%) declared that they didn't find it useful, 26.9% are not attracted by the tool, 15.4% are worried they will make mistakes, and 7.7% said they prefer doing the traditional shopping and prefer human contact with salespeople at the checkout. Those who use it showed a high level of dissatisfaction (41.2%), as they found it not user friendly and do not appreciate the checks requiring the whole checkout scan at the end of their journey anyway.

We then tested interest in the self checkout at POS2. There, 80.7% declared to be interested, in particular young customers (100%). There was a contradiction between the two stores: customers who have a potential solution to a problem don't use it, and customers that don't have it would like to have it. The result of POS2 does not allow for a conclusion on how many customers declaring to be interested in self checkout would really use it, so the management of the retailer should carefully evaluate the potential usage of the tool in the stores that don't have it before making the investment to set up all stores with this tool. In POS1, as the tool was already there, the retailer could make some tests to use it in place of the customers' smartphones, using digital solutions that can support the CE, like the waiting time tool mentioned before.

Another digital solution that could be integrated into the self-scanning tool for stores that have it, for the clients' smartphones or in an ad hoc digital tool, would be the list of ingredients. It would have to be manageable and easy from the customer's point of view, and it must allow the user to search for keywords or immediately find the ingredients of a product (e.g., by scanning it). On this point, customers went more into detail on the potential contents of the *solution linked to the product, not only the ingredients that interest them, but in their view, the tool should also integrate the price of the product, the promotions, and the possibility to book and receive products even with a delay if not present in the store assortment. They did not specify a change in the physical assortment because their rotation is too low, from the retailer's point of view.*

3. Post-purchase stage

In this phase we verified interest in the home delivery and e-commerce solutions. Thirty percent of the respondents to the stuctured questionnaire declared to be very interested in home delivery of the purchases performed by themelves in the store. Surprisingly, the most interested targets were the young people (50%) and not senior ones (17.6%).

Sixty percent of respondents were not interested in e-commerce. Again, the most interested were the young customers (75%), while the least interested were the seniors (41.1%), who prefer to select the products themselves at the store. The possibility to see with some device, the products the salesperson is collecting (e.g., thanks to a camera, interacting directly with the saleperson) doesn't interest them, as they seem not to trust the retailers: « they can play with the lights and make a product look better than it actually is, and when you discover it it's too late ... I perfer to see them in the store personally so I can check (agreements)».

4. Store performance

As anticipated, CE at POS1 was better than at POS2. These differences in the CE may justify the different results between the two stores. When asked which was the main driver of their satisfaction for Danco, customers of POS1 mainly referred to the key component of the retailer's positioning: quality of the products (47%) and salespeople (42%), while the answers of POS2 clients were more fragmented. The most relevant element at POS2 was the promotions (29%). When asked which element dissatisfied them most at Danco, clients of POS1 mainly answered nothing (53%), while clients of POS2 pointed out the difficulty in finding the products (33%).

POS1 clients have an higher level of loyalty. Indeed, only 24.5% of interviewees declared that they also shop in competitors' stores, versus 35.48% of POS2 clients. Also, in terms of economic KPIs, POS1 is better than POS2 (Table 2). These results point out the relevance of grocery retailers working on CE to develop a customer-centric strategy.

Research limits. *The study has an explorative aim and it has been featured with a qualitative approach. As any other study, has several limitations. First of all, it is based on two stores in a single country and on a limited sample of customers. This is functional for raising insights and mapping touchpoints, but it is less useful for results generalization. For this goal a more estensive quantitative research should be done, also to understand the differences and uniformities in shopping behavior for various culture and countries (Grosso and Castaldo, 2015).*

The study doesn't investigate directly the shopping trip pre- and post-purchase, with in home etnographic analysis or diaries. We decided to use the in-store research and the focus groups also to detect the pre- and post-purchases behaviors. This decision limits the customer journey mapping to elements recalled by the interviewed sample for previous experience creating a time-based bias. Future research could be integrated with 'at-home' analytical tools (e.g. in house etnographic research) to follow and map directly the whole journey of the customer.

Practical implications. *A key contribution to the retailers' customer-based strategy is the identified need for them to support the customer in all the phases of the journey. Traditionally, retailers have tended to focus mainly on the purchase moment, that is, the moment of truth when the customer is in their store. The customer journey analysis allowed us to point out the relevance of the pre-purchase phase in the store selection, and to create loyalty, the relevance of supporting the client at home ex-post while they interact with the products bought in the store. If these two areas are taken into account in the consumer behaviour theories, then they should be integrated into the buying process. But, the retailers have been expected in these phases to be obervers of their customers' behaviour to adapt their in-store offers to better satisfy their customers. Our study points out the need to directly intervene with practical solutions also outside the physical store. This is possible thanks to the development of new technologies that allow companies to contact the customer outside the store. The customer journey approach should be an omnichannel approach with today's technology, mixing physical and digital touchpoints in a seamless experience to improve the customer satisfaction. Our results show that not all customers are ready to utilize technology-based solutions even if such solutions are the best way to solve issues during the customer journey and improve CE. For this reason, it is fundamental to use technologies in a smart way, improving the fluidity of the process for those who are ready for that, avoiding switching difficulties from physical to digital devices, at the same time working on a positive physical experience for those who don't want to integrate a high-tech solution in their journey. Indeed, another key finding of our research points out a key challenge to properly managing CE in retailing: customers may agree on the problems, but they do not necessarily agree on the best solution to improve their CE. Indeed, the key finding seems for retailers to create an open store, where each customer can enact a specific combination of touchpoints to create the best own experience. So, the personalization of the journey for the customer emerged as the main finding in order for The study of the customer journey is a tool useful for retailers to improve their customer satisfaction and loyalty and store performance, but it can also be a tool useful for the channel partners (e.g. manufacturers) to understand the role of their category and brands in the overall journey of the shopper. In this way, it is possible to discover new patterns to improve the CE related to the category and to the brand (in comparison with other categories and brands). This view should be a tool to use for creating joint initiatives and working partnerships between brands and retailers to transform the channel relationships from a competitive and margin fight (pie sharing) approach to a more collaborative and pie expansion view (Jap, 1999).*

Originality of the study. *This study is intended to be a first approach to analyze the customer journey in grocery retailing and to identify areas of improvement of customer-based retail strategy to improve CE.*

Key words: *customer experience, customer journey, customer-based strategy; grocery retail; technology; touchpoints*

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Exploring social media engagement in cross-cultural perspective: a systematic literature review

MARIAPINA TRUNFIO* SIMONA ROSSI•

Objectives. *Social media has become a global phenomenon involving individuals from different countries that interact and participate in diverse debates, including product branding, political and civic issues, etc. Social media engagement represented a key topic in marketing research (Barger et al., 2016; Peltier et al., 2020) and hot issues for practitioners. In the last decades, the spread of social media platforms has shifted how consumers interact with brands across country boundaries redefining how people co-create meaning in the virtual space and experience with the brand. Due to their co-creative, collaborative and user-centered nature, social media enable consumers to become influential gatekeepers and producers of brand-related content (Muntinga et al., 2011). Consequently, marketers are striving to use diverse social media channels to reach and engage their consumers. In particular, social network sites (SNSs) have been widely recognised as the main driving force of the digital media revolution (Vivek et al., 2012) as they allow companies to engage consumers in constant conversations, supportive behaviours, and meaningful relationships. Social media engagement is a context-specific occurrence of Customer Engagement (Brodie et al., 2013) that reflects consumers' positive individual dispositions towards the community or a focal brand (Dessart, 2017). It can be represented as a multidimensional construct that encompasses cognitive (customer focus and interest in a particular brand), emotional (feelings of inspiration or pride caused by a particular brand), and behavioral (customer effort and energy necessary for interaction with a particular brand) components (Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek et al., 2016; So et al., 2016; Vivek et al., 2012). Social media engagement can be manifested symbolically through actions such as liking, commenting, sharing, and viewing contents from a brand, focusing on its behavioural dimension (Oviedo-García et al., 2014; Barger et al., 2016; Oh et al., 2017; van Doorn et al., 2010). It is worth pointing out that not all these actions determine the same level of engagement. Scholars generally differentiate between two levels of social media engagement: lower engagement, which describes situations in which consumers passively consume content or use very basic forms of feedback (e.g. watching a video on YouTube, liking a post on Facebook), and higher engagement, which describes cases in which consumers actively participate in various forms of co-creation (e.g., writing reviews on Facebook, creating contents about product and services on Instagram) (Khan, 2017).*

Antecedents and consequences of social media engagement have been identified to understand why consumers interact on social media and the possible outcomes (Barger and Schultz, 2016). Engaged customers display greater brand loyalty and satisfaction (Bowden, 2009; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014) and are more likely to contribute to new product development (Haumann et al., 2015), service innovation (Kumar et al., 2010), and viral marketing activity spread by word of mouth (Wu et al., 2018). Understanding, monitoring and measuring social media engagement are key aspects interesting scholars and practitioners who proposed diverse conceptualisations and several indicators and KPIs.

As a global phenomenon, social media engagement may vary depending on cultural background and cultural values. Cross-cultural studies can help assess how cultural values and behaviours impact diverse entrepreneurial, managerial and marketing processes (Hofstede 2001; Calza et al., 2020), including online engagement in diverse contexts (Messner, 2020; Wang and Liu, 2019). Despite the growing interest on social media engagement in global scenario, few studies have examined digital engagement across different countries and cultural backgrounds. Understanding the influence of culture on social media engagement in the cross-cultural perspective still presents grey areas of investigations. The purpose of this paper is to cast light on the topic of social media engagement from a cross-cultural perspective. By adopting a bibliometric analysis and literature review, it contributes to the academic debate on social media engagement in diverse cultural contexts with an overarching picture of what has already been investigated and what are existing gaps that need further research. It contributes towards an overarching perspective of the existing knowledge in the field and offers insights and guidance to practitioners on modelling and managing social media engagement (Tranfield et al., 2003) according to different cultural contexts.

Methodology. *The research is built upon the rigorous, transparent, and reproducible protocol of the systematic literature review as a useful research method (Pickering and Byrne, 2014; Tranfield et al., 2003) that helps ssynthesise knowledge and determine future research directions.*

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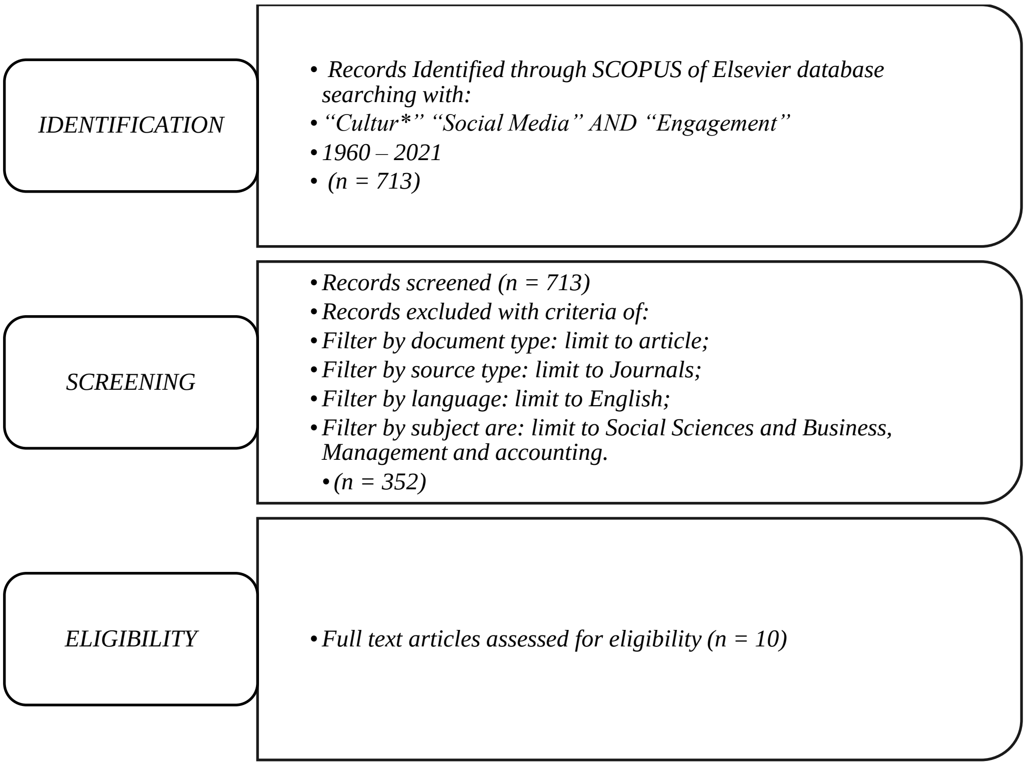
In order to conduct a literature review, quality journals are considered the basis for selecting quality publications (Wallace and Wray, 2016). Therefore, the database Scopus was selected. The following research chain: "Cultur" AND "Social Media" AND "Engagement", searching under title, abstract, and keywords, was used. The research chain was determined after reading key articles in the domain of engagement in social media. The protocol of the systematic literature review (See Figure 1) has been conducted on the 13th January 2021 and included a temporal period between 1960-2021, although the first paper appeared in 2010.*

Fig. 1: The protocol of the systematic quantitative literature review



Due to variability in the peer-review process and their limited availability, book reviews, editorials, and papers from conference proceedings were eliminated; as such, only peer-reviewed papers in English were considered in this research. The 711 articles were screened considering English-language peer-reviewed journal articles, to safeguard the quality and effectiveness of the review, with the identification of 352 articles.
Adopting the bibliometrics analysis method (Aria and Cuccurullo, 2017), we used the R-Tool 'Biblioshiny for Bibliometrix' to perform a comprehensive bibliometric analysis. Then, among the most cited articles, 10 full-text articles were selected as eligible, organised in Microsoft Excel datasheet and examined iteratively by researchers. Bibliometrix is a recent R-package which facilitates a more complete bibliometric analysis employing specific tools for both bibliometric and scientometric quantitative research (Aria and Cuccurullo, 2017; Dervis, 2019; Jalal, 2019).

Findings. *The bibliometric analysis provided information on the 352 articles allowing us to highlight the significance of the topic at hand.*

The research on social media engagement from a cross-cultural perspective has been increasing since the beginning of 2007, as shown in figure 2. The data show how interest in this area of knowledge has increased year on year, except for the first four years, which seems a period of relative stability.

Fig. 2: Timeline of the studies

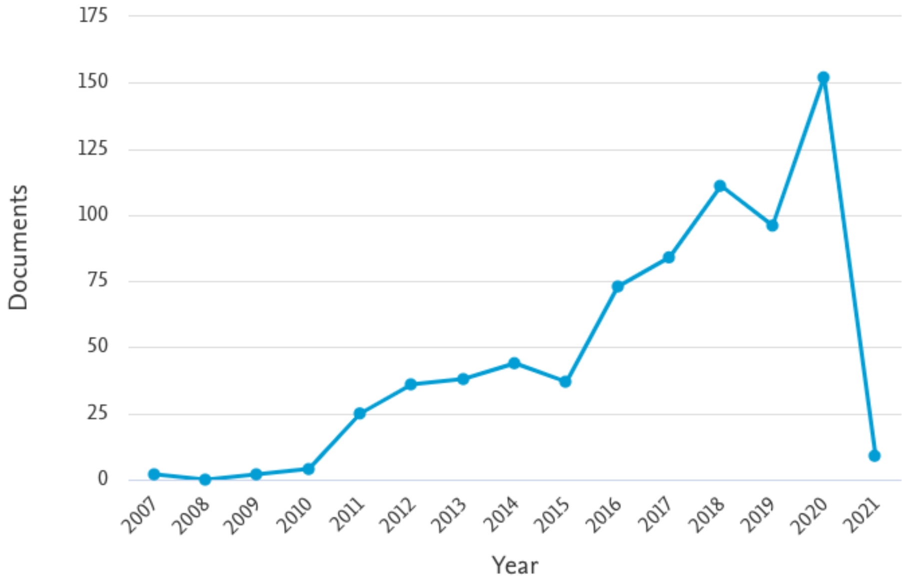
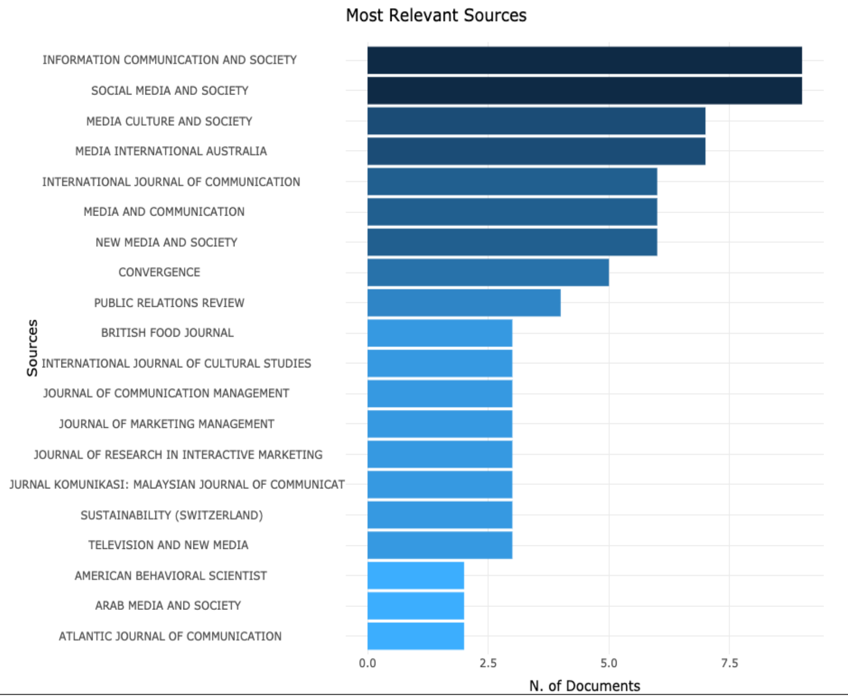


Figure 3 shows the journals that have published most documents on the topic. The analysis revealed 20 journals covering different fields including marketing, media, communication and technology. With 9 documents published, the journals 'Information and communication and society' and 'social media and society' have published more research than any other journal. The journal 'Media culture and society' ranks second with 7 publications.

Fig. 3: Most relevant sources



Interesting findings emerged considering the most global cited documents that allow us to identify the seminal articles according to the 'timeliness, utility, and quality expressed by the scientific community' (Okubo, 1997). Figure 3 shows the number of author citations for each article identifying seminal works. The number of citations an article receives, and the studies cited in an article are two of the most popular bibliometric indicators used to determine an article's quality.

Fig. 4: Most cited articles

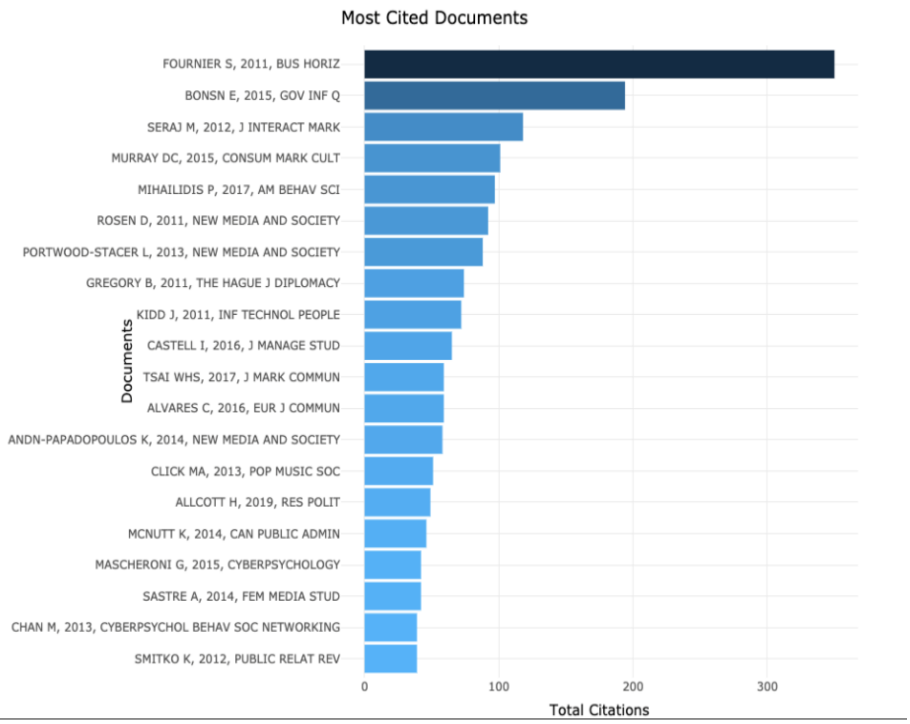
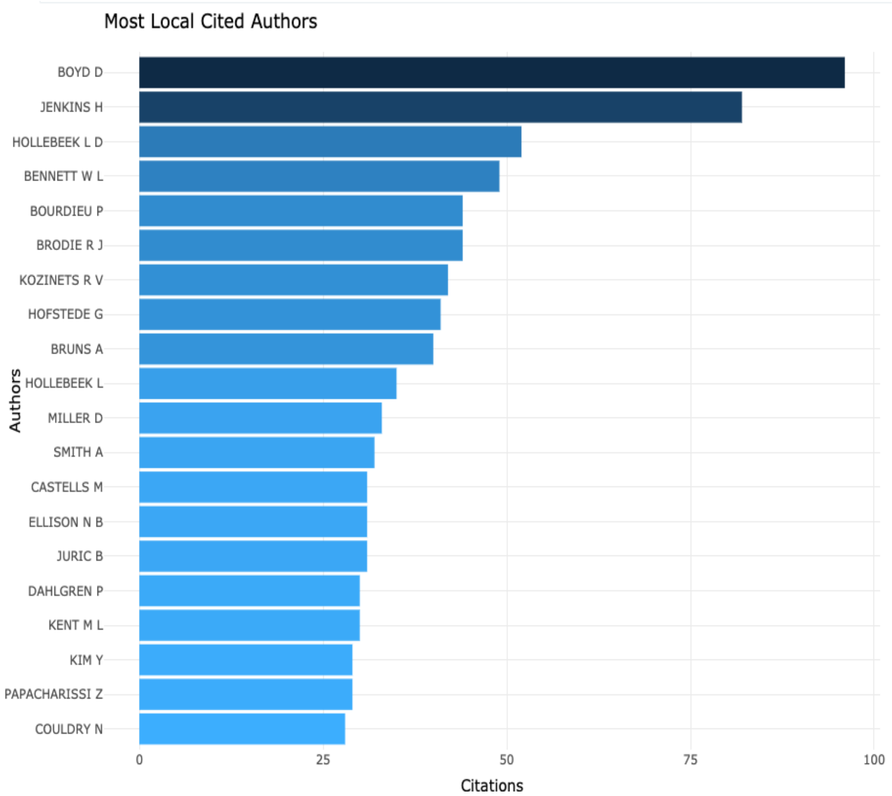


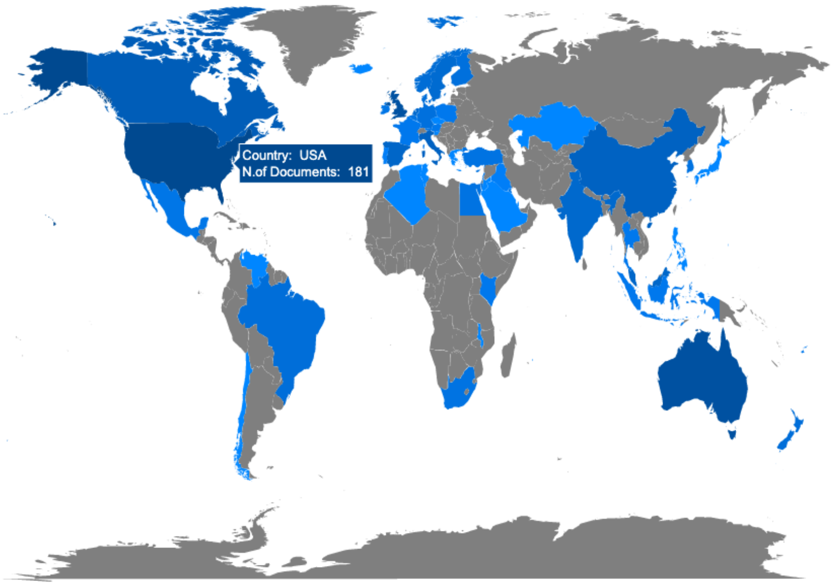
Figure 5 lists the main authors according to the number of citations. According to the database Scopus, the most prolific author is Boyd D with 96 citations, followed by Jenkins H. with 82 citations and Hollebeek L. D. with 52 citations.

Fig. 5: Most cited authors



For what concerns the country scientific production, figure 5 shows that, in the USA, publications since 2003 on the topic amount to 181. Australia ranks second with 86 publications, followed by United Kingdome with 81 documents. The difference in the number of documents occurs because most journals are from the USA or the UK.

Fig. 6: Country scientific production



The bibliometric analysis of the papers revealed the seminal papers on Social Media Engagement in cross cultural management perspective and the specific themes 10 articles have been considered as seminal work based on the number of citations and the relevance of the topic (Table 1), were selected from the database and analysed by researchers.

Tab. 1: The 10 articles analysed

Authors	Article	Journal	Year	Citations
Seraj M.	We Create, We Connect, We Respect, Therefore We Are: Intellectual, Social, and Cultural Value in Online Communities.	Journal of interactive marketing	2012	118
Tsai W.-H. S. Men L. R.	Consumer engagement with brands on social network sites: A cross-cultural comparison of China and the USA.	Journal of Marketing Communications	2014	59
Waters R.D. Kevin D. L.	Exploring the Impact of Culture in the Social Media Sphere: A Content Analysis of Nonprofit sOrganisations' Use of Facebook	Journal of Intercultural Communication Research	2012	26
Khan I. Dongping H. Wahab A.	Does culture matter in effectiveness of social media marketing strategy? An investigation of brand fan pages.	Aslib Journal of Information Management	2016	23
Chen H.-T. Chan M. Lee F. L. F.	Social media use and democratic engagement: a comparative study of Hong Kong, Taiwan, and China.	Chinese Journal of Communication	2016	18
Shu-Chuan C. Chen H.-T. Chen G.	Consumers' engagement with corporate social responsibility (CSR) communication in social media: Evidence from China and the United States.	Journal of Business Research	2020	8
Wang X. Liu Z.	Online engagement in social media: A cross-cultural comparison.	Computers in Human Behaviours	2019	7
Levy S. Gvili Y.	Online shopper engagement in price negotiation: the roles of culture, involvement and eWOM.	International Journal of Advertising	2020	3
Messner W.	Understanding the influence of culture on customer engagement and recommendation intentions.	Journal of strategic Marketing	2020	-
Prakash C.D. Majumdar A.	sAnalysing the role of national culture on content creation and user engagement on Twitter: The case of Indian Premier League cricket franchises.	International Journal of Information Management	2021	-

What emerges from the articles analysed is that despite the worldwide popularity of social media, consumers' attitudes and behaviours on social media are culturally shaped. How and why consumers engage with brand SNSs could reflect the prevailing cultural values to which individual users are predisposed. 60% of the articles analysed tackle the issue from a cross-cultural perspective by comparing the level of engagement between two or more countries.

Wang & Liu (2019) examine potential adverse factors affecting social media engagement comparing Australians and Chinese online behaviours. Similarly, Tsai and Men (2017) study the underlying motivations and engagement mechanisms in China and USA. The same countries are considered by Chu et al., 2020, who investigates how the key antecedents of social media engagement change according to different cultures. The remaining part of the articles (40%) focus on culture's effects on social media engagement without comparing countries. Most of the seminal papers analysed draw on the literature on consumer engagement, social media and online community (Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek et al., 2016). The antecedents of brand engagement, the impact of antecedents on the attitude towards engagement and the consequences of this attitude on media use are also explored in the ten articles. Regarding cross-cultural literature, the most popular theoretical models adopted by authors are Hofstede (1980) and Triandis (1985) cultural dimensions. Among the dimensions explored, most of the studies focus on individualism and collectivism as fundamental distinctions for delineating cultural variations. Authors have also adopted many other theoretical foundations, including the Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), Consumer Culture Theory (Holt, 1997) and the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty et al., 1983).

Considering the methodology, most of the studies analysed (90%) use quantitative methods such as regression analysis, econometric analysis and predictive models. Just one study (Seraj, 2012) employs a netnographic analysis to understand how culture contributes to creating engagement in online communities.

As we are looking for engagement in social media, it was necessary to talk about social networking platforms. 50% of the studies mentioned the platforms that were analysed. Among those, results show that Facebook is the most popular platform analysed to understand engagement followed by Weibo, Wechat, Renren, Twitter and Instagram. After this, the most popular category includes research that didn't mention a specific platform.

Although Facebook can be considered the current leading SNS worldwide, the SNS landscape is highly diversified and localised. Domestic social networks with features and designs that reflect the unique culture are popular in different countries (Tsai and Men, 2017), including Wechat in China, Mixi in Japan, Orkut in India, and Vkontakte Russia. Moreover, social networks that originated in Western countries, such as Facebook, YouTube or Twitter, are absent or often inaccessible in important emerging economies, such as China. In addition to the localised social media scene, the rich cross-cultural literature has documented cultural differences in the communication style and content of marketing messages and consumers' communication preferences and Internet behaviours (Kim et al., 2009), including customer engagement. For example, Choi et al. (2011) report that American and Korean consumers are driven by different motivations in their use of SNSs, and thus they form dissimilar SNS relationships that are reflective of their respective cultural orientations. Chu and Choi's study (2011) also reveals cultural variations in the antecedents driving Chinese and American consumers' electronic word- of-mouth behaviors. Along the same line and with regard to social media engagement, culture may play a critical role in dictating consumers' interactions with brands on SNSs (Chu et al., 2020; Tsai and Men, 2017; Wang and Liu, 2019).

The analysis of the thematic map of the keywords density and centrality and investigation of the network analyses of the co-occurrence offered interesting findings. They allow drawing continuity with the social media marketing research and introducing fresh knowledge in the cross-cultural management research field. The prevailing results can be positioned in the consolidated social media engagement streams of research. The thematic map, based on co-word network analysis and clustering, showed as leading themes "youtube" and "internet" (high density and high centrality), "engagement" (high density and medium centrality) and "social media" "Instagram" and "social networking" (low density and high centrality). Likewise, the network analyses of the co-occurrence revealed the prevailing topics of the social media engagement streams of research including diverse typologies of social media networks, digital media and methods, etc.

Besides, fresh knowledge emerged, contributing to investigate social media and cross-cultural management research interconnections. China and Wechat were at the centre of the international debate on social media adoption and used in the cross-cultural perspective; besides, Australia received high interest. Collettivism emerged in a sylos position.

Democracy, public diplomacy and participatory engagement have been mapped as emerging topics in the social media engagement debate under diverse cultural contexts conditions, opening scenario for further studies to address existing research gaps and to provide more comprehensive insights.

Research limits. *This study has several limitations that should be recognised and addressed in future research. First of all, the systematic literature review only includes English articles published in Journals. As such, conference proceedings and book chapters could be also included to deepen the understanding of the subject. Second, this research was conducted on the database Scopus of Elsevier for the keywords "Cultur*" "Social Media" AND "Engagement". Researchers could use a combination of different databases and keywords to search for new contributions and insights. As this is a relatively young research field, further academic investigation is needed to overcome the study's limitations and outline new scenarios and directions for future research.*

Practical implications. *This systematic literature review contributes to the academic debate, which investigated the social media engagement in cross-cultural perspective, offering insights and guidance to practitioners on managing social media engagement in diverse cultural contexts. Marketers realised that engagement is a complex construct requiring cross-cultural lenses to go beyond country borders and apply diversely social media tools in different cultural contexts.*

Originality of the study. *This research presents fresh knowledge in the academic debate by providing an overarching picture of social media engagement which frames globally and in specific local contexts (e.g. China) the*

phenomenon and offering continuity and discontinuity with the consolidated social media streams of research of the marketing perspective. The cross-cultural lens provides a new view of analysis and opens new avenues for future research.

Key words: *social media engagement, cross-cultural management, China, Wechat, democracy.*

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Digital etnography and text mining: an intersectorial quali-quantitative method to leverage marketing and management studies

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Objectives. *Digital ethnography and text mining*

In recent years qualitative research in the social sciences has tapped into new opportunities triggered by the explosion of technology-mediated social interaction. This is clearly reflected in emergence of new methodologies that allow qualitative researchers to access information without physical and temporal constraints (Masten and Plowman, 2003). Indeed, digital technologies have the potential to transform traditional processes for collecting and analysing data, particularly in the context of ethnographically-inspired research (Dicks et. al, 2005). A variety of terms have been used to characterize this trend, including digital ethnography (Murthy, 2008), virtual ethnography (Domínguez et al., 2007), online ethnography (Catterall and Maclaren, 2002), cyberethnography (Rybas and Gajjala, 2007) and netnography (Kozinets, 2002). However, the common thread that links all of them the 'rethinking' of conventional ethnographic principles and methods for IT-mediated research contexts.

The digital approach to ethnography has seen fruitful application in the field of market research to gain insights into consumer behaviours and attitudes, with particular reference to Internet communities. An important strand of research in this area is reflected in the work of Kozinets (2002, 2006, 2010) who first coined the term 'netnography' (i.e., ethnography on the Internet) to describe a qualitative research methodology that adapts ethnographic concepts and techniques to study consumer behaviours that emerge from the texts they produce during online interactions. More specifically, netnography may be seen as an instrument to understand "tastes, desires, relevant symbol systems, and decision-making influences of particular consumers and consumer groups" (Kozinets 2002, p. 61). In contrast to traditional ethnography where data is collected during face-to-face encounters, netnography makes use of the computer-mediated discourse produced by participants during virtual interactions. As instances of spontaneous communication, such interactions are not contrived for the purpose of observation by external parties and can thus be considered naturalistic (Rheingold, 2000). As a consequence, they are well suited to a less obtrusive form of data collection such as netnography. In addition, the netnographic approach significantly reduces time and cost factors involved in collecting data with traditional ethnographic methods. At the same time, it greatly expands the researcher-observer's access to potential participants (Kozinets, 2006).

Following Kozinets' (2002) pioneering study of the meanings, symbolisms and consumption patterns of an online newsgroup of coffee consumers and connoisseurs, other researchers have applied netnography to investigate diverse interactional contexts where communities of consumers converge to discuss issues of common interest. This type of research provides important information about consumer preferences and behaviours and especially how they may change over time. Marketers can then use this input to appropriately position products and establish effective branding strategies. Netnography has been used to analyse attitudes and behaviours in online consumer communities in a variety of different settings, including food culture (de Valck, 2005), open source community products (Hemetsberger and Reinhardt, 2006), luxury watches (Broillet and Dubosson, 2008), fashion (Kretz and de Valck, 2010¸ Xun and Reynolds 2010) and the Napster online music store (Giesler, 2006). Moreover, as an unobtrusive technique, netnography has allowed access to communities that are often problematic due to the sensitive nature of the interaction. For example, Langer and Beckman (2005) carried out a netnographically-inspired analysis of an Internet message board community dedicated to consumers' experiences with cosmetic surgery.

As a form of qualitative research, the adaptation of ethnography to digital platforms entails important ethical considerations involving the covert vs. overt nature of the research, as well as the passive vs. active observation of participants (Murthy 2008). To what extent should digital ethnographers be 'visible' to online communities? Should the researcher act as a passive observer of the online community or actively participate within it? These are questions that are still being debated within the qualitative research community. Interestingly, Kozinets (2002, p. 65) affirms that "netnographers are professional 'lurkers': the uniquely unobtrusive nature of the method is the source of much of its attractiveness and its contentiousness". While some scholars recommend active participation of the researcher in the

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online community, full disclosure of researcher presence, obligation to obtain informed consent and member checks of research findings (Kozinets, 2002, 2006; Schrum 1995), others prefer a more covert approach. For example, Langer and Beckman (2005) maintain that covert online research is legitimate and ethical, particularly when using data that can be classified as public communication which is freely accessible without registration or passwords, and thus knowingly rendered public by the online participants. In addition, the passive observation of online communities guarantees the unobtrusiveness of the research. Indeed, active participation of researchers can be perceived by the online community as intrusive, and thus become a hindrance (cf. Hudson and Bruckman 2004). The decision to adopt a more or less overt approach to digital ethnography will likely be impacted by the research aims. If the objective is an in-depth understanding of the overall culture, beliefs and values of a particular community of consumers, then an active approach may be desirable. If instead the objective is to gain insights into particular sensitive issues or specific product-related perceptions, then a passive approach may be appropriate, although care should always be taken to protect the identities of participants.

While data mining refers to the extraction knowledge from databases that contain various types of information (e.g., numerical, multimedial, hypertextual), text mining - also known as text data mining (Hearst, 1999) - instead focuses on extracting and elaborating information from strictly textual sources (Witten, 2005). Text mining is closely linked to the relatively new fields of natural language processing (NLP) and computational linguistics which develop and implement computer software programs for the purpose of generating, analysing and manipulating electronically-stored texts. These processes have led to numerous applications that are commonly used today by vast numbers of people, including machine translation, speech recognition and automatic summarization.

As with data mining, the distinctive feature of text mining is the capacity to extract new and previously unknown information from textual data, thus offering far more than simple information retrieval (Hearst, 1999). To achieve this, metadata (i.e., data about data) is automatically inserted into text files, often in the form of tags that label items according to specific criteria, such as part-of-speech category, thematic area or semantic domain. This makes it possible to reveal trends and patterning across textual data that could not otherwise be discovered, particularly when dealing with relatively large amounts of text. Examples of text mining are becoming increasingly visible on websites, for example tag or word clouds that provide a visual summary of the thematic content of web texts, or graphical visualizations of the news cycle of given topic over time produced by meme-tracking software.

Market researchers have begun to show interest in the potential of text mining to shed new light on consumer behaviours and perceptions. With reference to trend forecasting, Rickman and Cosenza (2007) discuss the use of text mining tools to track 'buzz' in fashion weblogs (i.e. by extracting key words and phrases), which can help marketers understand changing dynamics in the fast-paced fashion industry. Similarly, text mining was used by Chen (2009) to analyse an online complaint forum in order to determine what consumers perceived as key issues and reasons for dissatisfaction. Crawford Camiciottoli, Guercini and Ranfagni (2012) used text mining to generate word clouds of semantic domains found in fashion blogs, which were then used to identify brand associations among fashion consumers. Text mining has recently been used in the context of sentiment analysis, using consumer review websites as sources of data. Lee and Bradlow (2011) exploited automatic Pro and Con lists to analyse favourable vs. unfavourable assessments of the attributes of digital cameras for purposes of market structure analysis. In a study of consumer reviews of electronic products, Archak, Ghose and Ipeirotis (2007, p. 56) were able to "extract actionable business intelligence from the data and better understand the consumer preferences and actions" through the systematic identification of words that expressed the level of satisfaction of selected product features. Similarly, by extracting co-occurring mentions of brands and adjectives that consumers used to describe sentiments, Feldman et al. (2008) studied consumer preferences to gain a better understanding of the car market.

Methodology. *Establishing a dialogue between research methods to investigate marketing and managerial issues*

Previous research that has utilized techniques derived from digital ethnography and from text mining has suggested that both can be used in concomitance with other methodologies. From the qualitative perspective, Kozinets (2010) suggests that netnography is complementary with other methods such as surveys, interviews and focus groups, which could provide additional input about the perceptions of online communities that would further illuminate findings. From the quantitative perspective, Lee and Bradlow (2011) recommend text mining not only as an instrument to discover new product attributes, but also to complement existing methods of market structure analysis, such as expert buying guides, user surveys and proprietary market research reports.

We continue in this direction by proposing a 'dialogue' between digital ethnography and text mining as two radically different research methodologies that are not mutually exclusive and can be used in a complementary way.

In particular, the two methods can be combined to effectively investigate several research issues in marketing and managerial contexts. From a marketing perspective relevant applications can be seen in recent works based on the analysis of virtual context with particular attention to online communities of consumers. More specifically, perceptions of brand associations can be systematically identified by analysing the language that is used during virtual interactions. This type of analysis would first implement techniques from netnography to observe an online community through the texts its members produce, collect data and code information to identify and classify potential brand associations, adopting a covert approach. Then text mining procedures could be implemented not only to corroborate the classifications (through automated semantic analysis), but also to extract additional information on how these brand associations are perceived (through automated descriptor analysis). The results should then be interpreted by re-contextualizing them within the online community of reference. This dialogic back-and-forth between methods of qualitative digital ethnography and quantitative text mining can clearly offer new insights into brand associations that *could not otherwise be achieved. In addition, this integrated methodology can provide managers with an accessible instrument useful for analysing and identifying favourable brand associations and for redefining branding strategies.*

Similar applications of the two methods can be represented by all the studies using UGC (User generated content) as textual data to measure marketing and managerial research hypotheses. Most of them are prevalently focused on exploring online brand communities and brand experiences (Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou, 2013), customer engagement in virtual settings (Baldus et al., 2015), and on online brand loyalty (Kwon and Lennon, 2009). UGC has been explored for understanding the impact its production can generate on company performance. In this regard, Archak et al. (2011) verify whether the textual information embedded by UGC can have an impact on product sales. Tirunillai and Tellis (2012) show how magnitude, sentiment, and star ratings of product reviews can forecast firms' stock performance. Ghose et al. (2012) mine product reviews from social media and even include them in crowdsourcing methods to estimate demand for hotels. Christensen et al. (2017) demonstrate how customer reviews emerging from online communities can also be used in finding out ideas and fostering innovation. Currently standing out among the studies that investigate consumer brand perception through UCG, are those of Lee and Bradlow (2011) and Netzer et al. (2012). They employ UGC to explore consumers' perceptions as a basis underlying a market structure and its internal relationships. Lee and Bradlow (2011) do this by collecting the perceived product attributes from online discussions; Netzer et al. (2012) do the same also by exploring the similarity between products through their co-mention associations. Both these studies use clustering and semantic network techniques of co-occurrences extracted from the UGC through text-mining analysis, and both base their analysis on listening to the single voice of the consumer. A further step forward comes from recent studies by Ranfagni et al. (2016), and Berni et al. (2020) that go beyond this single voice, comparing consumer brand perception from UGC with company brand communication from FCC- Firm Created Content. Ranfagni et al. (2016) explore communicated and perceived fashion brand personalities by processing textual data through text-mining techniques, whereas Berni et al. (2020) compare company vs. consumer brand associations of a luxury fashion brand, combining text-mining with multivariate statistical methods and semantic tools. Other studies measure brand image and brand identity matching by proposing an analytical approach which, integrates netnography and text-mining and is applied to the food and beverage context where brand alignment analysis can play a strategic role (Ranfagni et al., 2021).

Research limits. *The application of this method requires a strong integration between language skills and managerial skills. The interpretation of the consumer language used in textual data can lead to errors in understanding the meanings expressed by consumers. Moreover today it is increasingly normal for most current consumers to have parallel experiences in the online and offline market. The described methodology provides insight based on the virtual world but further developments need to be explored to be able to match virtual and real market to find more valuable insights.*

Practical implications. *The integrated research methodology has important managerial implications. It represents a structured process that investigates marketing and managerial issues exploiting information on an online context, without directly involving the consumer or using complex mathematical and statistical techniques (Roedder John et al. 2006). In other words, it provides managers with a more accessible method of marketing and managerial investigations.*

At the same time, the quantitative and qualitative dimensions of our approach can be articulated into different levels of complexity. This allows managers to choose the desired degree of depth for analyzing the relevant phenomena. A first level of analysis can be related to a deeper understanding of the consumer behaviour while a second level can rely on a competitive analysis through cross-brand comparisons of consumer behaviour. It therefore becomes valuable tool for an intelligent analysis of competition. The methodology can also acquire greater prescriptive and normative value for a company if the analysis is combined with indicators of business performance (e.g., sales, profitability, market share). This would delineate a system of interactions between these indicators and textual data that could direct marketing and managerial strategies. Companies could also benefit from integrating our approach with other more traditional qualitative and quantitative research methodologies (e.g., focus groups, in-depth interviews, face-to-face interviews).

The methodology applied to this study can be easily transferred to other research domains. More specifically, it can be useful for enterprises that are consolidating their processes of internationalization in different foreign markets, especially when deciding whether to adapt or propose the same brand for different markets. It would lead to a better understanding of the cultural dimension of consumer brand knowledge. Moreover, it could be used in managerial studies as it can provide market information that could be useful to identify entrepreneurial opportunities, drive entrepreneurial decision-making processes and support in the development of e-commerce business.

Originality of the study. *Qualitative research is generally defined in terms of understanding the "meaning of behaviour: understanding why individuals and groups think and behave the way they do lies at the heart of qualitative research" (Keegan 2009, p.11). From our research we see that qualitative research in recent years has more and more become almost synonymous with the word "insight": its aim is to gain insight in human behaviour. It derives its complexity and its strong interdisciplinary. Qualitative research is more and more the result of a combination of different disciplines and an integrated quantitative approach is nowadays needed and possible thanks to the new communications technologies. In our approach we demonstrate how qualitative and quantitative research can provide very powerful tools of investigation for researchers and practitioners.*

Key words: n*etnography; text-mining; qualitative and quantitative research;*

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Effective modular solutions in the goods and services continuum

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Objectives. *The integration of material artefacts with services is at the core of all activities that make a product ready to produce utility. This has been achieved by a mobile border line between manufacturers, specialized service providers and the final user (i.e., an end or intermediate consumer). With industrialization, the replicable components of use were embedded in material artefact, whose production enjoyed large economies of scale. The non-replicable components were whereas left either to low productive service providers, whence the "Baumol disease" (Baumol, 1967), or to consumers (thus disappearing from the value-added accounting).*

At the end of the last century scholars conceptualized servitization and envisaged a new drawing line in the "usability" process. As a consequence of the information technology revolution, part of usability services became replicable, opening the way to "industrialization of services" by specialized producers of information artefacts (Rullani, 1988), or were designed as add-ons of the material artefact.

This downstream extension of the "product", seemed to offer new opportunities to manufacturers to capture important shares of value added, previously left to service providers, or hidden in consumers' self-handling. Conquering new shares of value added by downstream extension to services appeared as an emerging trend of competition between manufacturers.

Despite the growing efforts of manufacturers to implement servitization strategies, many authors highlighted that taking advantage of these strategies is not a trivial process and many manufacturing firms fail providing service innovations (Benedettini et al., 2015). Especially because of the knowledge intensive content of advanced services, it is not clear when manufacturers have the capabilities to internalize the potential benefits of PSS and innovate on them (Visnjic et al., 2016; Baines et al., 2017; Bustinza et al., 2019). Sustainable servitization strategies require indeed a planned combination of different capabilities, related to both production and service delivering, and this is inevitably a barrier for many firms (Gebauer et al., 2005; Biege et al., 2012).

Traditionally, servitization focuses on downstream extension of original equipment manufacturers (OEM) that add usability services to material artefacts. Manufacturers adopting integrated solutions try to internally develop new service-oriented capabilities, or acquire externally service-related knowledge, asking for complex business solutions (Crozet and Milet, 2017; Visnjic et al., 2016). Only recently, Rajala et al. (2019) have put servitization on a new frame, suggesting modularity as the proper theoretical concept for servitization. Within this new lens, the same servitization paradox can be better understood and, in some cases, overcame (Kohtamäki et al., 2020). By applying modularity, at the core of servitization there is a platform that helps accomplish users' needs through a flexible coupling of product and service components. Modularization might enable different organizational units, external or internal to the manufacturer, to develop specialized capabilities related to either the tangible products or the intangible services. These specialized capabilities foster PSS innovations and ambidextrous performance through learning processes of exploration and exploitation (Rajala et al., 2019).

Although the growing interest on service modularity (Voss and Hsuan, 2009; Rahikka et al., 2011; Bask et al., 2011), studies offering a framework mapping the different modular solutions in the heterogeneous servitization context remain scant. This paper aims to shed light on this open research question by providing a conceptual elaboration exploring the different typologies of PSS through the modularity lens. Specifically, the paper investigates how modularity is designed, implemented, and managed in different PSS architectures. The goal is here to guide researchers and practitioners in the developing of a roadmap for entering servitization trajectories, making clear the complexity of PSS and the different role played by static and dynamic transaction costs.

Methodology. *By combining servitization literature with research exploring modularity of products and services, the paper proposes a comprehensive framework classifying firm's opportunities for implementing integrated, close or open modular PSS architectures. Specifically, after a short review of servitization literature, the paper differentiates the set of services making PSS extremely heterogeneous. The different PSS components, both product and services oriented, can be indeed variously integrated. Reading PSS though the modularity lens is not a trivial task and by exploiting literature dealing with both product and service modularity, we offer a scheme able to specify de-coupled interfaces between product modules, service modules, and between product and service modules as well. Exploiting this scheme*

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*and the PSS classification, transaction costs theory is applied to identify optimal modular PSS architectures, by looking at both static and dynamic transaction costs. Moving from the integration perspective to the modular perspective, the organizational issue must be re-framed too. In the perspective of integration, the main organizational problem resembles the "make-*or*-buy" alternative. Taking a modularity approach, the debate moves around the "mirroring hypothesis", i.e., the hypothesis that product decomposability is mirrored by nearly independent organizational units, which internally exchange the information needed for module production. Here, external ex-post coordination between different PSS components is substituted by ex- ante defined architectural rules. The substitution of ex- post with ex- ante coordination tools, at the roots of the mirroring hypothesis, has been discussed on empirical ground for assessing feasibility of both service and product architectures (Argyres and Bigelow, 2010; Avlonitis and Hsuan, 2017), leaving room to a contingent view of the relationship between product and organizational design (Cabisogiu and Camuffo, 2012; Furlan et al., 2014).*

The case of PSS opens the debate to further dimensions. Once the architectural rules are adopted, the issue of independency of organizational units dedicated to self-contained product or service components combines with two other relevant issues: who leads the architectural design and to what degree to open the design rules. The latter research question is strictly linked to the previously mentioned question of the independency of modular development.

We will consider the specificity of modular PSS with respect to those three issues (i.e., the organizational design, the architectural leadership, and the degree of openness), having in mind, respectively, three theoretical frames: transaction cost economics (Williamson, 1985; Baker et al., 2002); the economy of platforms and double side markets (Evans et al., 2006, Evans and Schmalensee, 2007); and dynamic transaction costs (Langlois, 1992). Next subsection will provide a theoretical framework on the definition of the organization design and the leadership defining the PSS architecture. The second subsection will explore factors at the core of the third issue.

Findings. *This paper claims that: a. advanced PSS rest on platforms that modularly integrates products and services; b. the PSS platform design can be either service or product driven: a service platform integrates modular products, while a physical platform integrates modular services. Platform leadership is taken by the manufacturer or the service provider according to the nature of specific investments needed for its development, in line with transaction cost economics c. there is not a unique organizational solution for the servitization platform developer to enrich the PSS architecture with modules. Assuming a dynamic perspective, the choice depends on a trade-off between learning and the competitive rush to establish the PSS platform.*

A broad variety of options in terms of openness of the standards is possible, allowing different degrees of integration between the PSS modules. The architectural components of a PSS modular systems share features of platforms and two side markets. The value of the platform depends on the development of modules that extend the range and variety of value proposition; on the other side, by augmenting the value, the widened consumption base increases the opportunities for module extension and modular upgrading.

Enjoying double side sources of value, and indirect network economies, a modular architecture for PSS enjoys the advantages of an open architecture. By opening the system, modular development can be speeded, and new investors have incentives to plow in new add-ons or innovate the existing ones by modular upgrading. A virtuous circle can nurture the platform establishment, that can take advantage of the openness of Systemic Interfaces, either product or service cantered. The consequence of openness is however to freeze architectural standards, constraining the technological development of modules in a strict path of dependency on the technology that drove architectural choices. This is particularly true if architectural standards are embedded in the material artefact, making the architectural upgrading strictly dependent of the availability of goods. Fast establishment of platforms for PSS relate to strategies of openness, but this benefit must be then traded-off with learning activities. In the process of establishment of a PSS, firms acquire knowledge on technology potential and customers' needs. To take advantage of the emerging knowledge, architectural choices might require adjustments, as well as new interfaces with modules. Learning can also spill-over to competitors that can offer new solutions of PSS, threatening the value of the entire modular system. The risk of losing value might decrease the interest of modules producers to join a PSS and impair the speed of the instalment of an open platform. In this regard, Davies et al. (2007), exploring firms of the defensive industry moving from manufacturing to service, have observed that a servitization trajectory might increase interactions outside of modules at a faster rate than those inside. This dynamic supports the idea that servitization can be characterized, at least at an upper level of the interfaces, by high synergistic specificity making modularity a complex phenomenon.

The trade-off between learning and speed of platform establishment is more evident if the process is leaded by manufacturing firms. In order to go through a deep servitization transformation, they need to change their business into a service centric organization. This is judged a high-risk strategy, especially when firms lack in-house technological knowledge (Benedettini et al., 2017).

In order to mitigate the trade-off, a tighter relationship and intense information exchanges between the architecture leader and module producers are needed. This opens the way to a range of solutions, going from open architecture enriched by tight information flows and collaborative relations between the platform leader and the module producers, to the licence of closed systems, joint venture, or full ownership (Eisenmann, 2008).

On one side, open PSS architectures allowing collaborations can mitigate the risk (Bigdeli et al., 2018) and enhance innovation outcomes by sharing knowledge (Bustinza et al., 2019). On the other side, manufacturers developing advanced PSS in-house, by implementing close modular systems, might increase their absorptive capacity by internalizing key knowledge and competences and also capture first-mover advantages, showing a steeper learning curve. In this regard, manufacturers might enter servitization trajectories by enlarging the opportunities for innovation *over time. Porter and Heppelmann (2014) suggest indeed that making build-versus-buy choices, manufacturers should internalize those technology related knowledge and competences able to trigger the greatest opportunities for product insight, future innovation, and competitive advantage, and outsource those that will become commoditized.*

Research limits. *Although the framework provides a novel contribution to the emerging PSS literature, the study covers just a little part of the complex literature of product and service modularization. As recalled above modular PSS architectures are not just the sum of product architectures and service architectures. The multi-level structure of de-coupled interfaces and subsystems of modules characterizing PSS open up several static and dynamical aspects asking for deep theoretical and empirical analysis. In this regard, the paper offers a general perspective, avoiding however further explorations of the several opened issues.*

Accordingly, these limitations provide a starting point for future research. First, this general elaboration identifying the main structures of modular PSS architectures might allow to go further in the theoretical exploration of modular PSS architecture by integrating the incomplete contracting and property rights literature, which assess ex post efficiency and distortions in ex ante investments (Hart and Moore, 2007). Moreover, by choosing cases at a different stage of servitization, the proposed modular strategies can be explored. Another important point refers to the role played by leadership in the delivery of PSS as modular solutions. In future researchers will be interesting to apply the proposed scheme in the assessment of servitization through a multi case study design characterized by a supply chain focus.

Practical implications. *The implementation of servitization strategies seems to be at the core of the global competition. However, as described by the servitization paradox, several risks are at the core of such manufacturing strategies. Therefore, firms facing the risks of offering PSS can enter deservitization trajectories moving back or abandoning service business. Moreover, these failures can be so significant that other firms might prefer to avoid such risks by not offering PSS at all.*

The paper, in this preliminary version, tries to guide researchers and practitioners in the developing of a roadmap for entering servitization trajectories, making clear the complexity of PSS and the different role played by static and dynamic transaction costs. The framework, after exploring modularity as a possible solution for mitigating the complexity of servitization strategies, explores feasible organizational solutions by looking at the heterogenous set of PSS. Literature recognizes PSS as a heterogeneous set of customer solutions, but there is not a scheme for managers, and responsible for developing and operating PSS, describing difficulties and risks through a generic servitization trajectory. Scholars mainly offer indeed pictures of integrated PSS explored as independent and, in some cases, homogenous customer solutions.

Today literature makes clear that services are not a homogeneous set of intangible artefacts (Pina and Tether, 2016) and the type of coupling between the material and intangible artefacts in the good and service continuum is dramatically enlarging (Baines and Lightfoot, 2013; Cusumano et al., 2015). The different content of product related services, and the corresponding new forms of industrial competition, have been described as coupling between material and intangible artefacts, that define a sort of trajectory of increasing complexity of service and product combinations. In some cases, this coupling results in more complex PSS, where the advancement of related services asks to manufacturers for more sophisticated organizational strategies. In this regard, the described and typified modular PSS architectures can offer to manufacturers a general view to successfully enter servitization trajectories. Only the implementation of servitization strategies by focusing on the peculiarity of each PSS and the adjustment of specific organization of production might indeed foster efficiency, profitability, and sustainable innovation. Assessing benefits and hazard of different types of modular designs in relation to the heterogeneous set of PSS, the framework provides a roadmap for entering servitization trajectories by minimizing risks.

Originality of the study. *The paper opens the Pandora's box of modularity in servitization trajectories. The implementation of servitization strategies is a phenomenon that can no longer be investigated only as an integrated business strategy and its extent goes further the boundaries of the firm. Recent literature has indeed identified modularity as an organizational solution allowing overcoming the servitization paradox (Kohtamäki et al., 2020).*

The study, that is a work-in progress, starts proposing a scheme assessing the multi-level PSS decomposition. Focusing on what we call the Systemic Interfaces, two main issues dominate the exploration: the leadership of the architectural design and the degree of openness of the related design rules. The transaction costs argument in the decision of leading the architectural development highlights the role of ex post sharing the value of the PSS on the decisions to invest in Systemic Interfaces. By contrast, choices on openness and related organizational design are driven by the necessity to co-ordinate systemic and modular evolution during the process of learning. Co-ordination is in essence a matter of information exchange (Puranam, 2018). Information exchange comprises what Carliss Baldwin (2008) calls "mundane transaction costs" (costs of the definition of a transaction) as well as the "dynamic transaction costs", in the meaning of Langlois and Robertson (1995). These authors see firm's boundaries as defined, in the short run, by a set of assets "that are synergistic and idiosyncratically related to each other", while in the long run "the spread of knowledge should lead to a tendency towards the generalized spread of capabilities that both breaks down idiosyncrasy and reduces transaction costs" (Langlois and Robertson, 1995: 42-43). A modular design can help overcome the short-term costs, as long as the knowledge embedded in the system architecture is consolidated, and the knowledge needed to modular extension and upgrade is limited to the interfaces. However, "systemic innovation would be more difficult in a modular system, and even undesirable to the extent that it destroyed compatibility across components" (Langlois and Robertson, 1995:75). To preserve compatibility during the learning processes, *organizational solutions helping intense information sharing (closed systems, whose growth is fostered by license, joint venture, or corporate growth with full ownership) might be preferred.*

Key words: *Servitization, Modularity, Servitization Paradox, External PSS, Integrated PSS*

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Redefining risk management practices: functional and holistic approaches

VILMA NASTECKIENĖ•

Objectives. *Although the concept of risk is a few millennia old, risk management has been rewarded with increased attention since the 2009 financial crisis, which uncovered the gaps and misconceptions in emerging risk management approaches (Palermo et al., 2017; Mikes & Kaplan 2013, Bromiley et al., 2015). The resounding failures in the financial sector provided a reason to revisit this topic, raising questions regarding how managers and risk management professionals perceive risk in an organization and how risk is managed in everyday organizational life.*

Many authors call for a broader perspective to be applied to risk (Kaplan & Mikes 2016; Power 2008; Power 2016; Bromiley et al. 2015). They argue that risk is to be conceptualized as a manageable object by regulating institutions, whereas in reality each organization constructs their own perception of risk (Mikes & Kaplan 2013; Maguire & Hardy, 2013; Bromiley et al., 2015; Palermo et al.2017). Risk perception drives risk management practices.

A new perspective in risk research is the distinction between the functional and holistic approaches. Some scholars, such as Arena et al. (2010), Kaplan and Mikes (2016), Bromiley et al. (2015) and others, call for a broader view to be applied to risk management, thus implying the existence of a narrow view as well. The narrow approach or, as Kaplan and Mikes (2016) call it, the calculative approach to risk management is henceforth referred to as the functional approach, while the broader approach is called the holistic approach.

Traditionally, empirical ERM research is built around ERM as a formalized framework and toolbox (Bromiley et al. 2014; Palermo et al. 2017). One of the possible reasons behind this is associated with the increased institutionalization of risk management within certain industry sectors, such as the financial services industry and health care. At the same time, there are a number of strong competitive companies that do not emphasize institutional scripts for risk management, but instead work on building management practices (Power, 2016) within their performance management, through which they presumably manage risks. Despite the holistic intention behind it, the implementation of ERM is often executed functionally, i.e., adopting the framework without integrating it into organizational culture, processes and management practices. Although risk research questions and challenges the functional limitations of ERM implementation, a holistic approach to risk management lacks connection with real-world phenomena in risk research.

The traditional functional approach puts the emphasis on tools and procedures while dissociating particularized risk management from organizational life and thus limiting the effectiveness of these applied practices and producing a growing number of controls and procedures. Although the functional approach is helpful in responding to known risks and applying standard practices, it is not enough when faced with emerging risks and uncertainties (Wardman & Mythen, 2016, Palermo et al., 2017, Ring et al., 2014). Therefore, the new holistic approach is used in this research.

Based on the above, I use the holistic apporoach to risk management and define risk management practices as repetitive management activities that are guided by formal procedures and/or implicit (informal) routines and through which organizational actors make sense of risk and respond to it (Power 2016, Kaplan & Mikes 2016; Palermo et al., 2017). Risk management practices are different in each organization and change in response to context and risk perception. Regulatory pressure to adopt standardized tools and demonstrate certain behaviors as "evidence" of risk management tend to increase the complexity of risk management practices (Palermo et al. 2017). Discursive work behind risk management practices, as suggested by Maguire and Hardy (2013), is sometimes retrospective and other times it happens in the present. Although the advent of ERM brought with it a more holistic approach to risk, the need for a deeper understanding of the everyday practices of risk management beyond quantitative models and the search for an integrated way of sharing responsibilities as "a part of the whole" combine to form an avenue for future research (Bednarek et al., 2019, Oliveira et al,. 2018). From the holistic point of view, risk management is a part of the managerial role and it is embedded in strategy planning and execution in order to reach objectives and ensure both resilience and stability in operational performance. In risk research, the understanding of risk management practices is fragmented and it lacks clarity as to what managers do to manage risks every day.

This research aims to contribute to a deeper understanding of risk management practices in organizations.

Methodology. *As stated by Voss, Tsikriktsis, & Frohlich (2002), the case study method is helpful for understanding what the current risk management practices are and how they are related. The strengths of the case study method,*

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according to Bebensat et al. (1987) and as indicated in Voss et al. (2002), allow us to answer the questions of why, what and how, despite the complexity of the phenomena, and to carry out an exploratory investigation with unknown variables and a lack of understanding about the phenomena.

From the qualitative research point of view, the case study method investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its "real-life context" (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016). Data collection methods include meeting observations as a primary source of data, followed by interviews to clarify risk perception, as well as the links and disconnects between the actual management practices and the formalized risk management procedures. Two sites were chosen for this research as polar cases (Eisenhardt 1989), using the presence of a formalized ERM framework as a polarization criterion.

I used the following methods for data collection:

- *Observation of management meetings to observe "naturally occurring talk" (Silverman, 2006). As a practitioner, I visited many management meetings and experienced management discussions and observed the information sharing within these. Management meetings, firstly, are a part of management activities; secondly, they are a place to be observed with limited researcher intervention in data generation (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016; Silverman 2006).*
- *Interviews with senior managers to clarify their perceptions of risk management and the reasons behind their behavior in the meetings.*
- *Analysis of formal risk management documentation.*

The data coding and analysis had to go through multiple cycles until a structured relationship emerged. My first coding iteration started with inductive/in-vivo coding of management meeting records. To identify management practices, I marked everything that managers do during the meeting or that they say they do. Using Gioia's method I grouped these activities, looking for similarities and repetitions in order to convert it into practices (2nd order codes), which were then clustered into practice groups, i.e., 3rd order codes (Gioia et al., 2013). Finally, I took a step back and thought about how groups of practices (3rd order codes) are related and what the similarities and differences in both companies might be. This step produced two different scenarios of risk management practices-functional and holistic.

Findings. *Based on the findings, two different scenarios of risk management practices exist in organizations, as presented in Figure 1. In scenario 1, risk management practices are a part of management practices and are interrelated with performance management. Scenario 2 is a reflection of the functional approach to risk as a manageable object and risk management practices are kept separate from performance management and organizational life. Further along I will explain both scenarios in more detail.*

Scenario 1

In-vivo coding yielded more than 300 activities that were related to how managers address risk in their companies. Although different wording was used, some activities, such as meeting regularly, planning, monitoring, etc., emerged as patterns. The identified repeating activities were clustered into 13 practices (2nd order codes). The identified practices emerged as belonging to four groups, namely, monitoring performance and potential risks; picking up signals; ensuring that someone is taking responsibility and following up the issue related to risk; and dealing with problems or failures. Risk management practices are related one to another, although risk management is not a linear process in organizational reality. Risk management practices connect the strategic and operational levels of management and are interrelated with performance management.

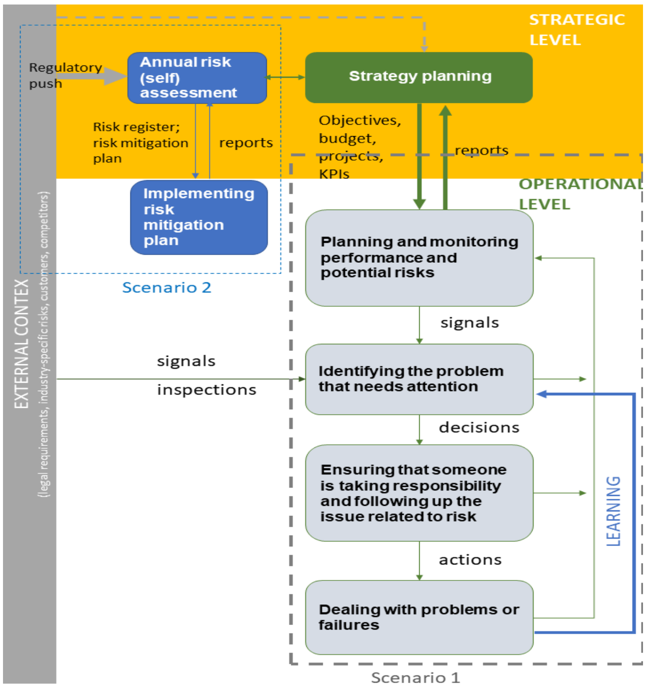
From a CEO perspective, strategic planning should incorporate the dimension of risk and risk mitigation measures should be integrated into the business plan and be given equal importance and appropriate attention from the Board- "Even the Board usually reviews risk reports electronically [...] Business plan is being discussed in a live meeting and for risks-just tell us what has changed."

From the strategic level, the main risks, objectives and key performance indicators are then transferred to the organization in the form of projects and operations for execution. "Strategy execution, as well as risk management, requires regular, systematic time allocation," concluded M14. Is there any upward risk-related communication apart from reporting? "Do not hide problems-escalate them and make decisions. The most important-keep away if you do not understand or do not believe you can execute the decision," M14 said, very straightforward in his expectations. "First of all, any mistake shall be recognized, consequences fixed, measures taken and followed up"-was how M15 highlighted the initial steps toward risk awareness and shared their experience of how, over time, risk management became connected to planning and daily management through transparent communication within the management team.

Setting strategic objectives and KPIs is an intersection point between planning and monitoring performance and identifying potential risks. Monitoring is understood as a systematic review of performance and results. Monitoring activities help managers identify any potential risks, risk events, or failures. It is important to notice that even a failure to deliver a result can become a signal of a potential risk, as the unresolved root cause of the problem can be a threat to future results. During the interviews, I asked the managers what they would do if they had no regular meetings with the management team. The managers distinguished two situations-when a signal or identified problem calls for action to be taken and when action is not needed. When action is needed, managers can initiate an individual meeting or email a colleague. "If only a few colleagues are concerned, I can walk and talk; however, email seems to be more appropriate to communicate [...] Emailing would be slower and less efficient-you don't know if everyone reads it. Live meetings and *communication are better to initiate actions" (M6); other managers commented that they save time when they communicate with their peers during the daily meeting. Regular meetings are important for sharing and discussing information as "sometimes we cannot even consider that it is important for more people" (M4). This daily or weekly routine is a vehicle through which the management team can monitor and review risks. From the analysis of the management meetings, it is obvious that managers are concerned about risks and uncertainties even if they do not specifically use the term "risk". When a manager meets with their team, they are able to pick up signals even if the employees do not identify a potential risk. There was one example in which a process owner (M12) halted an initiative to develop business opportunities due to having "achieved target for this year" and expressed huge concern regarding another product target ("opportunities are open but we close this door ourselves"). Following this direction, this utilitarian influence might seem quite obvious-managers detect any risks associated with their targets and stay out of things if they do not see a direct relationship; however, during this meeting, there were a few examples in which managers shared their experiences or challenged each other without getting anything in exchange or any remuneration for it.*

Monitoring reveals signals of potential risks; however, signals can come from the external context, i.e., from customers, from competitors or even in the form of warnings about changing legal requirements or as unstructured information from employees. Managers have a set of practices they use to identify whether or not signals are problems that need the management's attention. If the signal is recognized as significant, it is converted into a task or a problem that has to be solved. Managers can also decide to accept the risk without taking any corrective actions. In both cases, they have to ensure that someone is taking responsibility for executing the decision and ensuring it is followed up. After the solution is implemented, managers can follow up the outcome through monitoring activities. Ensuring that someone is taking responsibility for and following up the identified potential risk or dealing with a problem is critical to the continuity of the system. Sometimes there is no need to take immediate action regarding a potential risk: in this case, the risk management process returns to a state of monitoring. The same thing happens with real risk-after dealing with a problem, the manager responsible transfers the responsibility for the follow-up back to the monitoring function. Mitigating and preventive actions are decided on once they have collected data about the problem, thought about the impact in terms of losses, and considered the possible impact for other functions. At the operational level, companies use process management and LEAN tools for continuous improvement activities, represented by daily visual meetings and systematic problem-solving.

Fig. 1: Two scenarios of risk management practices in organizational life



Scenario 2

As a response to external requirements, one of the case companies has a group risk management policy, a risk register, and a risk mitigation plan. Following the creation of the group risk management policy, one year ago the company was asked to prepare a risk register. Risk workshops were organized to review risk register, assess and prioritize risks. Consequently, the risk mitigation plan was prepared and responsibilities were assigned. The status of the implementation of the risk management plan is reported quarterly. Tools were expected to help the management assess, report and transfer risk-related issues to the holding company; however, after the first year, there was some disappointment. "It is reporting only; risk register and risk management plan are living their own life". Despite having the risk review process aligned with the strategic planning process, risks are not highlighted in the strategic business *plan. Ironically, the business plan review gets noticeably more attention from the Board compared to the risk mitigation plan review carried out on a quarterly basis. "Nobody even thinks if risk register and KPIs are related," disclosed one CEO.*

This separation of risk management and performance management is artificial and not understood by the top management. "I do not understand this definition of risk-uncertainties are everywhere, at each step in any industry," commented M14 when the conversation turned to daily risk management and then went on to provide simple examples about broken machinery, missed deadlines and late information delivery. "When a decision is taken-everyone shall put all efforts to execute it as decided, be responsible and consistent," continued M14. Small details can have a huge impact on objectives. M14's underlying idea was that managers were not managing uncertainties but reacting to a change in context within their capabilities and the critical factor was to notice change on time. M15 elaborated on this view by explaining that it is important to be informed about a context that is changing in a way that might influence risk evaluation. Annual risk workshops are too slow to be helpful. The most surprising thing was that both scenarios are present in the same organization.

The relevant tools and degree of formalization are equally important. "When I saw this Excel sheet for the first time, I almost cried-it was so complicated and it was my responsibility to fill it in; thank God, only once a year," said M15 and "risk shall be real, not over-managed; plan for management of hypothetical risks is a waste," commented M14. When formal risk management procedures are disconnected from organizational life, these are disconnected from real risk management practices too.

Even if formal risk management procedures are aligned at the strategic level but remain detached from the operational level, they do not become risk management practices. Moreover, within management meetings, formal risk management procedures and tools did not gain attention from the management team, with the exception of the CEOs and one manager who is responsible for ERM in an organization.

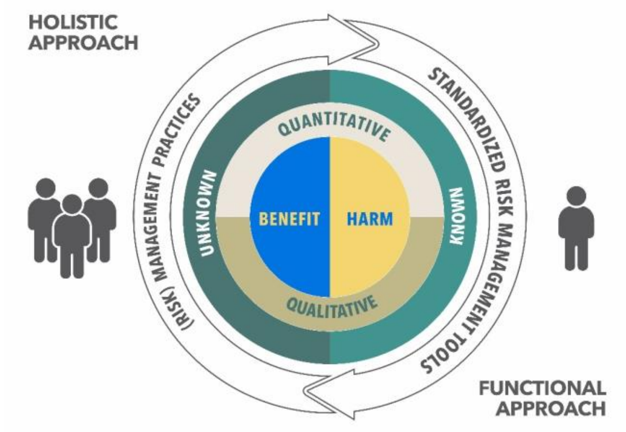
Two different scenarios of risk management co-exist in an organization-one formal scenario is driven by an external push and is perceived more as a compliance tool; another scenario is driven by the management's focus on the achievement of business objectives and performance management, and manifested through management practices.

Almost every interaction in a management team is related to information sharing, including, but not limited to, reporting and discussing indicators, KPIs, results, and the budget. Regular management meetings with a defined agenda helped the team to identify problems or notice failures. The signals shared by customers, processes and external parties become a warning of a possible risk event before the situation occurs. Target setting and assigning responsibilities, yet not formal policies or procedures, are the main drivers for bringing risk-related messages.

Taking the duality of harm and benefit, this study explains how the object of risk changes its meaning when considered in the area of strategic vs. operational level. Once identified, strategic risks turn into plans and projects and are not perceived as risks anymore. At operational level, plans and projects are executed in parallel with business operations. The same happens with risks in the risk register. After the risks are identified and prioritized, a risk mitigation plan is prepared. Risks "become" less harmful. The only difference is that business performance is monitored day-to-day while risks are fixed and static in the risk register. Furthermore, risks change over time as the context changes, and the conventional tools applied to known risks require continuous monitoring.

Contrary to the suggested viewpoint that the holistic approach shall replace the functional approach, the findings reveal that both approaches can co-exist together, as presented in Figure 2. Inner circle illustrates dualities of risk, namely harm and benefit, quantitative and qualitative, known and unknown. Regardless differences in risk perception, risk management practices often are beyond standardized risk management tools.

Fig. 2: Linking the functional and holistic approaches in organizations



The empirical data provided evidence on the risk management practices that are not dedicated solely to risk management. Moreover, risk management practices support strategy deployment only when connected to performance management at the operational level. A risk assessment carried out once a year is not valuable for managers. Business *objectives and targets, produced at strategic level, serve as an anchor to link risk management to the strategic management level through monitoring, and daily operational issues and regular performance reviews anchor risk management to the operational management level. The separation of risk management from performance management results in them becoming two parallel scenarios. The functional approach to risk management results in the detachment of risk management from organizational life.*

The functional approach is executed by delegating responsibility for managing the defined risk to the assigned organizational actor, who becomes, to a certain extent, a risk management professional. Consequently, different organizational actors might perceive risk differently. Moreover, this study suggests that delegating risk management can alter the perception of a risk object simply as being either harmful or beneficial so that it is seen as "not harmful" just because it has been included in the risk register or assigned to someone to take care of. Sensemaking is defined as explaining interactions and intersubjective relations, and it can be used in the development of risk management practices through involvement and cooperation. The holistic approach is exercised through interactive practices and it supports collaboration and the alignment of risk perception. Questioning the consequences of unresolved obstacles; taking time to understand the importance of a project to the entire organization and how it might help to achieve targets of the functional manager; and sharing common targets and organizational learning may be helpful in providing more meaning not only in recognizing risks but also in responding to them. The functional approach to risk management treats risk as a manageable object and clashes with efforts to integrate managers into enterprise-wide risk management. Conversely, the holistic approach accepts risk as a part of business and links risk and performance management. Instead of delegating responsibility to risk management professionals, as happens when using the functional approach, managers share responsibility within the management team and use interactive practices.

The findings of this study reveal that two different scenarios can simultaneously exist in the same company: first, risk can be embedded into the objectives at strategic level and connected to the operational level through monitoring performance, project implementation, and KPIs; and, second, responsibility for risk management can be delegated to a specific person and dealt with using conventional tools, such as a risk register and a risk mitigation plan.

Research limitations. *Further investigation is needed into the question of how managers integrate risk management and performance management if they do not meet regularly to plan and monitor performance and potential risks. There are contextual limitations on research validity: externally, there is no supervising institution for risk management (i.e., central banks in the financial services industry); internally, management teams have regular meetings on a weekly or daily basis. This research is limited to the practices of the senior management. The practice validity for middle level managers is also subject to further research.*

Practical implications. *A formalized risk management framework is a necessary tool for balancing collective preferences with individual risk-taking, leading to informed risk decisions, transparency and a consistent "tone at the top" regarding risk leadership and the attitude toward bad news and risk-related behaviors in general (Ring at al. 2016). From the holistic perspective, formal risk management procedures often separate risk from business objectives and organizations lose touch with strategic and operational managerial processes and overproduce the risk assessment.*

By approaching risk from a different-holistic-perspective, this paper enriches the problematization of risk integration and provides considerations on how to integrate risk management into an organization:

- *When adopting a risk management framework, the integration between performance and risk management must be ensured and clearly communicated.*
- *The risk management strategy and risk mitigation plan have to be integrated into business strategy planning and deployment not only at a strategic level but also at operational level. Risk management must be incorporated into the performance management agenda.*
- *An increasing level of uncertainty and a dynamic context require quick decisions and reactions, whereas complicated statistical calculations and a probabilistic risk assessment are rather slow and expensive; at operational level, the CEO and management team prefer a signal to an in-depth analysis. The business must add risk-related indicators ("signals") to performance reviews to be able to identify risk and decide on the response. Regular performance reviews and problem-solving practices should be considered a meaningful support or even a replacement for occasional risk workshops.*

Originality of the study. *This study brings a new perspective to the distinction between the functional and holistic approaches to risk. It is responding to the call of Power (2016), Arena et al. (2010), Kaplan and Mikes (2016), Bromiley et al. (2015) and others to apply a broader view to risk management. In this study, it is referred to as the holistic approach while the narrow view to risk management is referred to as the functional approach. This study confirms the viewpoint of Wardman & Mythen (2016), Palermo et al. (2016), Ring et al. (2014) that the functional approach can help in responding to known risks with standardized practices, but it is not enough simply to identify and respond to emerging risks. The findings suggest that the harmful and beneficial sides of risk might be decoupled in organizations. While the harmful side is related to compliance and clearly defined risks, the beneficial side of risk is connected to business plans and opportunities, in a similar manner as in the duality of risk and business defined by Bednarek et al. (2019), and is managed in two different scenarios.*

This research has extended the understanding of the functional and holistic approaches in risk research by offering evidence that the functional approach is used to respond to regulatory pressure to adopt a risk management system, whereas real "riskwork" is integrated into performance management. The concept of enterprise risk management (ERM) emerged in response to the need for total risk management; however, the functional approach limited the *integrity of this framework and promoted the localization and centralization of risk management within the organization (Bednarek et al, 2019, Bromiley et al 2016). The functional approach specifies risks and enables employees to apply standardized tools to manage it. The profession of risk management emerged as being overly focused on the risk itself and the risk management tools and it lost integration with management. The holistic intention behind enterprise risk management has been lost due to a lack of synergy between business and risk management. The functional approach is useful for specific and standardized risk management, whereas the holistic approach helps in managing uncertainties and emerging risks.*

The holistic approach to risk and risk management supports the assumption of an alternative direction for risk management's integration into an organization-starting with the alignment of risk perception at the management level and building up to a formalized risk management framework by integrating informal management practices to support the management instead of starting from risk management frameworks and tools that are detached from the organization's management and asking managers to make bold use of them (Kaplan and Mikes, 2016; Palermo et al, 2017).

These findings contribute to the conceptual analysis of Arena and Arnaboldi (2014) regarding the separation and integration of risk and performance management. Business objectives and targets, produced at strategic level, anchor risk management to the strategic management level through monitoring, and daily operational issues and regular performance reviews anchor risk management to the operational management level.

The functional approach is executed by delegating responsibility for managing the defined risk to an assigned organizational actor, who becomes, to a certain extent, a risk management professional. Consequently, different organizational actors might perceive risk differently. Sensemaking is explaining the interactions and intersubjective relations, and it can be used in the development of risk management practices through involvement and cooperation. The holistic approach is exercised through interactive practices and it supports collaboration and the alignment of risk perceptions. Questioning the consequences of unresolved obstacles; taking time to understand the importance of a project to the entire organization and how it can help achieve the targets of the function manager; sharing common targets; and organizational learning may all be helpful in providing more meaning not only in recognizing risks but also in responding to them.

Key words: *risk; risk management practices; holistic; functional*

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The impact of scattered organisational images on employee's well-being: the moderating role of organisational identification

ELENA TALAVERA ESCRIBANO* DANIEL DAUBER•

Objectives. *In the information era, the corporate image of an organisation is of great importance to a company as its serves as cultural expressions that reflect an underlying pattern of shared interpretive beliefs, assumptions, and values to employees (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006). The interplay between organisational image and organisational identification has been a topic extensively researched in organisational studies (Frandsen, 2012). Hatch and Schultz (2000) claim that when organisational image is congruent with the employees' organisational identity, this results in an organisational identification. This is because employees make sense of "who they are" and "how they are perceived by others" (Hatch and Schultz. 2000, p.23). However, when these projected images do not correspond with employees' perceptions of the organisation (a scattered image problem), it poses a threat to their own organisational identity (Dutton et al., 1994). In turn, a lack of organisational identification (OID) presents considerable consequences for both the employees (e.g., disengagement or underperformance) and their organisations (e.g., higher levels of turnover; Liberman, 2011; Riketta, 2005). However, besides its importance, no current research to my knowledge has examined how organisations' images may affect employee's OID.*

One of the consequences of scattered image problem is employees' health. Indeed, being exposed to idealized images on their organisation through different media means harms well-being because it leads to an ideal-real comparison (Fardouly and Holland, 2018; Gerson, 2015; Hunt, 2015). This comparison with highly idealized standards produces a lower self-evaluation, which can be harmful to the self-concept resulting in negative affect (Diener, 1984). Notably, well-being has become a priority for business and society in recent years as work affects well-being, and reciprocally, well-being has an impact on organisational success (Deloitte, 2017; Dewe and Cooper, 2012; Hone et al., 2015). Certainly, a healthy workforce relates to better employee performance (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005), greater effort on the job (Canaff and Wright, 2004; Day and Randell, 2014), a higher number of organisational citizenship behaviours (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Ford et al., 2011), stronger team cohesion and engagement (Bakker, 2015), lower turnover intentions as well as actual turnover rates (Boehm and Lyubomirsky, 2008) and lower absenteeism (Keyes and Grzywacz, 2005) among others. However, given the novelty of the field of scattered images that resulted from discrepancies between the perceived organisational image (OI) and projected organisational images (Qi and Cui, 2018), no study to my knowledge has tested whether they may have an impact on employee's OID and consequently, on their well-being. Thus, this study covers the aforementioned gaps in the literature and aim also offer practical implications for businesses on how to detect and intervene on communicative and identification misalignments to enhance workplace well-being.

Based on the contextual background provided above, the main objectives of this study were first, to study either scattered images problems affect employees' well-being, and secondly, if organisational identification mediates this relationship.

It is worth mentioning that an organisation can have more than one image, as this is a holistic representation of different traits that characterize its identity (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Ashforth and Mael, 1996). Therefore, for this study we will focus on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) facets of an OI. This is because in recent years, there has been a growing importance on CSR communication (Del Bosco, 2017; Go and Bortree, 2017; Lee, 2016; Testarmata et al., 2018). Moreover, current organisations consider SMC an important tool used to communicate CSR initiatives and interventions (Kent and Taylor, 2016; Stohl et al., 2017; Tench and Jones, 2015).

Therefore, in this study we have established two main hypothesis that are developed below.

First, we will briefly develop the theoretical framework that underlines this study is mostly based on the Social Identity Theory (SIT; Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Brammer et al. (2014) note two mechanisms which explain why an organisation's CSR image leads to stronger OID among employees. On the one hand, it enhances a sense of belonging that employees feel within companies that exhibit values that they share (Brammer et al., 2014). Considerable empirical evidence suggests that employees identify with a socially responsible organisation when their values correspond with promoted CSR practises (Jones et al., 2014; Heldrich et al., 2012; Strand et al., 1981). This

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phenomenon draws in the Social Identity Theory (SIT) that suggests that circumstances in which employees perceive that their values closely mirror those of their organisation tend to reinforce their self-concept and encourage them to identify more strongly with the organisation (Dutton et al., 1994; Hogg and Abrams, 1993; Hogg and Terry, 2000). Hence, we expect that a stronger relationship between experienced and valued CSR practices would lead to higher OID.

A second mechanism arises from prior research that claims CSR influences employees' attitudes and behaviours only to the extent they perceive and evaluate it (Barnett, 2007; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Rupp et al., 2006). Bauman and Skitka (2012) argue that CSR leads to stronger OID among employees by promoting an attractive OI and provoking employees' desire to affiliate with it, its values and engendering a sense of belongingness (Bauman and Skitka, 2012). This is explained by the Self-Categorization Theory (SCT) that posits individuals have a strong basic need to identify with a social group that has a positive image, which may help them to enhance their own self-concept (Tajfel and Turner, 1985) and their own self-esteem (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Pratt, 1998). In this study, we consider that employee's evaluation of their OI is the result of the alignment between their perception of CSR attributes and their own values towards these practises. In this sense, holding a positive image of the organisation will increase employees' desire to identify and associate with the organisation. Therefore, we predict that:

H1: Low levels in perceived OI discrepancy (the gap between CSR organisational experienced practises and employee's values attached to these practises) leads to higher OID.

On the other hand, to study the relationship between this organisational image and organisational identification on well-being, this study adopts a transitional approach and we rely on a new paradigm named Integrated Social Identity Model of Stress (Keser, 2017) founded on the SIT assumptions (Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel and Turner, 1986) as well Lazarus and Folkman's Stress and Coping theory (1984). This theory claims that the social context and group identification is a "crucial missing link to understanding the stress process" (Keser, 2017, p. 148). The social identity informs the individual whether a stressor is perceived as threatening (primary appraisal) and whether the individual believes he can cope (secondary appraisal) (Haslam et al., 2009; Haslam, 2012). Therefore, an individual would feel threatened if not being identified with a group as one needs psychological safety, a sense of belonging, self-worth, pleasure, meaning, purpose, direction, learning and achievement (Baumeister, 1986; Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Pratt, 1998, 2001). On the other hand, a sense of shared identity lead individuals toward favourable beliefs about coping capacity or secondary appraisals (Haslam and van Dick, 2011).

Given the fact that perceived stressed has been conceptualized as a multifactor construct consisting of perceived helplessness (PHS) and perceived self-efficacy (PSES) (Hewitt et al., 1992), we introduce these two concepts in the Integrated Social Identity Model of Stress (Keser, 2017). "Perceived helplessness" is a psychological, physiological, and sociological state that occurs when an individual perceived that a significant event is uncontrollable and independent of his or her behaviours (Collins, 1967; Seligman, 1975). On the other hand, "perceived self-efficacy" has been defined as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce effects (Bandura, 1994, p. 1)". Therefore, we hold that PHS will also act as a first appraisal or stressor if the employee does not identify with the portrayed images that the organisation publishes about the company. Seligman (1975) claim that not having shared perception of social identity lead individuals to experiment a sense of desperation and helplessness. Secondly, PSES would act as a second appraisal or coping strategy if the employee perceives a sense of belonginess and identification with the company and feels he or she has some influence over this. As Guan and So (2016, p. 1) note "individuals who have stronger social identity with a given social group perceived greater social support from the group, which in turn predict higher self-efficacy".

Anxiety is my second dependent variable. Anxiety is a common psychological condition which acts as a protective factor against threatening situations, such as scattered images (Cole, 2014). However, prolonged anxiety might result in psychological distress affecting an individual's everyday functioning (Seligman et al., 2001). According to these authors anxiety is a psychological and physiological state characterized by cognitive, somatic, emotional and behavioural components. For my study, we focus on Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD) which is characterised by symptoms such as feelings of worry and apprehension, feeling constantly on edge, feelings of impending doom and physical sensations such as heart palpitations, sweating hands and nausea (APA, 2013). Yet, Hirsch et al. (2013) found that GAD is more strongly correlated with trait anxiety (i.e., individual differences related to a tendency to present state anxiety) than state anxiety (i.e., psychological and physiological reactions). Individuals with high trait anxiety have a dispositional tendency to overestimate the potential for harm in response to threat-related and ambiguous situations (i.e., scattered images) (Spielberger et al., 1983). Similarly, individuals with high stress perception tend to appraise events as more stressful (Mundy et al., 2015). Thus, both high trait anxiety and high perceived stress will result in sustained symptoms of anxiety, including hypervigilance, apprehension, and hyperarousal (Chambers et al., 2004; Connor et al., 2007). Therefore, we predict that:

H2: Organisational identification moderates the relationship between employees' perception on organisational image and workplace related well-being.

Methodology. *The methodology of this study is based on a cross-sectional study of quantitative nature. Data collection was performed through an online questionnaire built in the platform Qualtrics and it was available in English, Spanish and French. Both the research design and data collection procedures were developed following the requirement of the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee at the University of Warwick. A brief introduction to the study, instructions and data treatment information was provided to the participant. Then these had to give their expressed consent before commencing the survey. Data was collected from March to April 2020. These* *months were impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic. As a result, we had to adjust my sampling techniques. At first, this study was aimed to be done in a Spanish engineering company but due to the pandemic, Spain banned any non-essential activity and therefore, the company had to close. Consequently, we decided to personally contact different professionals who were currently employed in companies which meet a main inclusion criterion. These organisations should strongly engage in CSR (e.g., having a CSR section on their website, publishing their annual CSR report, etc.). The questionnaire was accessed 556 times returning a final sample of 222 completed surveys reporting a completion rate of 39.92%. 110 of the participants were male (49.55%), 2 of them did not want to disclose the gender (0.90%), and one participant identified as other (0.45%). Their average age was 38.03 years (SD = 11.90). In terms of occupation, participants had been working in their current company for an average of 7.24 years (SD = 9.16). Most of them were from Spain (n = 130, 58.56%) and UK (n = 22, 9.91%) and their work location corresponds to these countries.*

The variables of the study were measured through five main different scales. To measure the perception on organisational image (CSR facet), we developed the OI-CSR scale. In order to do so, we followed the advice by Bagozzi et al. (1991). First, we had to conceptualize the scale according to the proposed definition of CSR. we adopted the CSR concept based on organisational sustainable growth, which defines CSR as "a firm's commitment to maximizing long-term economic, societal and environmental well-being through business practices, policies, and resources" (Du et al., 2011, p. 1528). Then, to create an initial item pool, a list of statements was derived from the previous scales that have shown good validity and reliability in the literature. Then, we carried out factor analyses and confirmed four different factors, which correspond to the triple bottom line of corporate social responsibility: economic, environmental, and social facets (Alvarado-Herrera et al., 2017; Chow and Chen, 2012). Five statements reflected on social external related CSR practices, four on social internal practices, four on economic practices and eight on environmental practices. The scale asked participants to rate these statements twice: to the extent to which they were important to them and to which extent they had experienced them in their own company. The rating ranged from 1 (not important) to 6 (very important), and from 1 (very rare) to 6 (very common), respectively. The scale showed a good reliability, all Cronbach's alpha were above 0.83 for both, the experience and importance facets as well as for the four different factors. Correlation analyses also showed that both the OI-CSR (importance) and OI-CSR (experience) were found to be correlated, $r(220) = .27$, $p < .01$, as well as the four factors among themselves, all $p < .01$.

To measure employees' organisational identification, we developed a scale not based on the predominant cognitive dimension of OID as it has been traditionally done (e.g., Edwards and Peccei, 2007; Ellemers et al., 1999; Leach et al., 2008; van Dick and Wagner, 2002), but on the employees' own experience of this identification and the importance they give to this membership. To the best of my knowledge, there is not a measurement that evaluates the experience of an employee regarding their OID and the importance that they attach to having such an identity. Therefore, we built a scale composed of six statements that were gathered from other OID measurements, that showed high validity in the past. This 6-point Likert-scale ranged from 1 (very rare) to 6 (very common) to measure the employee's experience regarding their OID, and from 1 (not important) to 6 (very important) to evaluate in which extent these statements are relevant for them. The reliability for the OID scale for both the importance and the experience facets was 0.89 and 0.90 respectively. These two facets were also found to be correlated, $r(220) = .51$, $p < .01$.

Perceived stress was evaluated with the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) (Cohen et al., 1983) in its Spanish adaptation (Remor, 2006) as well as its French version (Rolland, 2016). There are three versions of the PSS, the PSS-14, the PSS-10, and PSS-4. For this study, the PSS-10 version was used. The reason behind this is that the PSS-10's validity and reliability are superior to those of the PSS-14 and PSS-4 in both practice and research (Lee, 2012). As we aim to measure the workplace related perceived stress, the following was added to the introductory paragraph: "... at the workplace". Then ten questions starting with "In the last month, ..." asked participants how often they have felt in different ways. Responses were originally scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, but we changed this to a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (very often) to eliminate the "neutral" option and change it to a "forced choice" survey scale (Allen & Seaman, 2007). The PSS-10 consisted of six positively rated items (items 1, 2, 3, 6, 9 and 10) and four reversed items (items 4, 5, 7 and 8). Negatively worded items were re-coded for analysis. Total scores ranged from 0 to 60, with higher scores indicating higher levels of perceived stress. Even though Cohen et al. (1983) presented PSS-10 as a one-factor structure, Hewitt et al. (1992) found reliable results to support a two-factor structure. Factors analyses were carried out and a two-factor structure was better supported. Reliability score for PSS-10 was 0.79, while for its factors perceived helplessness (PHS) and perceived self-efficacy (PSES), 0.82 and 0.73 respectively. Furthermore, these two factors were found to be correlated, $r(220) = .23$, $p < .01$.

The level of general anxiety was measured with the Generalized Anxiety Disorder Questionnaire (GAD-7) (Spitzer et al., 2006) in Spanish (García-Campayo et al., 2010) and in French (Micoulaud-Franchi et al., 2016). For this study, we asked participants to indicate if they felt these symptoms at the workplace by adding: "... at the workplace?" at the end of the question. The GAD-7 is rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 0 (not at all sure) to 4 (nearly every day). The reliability score for this scale was 0.89.

The psychological affection caused by the pandemic was measure through the self-developed scale COVID19 Affection Inventory (COVID19-AI). This scale is a 6-item self-report scale that measures the impact of coronavirus on the general population. More especially, it measures the degree to which the COVID situation subjectively affected participants psychologically. The inventory includes items in regard to the own and relative's health (i.e., worry for getting infected), attentional biases (i.e., read or think a lot on the situation), avoidant behaviours (i.e., try to protect oneself or avoid contact with others), and resource scarcity (i.e., lack of groceries). Some recent studies have developed similar scales that measures the worrying, stress or fear caused by the pandemic (e.g., Ahorsu et al., 2020; Mertens et *al. 2020; Taylor et al., 2020). However, these measurements were not published by the time my scale was created. The scale presents six statements that are rated on a 6-point Likert-scale which ranges from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.79.*

Analyses were performed using R v3.6.3 (R Core Team, 2018) and some associated packages, especially Lavaan (Rosseel, 2012) and Psych (Revelle, 2019). Two moderation analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Hypothesis 1 stated that organisational identification would moderate the relationship between perception on organisational image and workplace related perceived stress. And Hypothesis 2 stated that organisational identification would moderate the relationship between perception on organisational image and workplace related anxiety. The psychological affection caused by COVID was entered as a control variable to control for the workplace psychological well-being.

Findings. *These analyses performed in the study supported both hypotheses.*

On the one hand, results show that better perception of the organisational image (low gap between importance given to CSR and employees' experience on the organisation CSR practices) explain significant an amount of the variance in the levels of workplace related perceived stress, F(1,222) = 5.28, p = .023, R2 = .23, R2adjusted =.19. On the other hand, the moderation effect of organisational identification between the employees' perception of organisational image and workplace related perceived stress was tested. The overall model was significant (F=3,218, p=.029), accounting for 27.1% of the overall variance in perceived stress (R2=.271).

Results show that better perception of the organisational image (low gap between importance given to CSR and employees' experience on the organisation CSR practices) explain significant an amount of the variance in the levels of workplace related anxiety, F(1,222) = 5.28, p = .002, R2 = .44, R2adjusted =.40. On the other hand, the moderation effect of organisational identification between the employees' perception of organisational image and workplace related anxiety was tested. The overall model was significant (F=3,218, p=.014), accounting for 14.1% of the overall variance in perceived stress (R2=.141).

Research limits. *This study exhibits some limitations. Firstly, quantitative methods are not designed to reveal rich details of individual phenomena, and thus may not always be justifiable to be used for more complex observable situations (Saunders et al., 2009).*

Other limitations concern the sampling techniques. The technique used in the study (purposive sampling, convenience, and snowball sampling), belongs to the non-probabilistic sampling techniques. As a consequence, this method may be highly predisposed to researcher bias. This is because participants are chosen based on the researcher' judgement (Freedman et al., 2007), which can affect the generalization of results to the population.

Finally, the questionnaire used to collect data may have limited cultural equivalence, as some of the items asked in the questionnaire may have a different meaning to the participants depending on their mother tongue or cultural background (Matsumoto and van de Vijver, 2011). On the other hand, it is also important to highlight that participant responses may be also affected by social desirability (Matsumoto and van de Vijver, 2011) which may have an impact on the internal validity of the study.

Practical implications. *This study has some practical implications to be considered. First, it is important to note that paying attention to the well-being of employees is a legal responsibility of the employer in all EU countries (e.g., Directive (89/391 EEC, Directive 2002/14/EC). The findings of the study showed that a congruent organisational communication that considers employee's values and that reflects the reality of the company values favours employee's well-being, as well as their identification with the organisation. Therefore, more attention should be pay to bottom-up process when design internal and external communication plans (e.g., information about the company CSR on the media or career page). This practice would allow companies to hear employee's voice about their values and align these to the communication strategy. It is also important that companies keep a congruence between their practises and the image that is portrayed about these. As this study found, a mismatch between these may lead to a lower identification with the organisation and a worse employee well-being.*

Originality of the study. *This study is original in different ways, especially by studying a phenomenon that have not been previously explored as part of employees' well-being, and secondly from a methodological point of view by developing, testing, and validating new scales. To start with, besides its great importance and relevance to today's world the problem of scattered images had never been studied as a predictor of well-being. Therefore, this study brings novelty and covers this gap in the literature. Secondly, this research brings new validated and translated into three different language scales. These scales are the OI-CSR scale, the OID scale and the COVI19-AI. Furthermore, we offered a new way of measuring both OI and OID through composite measurements considering the experience facet as well as the importance facet.*

Key words: *scattered images, organisational image, social corporate responsibility, organisational identification, perceived stress, anxiety*

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On the methods of historical institutionalism: "time of work", collective action and cultural labour market (in France)♦

FRANCESCO CRISCI*

Abstract

[1] «On 11 July 2003, since the Avignon festival had been affected for a month by continuous strikes, the director Bernard Faivre d'Arcier announced his decision: "the 57th Festival will not take place". […] Two weeks before, on 26 June 2003, a final meeting of the "social partners" was held at the Paris headquarters of the MEDEF [the main federation of employers in France] in order to decide on the fate of Annexes VIII and X of the UNEDIC [National Professional Agency for Employment in Industry and Trade] Convention on unemployment insurance for workers, artists and technicians, of the entertainment, audiovisual and film industry […].

The Coordination of the Intermittent and Precarious Workers of the Ile-de-France (CIP-IDF) played a central role in the challenge against the protocol of 26 June. Its originality lies not so much in the form of coordination, which has been recurrent in almost all social movements since the late 1960s, but rather in its internal composition. Indeed, it should be noted that in a conflict over the reform of an agreement as specific as that of the "intermittents du spectacle [casual workers]" as a professional group, the organisation that proposes itself to represent the group, and that *de facto* manages to represent it at national level, is defined by a larger structure than the specific group. […] Imposing the regime of precariousness does not take place without tensions, but these are contained by a sort of implicit compromise between the proponents of the two concepts of the struggle: on the one hand, a Trade union and artistic-inspired picture, based on trade and culture, on the specific rights of the *intermittents* in the specific field of entertainment; on the other hand, the framework promoted by the militants of the collectivity of Precarious Associates of Paris (PAP), based on what is generalizable in the experience of precariousness experienced by the "intermittents du spectacle". One of the keys to the coexistence of these two definitions of struggle within the same collectivity lies partly in the principles and functioning of the form of coordination, based on an important division of political work that authorises (and even, to a certain extent, encourages) *heterogeneity* inside the movement» (Sinigaglia 2012, pages 109-110).

[2] «The increasing number of *intermittents*, the rise of the unemployment insurance regime and the increasing social mobilizations of which every renegotiation is the subject, make "new actors" and new "discourses" emerge. Throughout the 80s and 90s, the *intermittents* gradually took possession of a system whose potential emerged with its "daily practice," without a pre-defined theory or an ambition for a methodically implemented political will existed. […] In this context, the position of the CGT [the most representative Trade Union in France] is becoming increasingly complicated. In the face of claims to break the objective of "full employment" and the fact that *intermittents* mobilized massively (and almost exclusively) to defend their compensation regime, the CGT trade union had to deal with increasingly apparent contradictions and tensions. [But] the justifications of the struggle are largely inherited from the horizon of emancipation of the previous period. First of all, what the CGT defends is employment. Its fight mainly concerns the negotiations on employment and collective agreements, as well as the defence of production itself. The defence of Annexes VIII and X, despite playing an important role in trade union activity, is often interpreted in the same way as the defence of other wage rights of intermittent workers. The idea that compensation corresponds, like for all the other employees, to an involuntary unemployment form and to a substitute wage remains significant in the CGT analysis: [opposite idea to that of a complementary form of income]. Similarly, the CGT continues to view the gap between work and employment as regrettable and views this gap as a sign of abuse by employers. […] Other forms of organization emerge, bringing together more and more young *intermittents* in more informal ways. The [CIP-IDF] and few other organizations in the [French] province manage to mobilize massively the *intermittents* and come up with a common discourse that theorizes an emancipation horizon that deviates radically from the goal of full employment» (Grégoire 2013, p. 129-130).

[3] «The contemporary economy is characterized by a disjunction between work and employment, to which casual workers of this type are particularly sensitive. The time during which they are actually employed does not last long enough to be described as a full period of real work; periods of employment only compensate partially for their practices of "work" (training, apprenticeship, forms of cooperation and voluntary labor, the circulation of knowledge and competences, "downtime", breaks, moments of hesitation understood as necessary conditions for activity and work on oneself, etc.). Correlatively, a phase of unemployment cannot be reduced to time without work, because a part of what we have called here "work" goes on during such periods of "unemployment". For the clear opposition between work and unemployment is

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substituted an imbrication of periods of employment with periods of absence-of-employment, such that unemployment change in nature, and its "production" requires new institutions and new norms. Under these conditions, unemployment allowances, far for being limited to covering the risk of loss of employment, are used by some *intermittents* as "financing" for their activities, as a "social investment" that permits a relatively flexible arrangement of different temporalities: time of employment, time of work, times of unemployment, and times for living.

The "reform" wished to call into question what exactly characterized "intermittence": unlike in every other sector of precarious and temporary employment – in which no continuity of revenue and social rights is available to support the discontinuities and the imbrications between unemployment, employment, and work – in the case of *intermittents*, the costs of flexibility and precarity did not fall exclusively on the employee» (Lazzarato 2017, p. 2).

Objectives. *The three introductory episodes are taken from many researches that tell about three different points of view of a century-long history dedicated to the evolution "over time" of a particular dimension of the cultural labour market in France (Menger 2005, 2011). A first story shows the role played by the protest movement of "coordinating groups of the precarious and entertainment workers" as forms of "collective action" (Sinigaglia 2012). A second story depicts the stages of a historical journey on how that labour market took its shape, legitimizing a different way of conceiving the experience of "time of work" and placing within that claim the struggles of the "intermittents du spectacle" to have recognized the possibility of "being able to make a living from their work" (Grégoire 2013). Finally, the story of how "collective practice" around a peculiar "intermittent" unemployment insurance system is also a concrete manifestation of a unique "social experiment", a form of "socialization/mutualization of risk, uncertainty and precariousness" that has allowed a category of workers to experience extreme flexibility and continuity of income (Lazzarato 2008).*

In this work I suggest a research path in Management and Organization Studies (MOS) based on the historical dimension of the processes of change. In particular, the article retraces the choices of the method that have allowed to "problematise" the phenomenon investigated (Alvesson, Sandberg 2011), with the aim of understanding how the adoption of an historical approach (figures 1a) depicts a reasonable theoretical framework around the relationship between institutions-history-time-change (figures 1b). The contribution is threefold: (1) to identify the epistemological and ontological characteristics that justify the introduction of the historical approach in the MOS, in order to investigate the phenomena of change as processes (Langley et al. 2013; Langley, Tsoukas 2016; Reinecke, Ansari 2016; Trish et al. 2019); (2) to propose different approaches of analysis to introduce a unitary framework linking the concepts of "institution and change" (Rowlinson et al. 2014; Bucheli, Wadhwani 2014; Ocasio et al. 2016; Coraiola et al. 2018; Mutch 2018; Wadhwani et al. 2018; Maclean et al. 2020) and of "time and history" (Rowlinson et al. 2010; Anteby, Molnar 2012; Granqvist, Gustafsson 2016; Hatch, Schultz 2017; Lubinski 2018; Ravasi et al. 2019; Foroughi et al. 2020); (3) to foster a "critical management perspective" not only by introducing research traditions capable of producing "interesting" interpretative keys, but above all by arguing that the historical approach can be part of the methodological knowledge of a researcher in the MOS (Durepos et al. forthcoming; *Suddaby et al. 2014).*

Methodology. *For the purpose of this work, the main materials analysed are "secondary sources", the works by: Pierre-Michel Menger (2005/2011), Mathieu Grégoire (2012), Antonella Corsani and Maurizio Lazzarato (2008, 2008/2017) and Jérémy Sinigaglia (2013). Figure (1a) places these searches in the four quadrants of the matrix built on two dimensions (Suddaby 2016: p. 49): an ontological dimension, «vary depending on whether the world is viewed as both stable and "real" or tends more toward entropy» (the sociology of regulation/of radical change); an epistemological dimension on the nature of our knowledge of the world «based on empirical observations of a concrete reality or largely socially constructed, or based on subjective perceptions of a shared social reality» (objective/subjective). The original Burrell and Morgan's matrix (1979), used to reclassify sociological paradigms for organizational analysis, was re-processed to bring the different paradigms of historical research to the MOS. In other words, the epistemological and ontological characteristics that link historical and MOS approaches emerge from the analysis of the processes of change in terms of (Belk, Sobh 2018: p. 489): (i) «an original phenomena-driven inquiry; (ii) combining grounded theory and abductive reasoning, and (iii) generating and comparatively analyzing alternative theoretical explanations». The "intermittents du spectacle" story in France allows the first two aspects to be conceptualized and the third one to show: how "over time" these workers have "developed" and "practiced" a different experience of their "time of work" (between "clock-oriented" and "task-oriented" work: Thompson 1967; see also: Reinecke, Ansari 2016); and as the peculiar "subjective experience of time" (for a review: Shipp, Jansen* forthcoming*) allows understanding how individuals, organizations, actors, institutions evolve, learn, change (Lawrence, Phillips 2019: in this case, questioning the relationship between labour flexibility and economic insecurity; on the institutional dynamics of markets: Humphreys 2010).*

The data collection of the entire research project is based on a long work "on the field": the most ethnographic phase took place between Summer 2003 and Autumn 2006, in the whereabouts of Avignon and Paris (video materials, interviews, informal conversations with various informants, archive materials and press review); a phase with short "field returns" between 2008 and 2010 was devoted to the role of the CIP-IDF and to the reconstruction of the different proposals for reform of unemployment insurance (participation in public events, collection of official crisis material, informal meetings); a further phase followed, between 2010 and 2014, in which I collected and catalogued secondary sources, further reports from public sources and archival materials and updated the press review.

Fig. 1a: History, Change and Institutions: Four paradigms and a research agenda

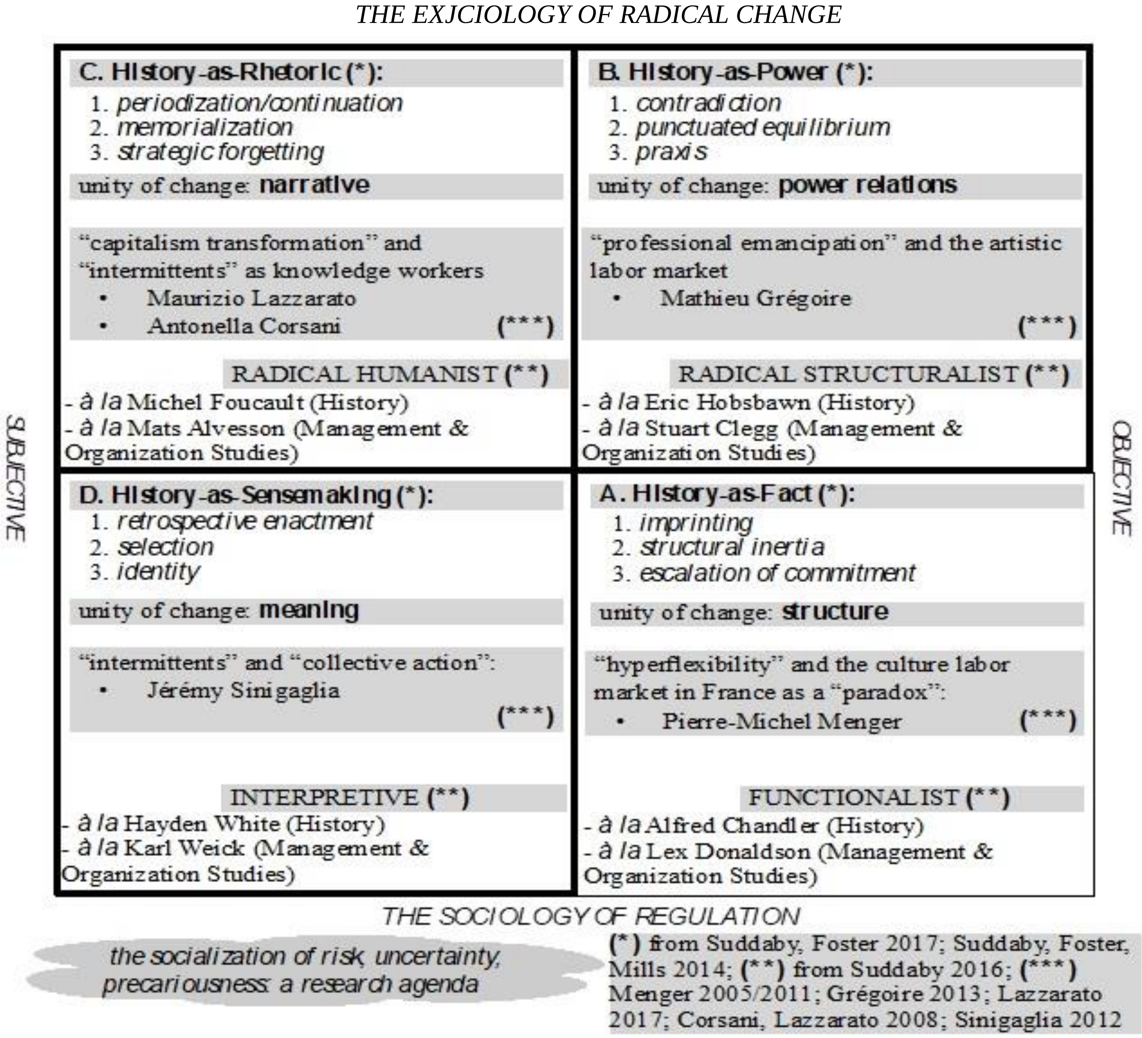
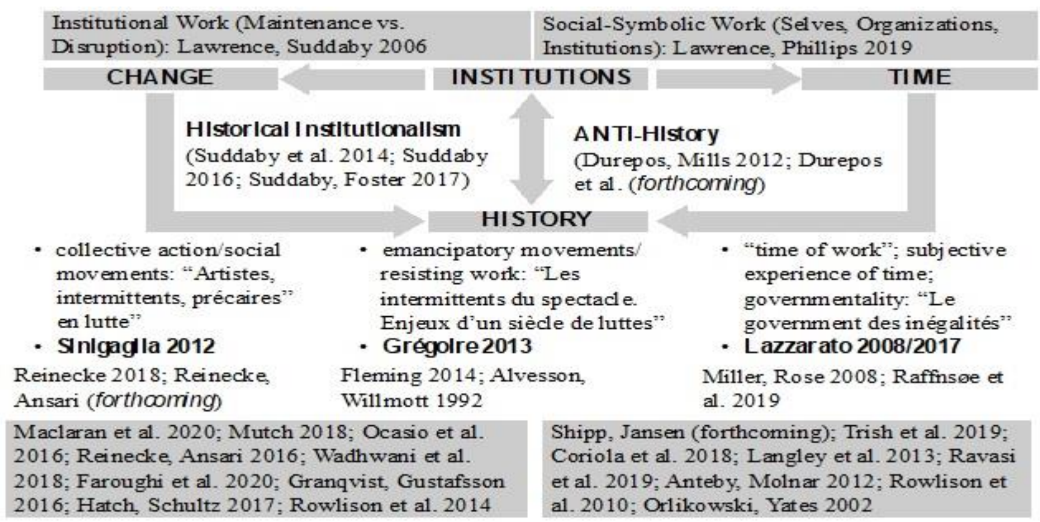


Fig. 1b: Connections between institution-change-tim-history: a theoretical framework



Findings. *Bureau and Corsani (2016) describe in these terms a model of work that is unique in its kind, the result of the settling of norms and practices over time within the cultural industry in France:*

«This concept refers to an exception: according to the law, every contract between an artist and an enterprise in the entertainment sector is presumed to be an employment contract, even if it is proved that the artist carries out his activity in a way that is close to independent work. Nevertheless, it is an atypical employment contract: a fixed-term "contract" (one day or a few hours [Contrat à durée déterminée d'usage: CDDU]) and the renewed repeatedly with the same employer [and potentially with

many other employers] without major constraints. It also refers to a specific system of social welfare designed to limit precariousness in a context of discontinuity of labour relations. Under certain conditions, artists and entertainment workers can claim unemployment benefits every day when they are not employed (Grégoire 2013). In France, during the 1960s, these almost independent workers were, in effect, incorporated into the wage workforce. At the end of the 1970s, the reform of the social welfare system started a massive socialization of resources: performing arts workers in intermittent employment could, in this way, achieve their own artistic projects and regain power over their work choices, especially to exercise their judgement whether or not to make commitments not only about working conditions but also about the quality of artistic and cultural production» (p. 104)

By assimilating the workers of the entertainment (and culture) industry to "employees", the concept of "intermittent" has a broader meaning than that of alternating times of work and times of unemployment (Corsani, Lazzarato 2008), becoming a recognized and legitimate characteristic of the organization of the processes of artistic and cultural production (Menger 2002). Among the rights of these workers, in particular, the unemployment allowance provides a much greater assurance from the "risks" of discontinuity of employment and variability of remuneration than for other categories of "precarious/casual workers" (Menger 2005/2011; Sinigaglia 2007, 2012; Grégoire 2013). In other words, this "precarious" model can be linked to forms of work instability and flexibility which do not necessarily are in conflict with contractual stability and wage/income continuity (Corsani, Lazzarato 2008; Lazzarato 2008/2017; Grégoire 2013); consequently, the unemployment compensation mechanisms linked to this "statute" produce, to all intents and purposes, "additional income shares" in relation to the salary received by the entertainment worker during the period of employment (the "time of work" is widened in relation to the "time of employment": Grégoire 2013; Lazzarato 2008/2017).

From the historical reconstruction of the story, through different sources and starting from the crisis of 2003 experienced "on the field", on the occasion of the cancellation of the Avignon Festival, there had been several indications that the phenomenon should have been regarded as something different from a normal social conflict for wage claims or for negotiating generic rights for workers in a specific industry. In France, the meaning of the term "intermittent", linked to the entertainment workers, has a "gestation" dating back to 1919 and developed throughout the second World War (Grégoire 2013); from the 1960s onwards, for a decade, the "dossier" on the nature and professionalisation of artistic work was the subject of continuous "social" maintenance or reform efforts (Grégoire 2013; Menger 2005); at the turn of 1980, the "intermittents" legitimised a "unique" unemployment insurance system without apparently an effective claiming by social partners (Sinigaglia 2007, 2012; Grégoire 2013; Lazzarate 2008); so much that the stages of a long phase of "conflict" (1986, 1988-1990, 1991-1992, 1993, 1997) immediately marked the perpetuation of the protests of the workers in the industry against those who wanted to question this form of "professionalisation" (Grégoire 2013; Menger 2005/2011); with the creation of the first "coordinating groups of precarious people" in the 1990s, with the 1992 crisis and up to the 2003 crisis escalation, new players joined the scenario, changed the nature of the fight, and the role of the government became central to the controversial reform of the unemployment insurance system (Sinigaglia 2007, 2012; Corsani, Lazzarato 2008; Lazzarato 2008/2017).

The analysis proposed in this contribution is based in particular on the recent works by Roy Suddaby (Suddaby 2016; Suddaby, Foster 2017; Suddaby et al. 2014): through an historical approach to the different stories of the history of "intemittents", the work retraces the link between research design and method issues from which a possible theoretical framework around the themes of "change as a process" and on the role of "time in the processes of institutional change" has emerged. The hypothesis connected to the matrix of figure 1a is that the epistemological and ontological differences between MOS and historical studies seem less evident in boxes B, C and D, so as to justify the existence of a coherent research programme around the theme of change.

In the case of Menger's perspective (2005/2011), the story of the "intermittents" is attributable to a "paradoxical" labour market in which contractual hyperflexibility and the enormous growth in the supply of "cultural labour" do not seem motivated by the dynamic demand for "cultural production" and the relationship with "cultural consumption". As it is a market seeking "rebalancing", the recourse to "exceptional" forms of insurance for rising unemployment is not justifiable "rationally" if the countable components of the budget equation are: «the remuneration of workers exposed to this risk, the price paid directly by employers in the sector in order to have a large labour reserve and exceptional bargaining flexibility, and the part of the costs attributable to interprofessional solidarity to secure these workers» (Menger 2011: p. 16). In this case, the concepts of imprinting, structural inertia and escalation of commitment (Frame A, "history-as-fact") remain an idea of change in which (Suddaby, Foster 2017: p. 23): (i) "the focal unit of change is the entity" (the cultural labour market); (ii) "the impetus for change is typically 'exogenous' and takes the form of an environmental jolt"; (iii) and «a positivistic and objective view of history tend to see change as a difficult process that can be successful only through extreme levels of episodic intervention».

On the other hand, extracts [1], [2] and [3], attributable to each of the other three frames (figure 1a), give a coherent picture of how the "intermittents" in France have expressed that particular link between forms of organisation of cultural work and perception of their "time of work". First (Sinigaglia 2012: Frame D, "history-as-sensemaking"), the nature of the fight changes when "new collective players" emerge (and interpretive processes occurs collectively): «cosmology episodes are characterized by a sudden and profound loss of rationality or meaning in one's lived experience where prior perceptions of change, which one made sense, no longer cohere and participants are forced to reconstruct a new interpretive framework within which to organize experience» (p. 30). Moreover, the historical process of the "professional emancipation" of artists (Grégoire 2013: Frame B, "history-as-power") manifests a form of «[…] agency enacted through reflexivity and praxis – the ability of individuals or collectives to overcome the constraints of their history through retrospection, critical reflection, and creative visioning» (Suddaby, *Foster 2017: p. 26). Finally, the two frames converge and the deliberate and strategic emergence of a form of socialization of risk, uncertainty and precariousness (Lazzarato 2008/2017: Frame C, "history-as-rhetoric") defines: (i) «a model of change that uses narratives of history"; (ii) and in which, in the wake of the 2003 crisis, "periodization is the process of retrospectively cultivating the idea of radical transformation in terms of 'before' and 'after'» (p. 31).*

Figure 1b shows how, from the convergence of the three paradigms with common ontological and epistemological bases, it is possible to identify two lines of investigation which are faced through a path of analysis straddling historical institutionalism (Suddaby et al. 2014; Suddaby 2016) and Actor-Network Theory (ANTi-History: Durepos, Mills 2012), approaches defined respectively in these terms:

> *«[...] the socio-historical process by which habituated actions and meanings become reified as objective social structures. [...] Over time individuals create social structures out of shared assumptions about the nature of social reality: (a) institutions are clearly to be understood as a historical process, i.e., the outcomes of past events and interpretations of those events; (b) this process is underpinned by the interactions of individuals; (c) over time, the interpretations of these actions, and the social significance attached to them, change» (Suddaby et al. 2014: p. 111).*

> *«[...] draws on Actor-Network Theory to assume history as an effect of situated (ideological, spatial, and temporal) actor-network. Embedded in ANTI-History is the assumption that heterogenous actors are active political agents who seek to enlist others into their cause to render that cause more durable and create networks. [...] ANT scholars have referred to these seemingly unitary entities as black boxes or punctuations. [...] ANTIi-History suggests that history, or the construction of knowledge of the past, can be understood through this process of black-boxing or punctuation» (Durepos, Mills 2012: pp. 9-10).*

The theoretical framework that emerges allows the concepts of "institutions and change" and "history and time" to be intertwined with each other: (i) in terms of market dynamics, the presence of this particular category of workers makes the cultural labour market in France historically a "contested market" (Humphreys 2010); (ii) in which the conflict, more or less latent in time, is the basis of the "comparison" between processes of institutional "maintenance" and "destabilization" (Lawrence, Suddaby 2006; Granqvist, Gustafsson 2016; Mutch 2018); (iii) and in which these forms of institutional work decline, over time, the radical perception that these workers have of "time of work" (Lawrence, Phillips 2019; on the "time of work": Shipp, Jansen forthcoming*; on the theme of "resisting work": Fleming 2014; on collective action and social movements: Reinecke 2018; Reinecke, Ansari* forthcoming*).*

Research limits/Practical implications. *With respect to the three contributions of the work, the implications for research include the need to develop process perspectives in the MOS (Langley et al. 2013; Langley, Tsoukas 2016; Trish et al. 2019; in particular: Reinecke, Ansari 2016), although the proposed approach is only one among the possible approaches with which to address the link between institutions and change, on the one hand, and between time and history, on the other hand. In terms of theoretical and empirical implications, the characteristics of a programme of work around "historical time", through which the processes of change are shaped and can be observed dynamically, suggest the importance (Miller, Rose 2008; Alvesson, Sandberg 2011; Fleming 2014): (i) of the "problematization" of the "time of work" experience of the entertainment workers in France; (ii) and to investigate the concrete manifestation of the "crisis periods" that have occurred over time around the same interpretation of the statute of these workers, in which situations it is possible to observe the phenomenon in a fluid way, in terms of "matters of concern".*

Origin of the study. *Suddaby and Foster (2017) effectively summarise two aspects of the analysis: (a) «our central argument is that variations in how we conceptualize change are underpinned by different assumptions about history and its relationship to our capacity for change»; (b) and «our explicit theories of change and our ability to change, thus, vary by our implicit models of history» (p. 20). Conceptualizing the relationship between "processes of change", "history" and "institutions" allows to develop interesting assumptions about "history as a method" in the MOS, about the subjective dimension of time and how it affects understanding: (i) the change in terms of dynamics, (ii) the manifestation of social innovation in sometimes unexpected forms, (iii) and how "time gets ripe" for organizational and institutional changes to be accomplished, one's paths to be changed, or to fail.*

Key words: "*intermittents du spectacle"; time of work; subjective time; history as method; historical institutionalism*

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A literature review on tourism resilience

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Objectives. *Research on crises and natural disasters, as well as post-disaster responses, are central issues in literature due to the frequency and scale of these events occurring over the years. Scholars starting from the analysis of hazard triggers, are providing contributions addressed to reduce associated risks and facilitate recovery, in particular to make strong communities against destruction by creating resilient communities (Morrish and Jones, 2020). The rise of resilience concept is evidenced by the most recent contributions and conferences on the issue, showing this is a hot topic in the tourism and hospitality literature (Prayag et al., 2018) today. The resilience matter was firstly highlighted within ecological sciences (Holling, 1973; Platania, 2018, Haisheng et al., 2020) and later, it has been explored in a range of anthropogenic contexts, including recent applications in tourism (Cochrane, 2010), capturing increasing attention of academics and decision makers from various disciplines and sectors (Jones and Comfort, 2020; Cai et al., 2018). Analysing the potential development of tourism, one should consider the possibility of negative events and situations associated with climate change, demographic shifts, economic crises (Platania, 2018), political, social and legal changes, and cultural circumstances (Niezgoda and Awedyk, 2018). According to Paraskevas et al. (2013), sanitary disasters, terrorist attacks, industrial risks, and digital economy, affecting tourists' behaviours, have to be seriously considered as shocks. Nowadays, resilience requires reversal in posture from minimizing losses to creating value in the face of change orientation, toward constant learning and adaptation (Roege, 2016). This "work in progress", having an explanatory nature, is aimed at providing a state of the art on resilience research, offering interesting insights for future research. We investigate the most relevant events in discussing resilience, outlining theoretical frameworks and/or measurement settings proposed, and units of analysis considered (countries, a whole sector, specific destination, or a specific type of firm), attempting to verify the existence of a correlation between value creation processes and resilience capacity in recovery after crises.*

Methodology. *We performed a literature review articulated in different steps. The first one concerned the collection of key up to date papers using Web of Science and Scopus online databases. We deemed "resilience", "tourism resilience", "destination resilience", "resilience and value creation" the most suitable keywords to collect scientific contributions on the topic, by searching for them in the "title" and "abstract" sections. We found several documents of various nature (papers, book chapters, conference proceedings) and across a variety of disciplines. During the second phase we selected the most relevant ones according to the purpose of our research, ensuring their relevance to the issue and removing duplicates. The first selection criterion was the article title relevance; in case of doubt, we discussed the inclusion or non-inclusion of the contribution based on the abstract. Subsequently, we examined each paper creating a database in which we reported some characteristics for each one (authors, paper title, publication year, a brief note about papers' objectives and findings and, where possible, resilience definition, analyzed events and unit of analysis). Currently, it consists of twenty-nine articles. These studies under review are published by twenty-five journals, listed in figure 1.*

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Fig. 1: Journal distribution of the 29 articles

JOURNALS	*N. OF STUDIES*	*%*
Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics	*1*	*3.45*
Annals of Tourism Research	*3*	*10.35*
Annual review of ecology and systematics	*1*	*3.45*
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	*2*	*6.90*
Athens Journal of Tourism	*1*	*3.45*
Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy and Society	*1*	*3.45*
Disasters	*1*	*3.45*
Global Environmental Change	*1*	*3.45*
Infrastructures	*1*	*3.45*
International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction	*1*	*3.45*
International Journal of Quality Innovation	*1*	*3.45*
International Social Science Journal	*1*	*3.45*
Journal of Business continuity & Emergency Planning	*1*	*3.45*
Journal of Business Research	*1*	*3.45*
Journal of Coastal Conservations	*1*	*3.45*
Journal of Cultural Economics	*1*	*3.45*
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	*1*	*3.45*
Operations Research and Decisions	*1*	*3.45*
Progress in Human Geography	*1*	*3.45*
Regional Science Policy and Practice	*1*	*3.45*
Revista Andaluza de Antropologia	*1*	*3.45*
Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography	*1*	*3.45*
Tourism Management Perspectives	*3*	*10.35*
Tourism Recreation Research	*1*	*3.45*
Total	***29***	***100.00***

Our work begins with a discussion of the main definition of resilience, stressing the divergent views of their authors; thereafter we provide an overview of the studies that mainly contributed to the development of resilience measurement frameworks (Table 2). Our findings reveal unexplored research issues.

Findings. *Despite the wealth of relevant contributions concerning this field, there is still a lack of consensus on resilience definition and meanings (Sharifi and Yamagata, 2014), how it is related to other similar terms such as vulnerability and adaptability (Cai et al., 2018), as well as its consistency in terms of measurement (Serfilippi and Ramnath, 2018). In the following table, a selection of definitions of resilience is proposed, chosen among the many ones available.*

Tab. 1: Definitions of resilience

Author(s)	*Definitions of resilience*
Holling (1973)	*Resilience is a measure of the persistence of systems and of their ability to absorb change and disturbance and still maintain the same relationship between population or state variables.*
Gallopin (1991)	*Resilience is the capacity of a system to withstand external environmental disturbances and to maintain its own functions.*
Adger (2000)	*Resilience is the ability of human communities to cope with external stresses and shocks as a result of social, political and environmental changes.*
Folke (2006)	*Resilience is about persistence, adaptation, structures and processes recombination, system renewal and emergence of new trajectories.*
Hudson (2010)	*Resilience refers to the ability of a socio-economic system to cope with disturbances, to absorb exogenous and endogenous shocks, to adapt its organization, to shape change via constant innovation and learning.*
OECD (2015)	*Resilience is the capacity to reduce the vulnerability of economies to crises and strengthening their capacity to absorb and overcome severe shocks while supporting strong growth.*
Cellini & Cuccia (2015)	*Resilience is the ability of providers to change their orientation and specialization in front of negative shocks.*
Orchiston et al. (2016)	*Resilience refers to the ability of a system to maintain its identity and adapt its essential structure and function in the face of disturbance.*
Serfilippi and Ramnath (2018)	*Resilience is the capacity of people, communities, or systems to prepare for and to react to stressors and shocks in ways that limit vulnerability and promote sustainability.*

Although these definitions may sound similar to each other, the concepts of resilience that they draw need to be discussed. In particular, we identified two different views. On one side there are definitions that express a static meaning of resilience because authors conceive it as the strength or ability of a system to return to normality after experiencing a shock or to adapt to perturbations, minimizing risks (i.e. Holling, 1973; Gallopin, 1991; Orchiston et al., 2016). Conversely, other authors contribute to the development of a dynamic view of resilience, where the challenge *is not to mitigate risks and return to the pre-crisis state, but to cope with change by focusing on innovation, learning, growth and taking advantage of emerging new perspectives (i.e. Folke, 2006; Hudson, 2010; OECD, 2015, Cellini and Cuccia, 2015). Our review highlights there are plenty of papers focused on adaptation and reaction to natural disasters, economic crises, and pandemic events, while relatively few contributions aimed at creating a solid measurement framework in order to manage and develop the destination in a resilient perspective by leveraging a value-based approach; this is based on the assumption that each activity provides value to the whole disaster management process (Sawalha et al., 2018) but disaster management and value creation are still researched separately (Raikkonen et al., 2017). Psycharis et al. (2014) analyzed the impacts of economic crises to Greek regions and prefectures, developing a specific composite index (CrI). Their results indicate that the tourism industry is more resilient than other sectors; consequently, island tourism regions are usually more resilient to crisis compared to metropolitan regions which, being production intensive, are more vulnerable. Cellini and Cuccia (2015) examined Italian tourism industry trends during the Great Recession, pointing out the implications of recessionary conditions on consumers' preferences. According to their definition of resilience (reported in Table 1), the objective of the work was to create a sector-specific resilience index to measure its ability to replace domestic tourism flows with international ones. Authors argue that the tourism industry has been more resilient than other industries, recognizing as a key factor the capacity to respond to changes in demand, dampening the negative effects of the crisis. Obviously, the degree of resilience varies from region to region according to providers' ability to change their consumer orientation. DasGupta and Shaw (2015) investigate resilience to climate disasters in the context of coastal communities' in the developing world. To this end, authors develop a five dimensions resilience framework and a composite indicator. The main result of the work shows, as expected given the kind of disaster, that resilience tends to decrease with the proximity to the sea. The researchers suggest structural and non-structural measures to improve the community's resilience degree. Platania (2018) described the economic resilience of Sicilian urban tourist destinations, comparing pre and post crisis variations. Research results highlighted destinations that were able to develop in the face of the recession and those that suffered its negative effects. Furthermore, shocks seem to affect differently urban destinations and surrounding areas. Otoo and Seongseop (2018) investigated the underlying stability of Hong Kong's inbound tourism during three phases of the health crisis, examining the effects of crisis events on tourists' profiles, travel characteristics and purposes. Authors observed that distance plays an important role in the composition of tourist flows and thus incoming tourist markets resilience, but it is not the sole. In general, during the crisis, both short and long-haul travels have been affected by negative effects but at the same time, certain specific inbound tourism markets showed greater resilience, ensuring stability to Hong Kong's tourism market. Haisheng et al. (2020) contributed to the literature by conducting a pioneering study on Jiangwan Town (China) aimed at applying resilience theory to cultural heritage sites. These scholars developed a resilience assessment system, providing a list of factors and sub-indicators that allow for a generalisable and flexible framework to other kinds of cultural heritage sites and other types of tourist destinations. Radulescu and Meleca (2020) investigated the resilience of European Union's tourism industry applying the engineering resilience model.*

Tab. 2: Major resilience assessment frameworks

Autor(s)	***Analysed event***	***Variables and indicators proposed***	***Unit of analysis***
Psycharis et al. (2014)	*Economic crises*	*- Crisis resilience index - Physical population change - Employment and Unemployment - Per capita value of export, non-residential energy consumption, volume of new constructions, foreigners and citizens night spent, savings, new car registration, public investment*	*Greek regions and prefectures*
Cellini & Cuccia (2015)	*Economic recession (2008-2012)*	*- Arrivals, overnight and average stay in all accommodation structures - Arrivals, overnight and average stay in hotels - Foreign arrivals, overnight and average stay - Domestic arrivals overnight and average stay - Change in number of hotels - Change in number of hotels by star rating system - Hotel price index*	*Italian tourism industry*
DasGupta & Shaw (2015)	*Natural disasters and climate hazards*	*The framework is composed by five dimensions of coastal resilience: - Socio-economic: demography, livelihood, health, social capital, education and awareness; - Physical (Structural): transportation, residential infrastructure, electricity, tele-communication, water and sanitation; - Institutional: Laws and policy, coordination, emergency response, adaptive action, governance; - Coastal Zone Management (Ecological): embankment and shoreline, mangrove management, biodiversity conservation, pollution control, land use; - Environmental: frequency of natural disaster, climate components, geophysical components, biogeochemical components, safeguard measures. Each indicator considers five variables.*	*19 coastal administrative blocks of Indian Sundarbans*

Platania (2018)	*Economic crises (2008-2010)*	*- Technological innovation - Transport development - Labour market - Dependence on tourism as form of livelihood - Over-tourism risk - The role of host communities: - Self-organization - Learning ability - Adaptation capacity*	*Sicilian tourist destinations*
Otoo & Kim (2018)	*Health crises*	*- Market attributes: visitor profiles, travel purposes, travel characteristics; - Distance: short-haul and long-haul trips; - Market sources: set of foreign nations from which tourists may be attracted to Hong Kong*	*Inbound tourist markets to Hong Kong*
Haisheng et al. (2020)	*Overdevelopment in cultural heritage*	*- Socio-cultural subsystem: Engel coefficient of local resident, population growth rate, population density, portion of migrant workers, employment in tourism, employment in tertiary sector, density of tourists, floor space of existing historical buildings, grade of intangible culture heritage inheritors, population education, proportion of ethnic minorities in the population, protection value of villages, number of criminal incidents per capita GDP - Economic subsystem: per capita net income of local residents, p.c. GDP, proportion of tertiary industry in GDP, proportion of added value of tourism in income in GDP added value, proportion of tourism income in GDP, tourism investment, per capita tourism income, urbanization level, energy consumption per GDP, investment in fixed assets, total fiscal revenue, livelihood diversity index - Ecological subsystem: land stress index, land utilization rate, ecological land occupation ratio, habitat quality index, biodiversity index, air and water quality compliance rate, noise pollution level, harmless treatment rate of domestic garbage, environmental protection expenditure*	*Jiangwan Town (China)*
Radulescu & Meleca (2020)	*Economic crises (2008-2009)*	*- Engineering resilience model: - Number of nights accommodation at national and regional level - Direct contribution of tourism to GDP at regional and national level - Gross domestic product in current prices*	*Tourism resilience and regional economy (EU)*

Our research on resilience in the tourism field reveals (Table 2) the orientation of academics to conduct studies on specific crisis events taken individually, pursuing a governance-based approach; in particular, economic crises and natural disasters are the main phenomena investigated while the units of analysis are principally macro-aggregates, such as a country, a specific destination, or the whole tourism industry. A prominent number of these publications aims to contribute to the resilience topic by advancing measurement models and offering disparate indicators (Haisheng et al., 2020) but only few one conduct empirical validation of proposed resilience indexes (Cai et al., 2018). The most suggested and adopted ones include economic indicators, social indicators, institutional indicators, infrastructure indicators and community indicators (Cai et al. 2018; Barbhuiya and Chatterjee, 2020; Haisheng et al., 2020). Therefore, these studies constitute a guide for decision-makers, governments, institutions, and public administrations. While the variety of models highlights a particularly interesting area of research, the absence of universally recognised models raises questions. Since the disaster triggers depend on a wide range of causes and the response can require different mix of competences and supplies (Whybark, 2015), we believe that the obstacle in creating an endorsed model is the difficulty in synthesising the multitude of variables to be considered. Furthermore, the identification of appropriate indexes is complex, and their monitoring costs are daunting (De Sausmarez, 2007). While tourism growth for local communities is expected to contribute to the economy, improving the social welfare and preserving local culture (Poor and Smith, 2004), tourism destinations are significantly vulnerable to shocks (Calgaro and Lloyd, 2008). Resilience to disaster events is mainly associated with risk mitigation, cost minimization and impact reduction rather than with the ability to cope with change by seizing opportunities. This is particularly relevant if we consider that the tourism industry is a good example of a complex adaptive system (Farrell and Twining-Ward, 2004). Resilience attitude tends to vary according to several circumstances such as event nature and magnitude, familiarity with its risks, hazard prevention, availability of risks mitigation plans, location-specific characteristics and so on. In this regard, we found a gap in the literature concerning the missing consideration of tourism entrepreneurs' skills and activities in the existing frameworks, also evidenced by the lack of managerial implications at enterprise level. This finding is in line with Morrish and Jones' (2020) assertion that entrepreneurial recovery under insurmountable and challenging conditions (Stevenson et. al 2018), has not deeply explored. Relatedly, another significant literature gap is the disregard of value creation as resilience driver. For businesses, crisis or emergency situations generate an alteration of the market structure and require adaptation and innovation abilities (Fabry and Zaghni, 2019), survival spirit and proactivity in uncertainty. In a transitional phase, entrepreneurs need to create new value for customers and new markets (Morrish and Jones, 2020). Considering an organization as a value creation source, Lepak et al. (2007) state innovation, knowledge creation, and management assume relevance. In the wake of these remarks, we define resilience as the ability to overcome disturbances and shift towards a new normality by implementing high-value processes and activities according to stakeholders' emerging needs. To close significant research gaps in the tourism management field, we consider both necessary and interesting for future research to investigate firms' post-crisis recovery even to define measures (variables, indicators) in order to include a corporate dimension in resilience assessment models and to

clarify how value creating business conducts contribute to system-wide resilience improvement. Our study highlights a growing need for new resilience approaches taking into account the location-specific characteristics of the tourism industry, its relevance to the local economy, and the hospitality supply chain strategies.

Research limits. *Our research has some limitations. Firstly, we decided to investigate the theme of resilience and value creation, focusing our attention on contributions that proposed models for measuring resilience in tourism. Secondly, we preferred to study each identified publication, without using any supporting methodology, such as content analysis. Inevitably, this approach to research, while ensuring a better knowledge, understanding and interpretation of the contributions under examination, also affected the number of papers to be included in our research, limiting us to considering only a few of the models proposed over the years.*

Practical implications. *Our study contributes to resilience themes and shapes interesting but also challenging, future research opportunities. First, it confirms the absence of a common vision on the topic, highlighting, in our opinion, the existence of two different visions of resilience. A first vision, which we define as static, focuses mainly on facing adversities, even adapting to change, in order to return to a pre-crisis state. On the other hand, a more dynamic view of resilience emerged, in which the objective is to overcome the crisis and move into a completely new and different scenario than the pre-shock one. We argued that resilience is linked to proactivity, creativity, and innovation in creating new value. However, as our study shows, scholars have focused their attention on examining the effects of crises or disasters on macro units of analysis, enriching the literature with numerous models based on macroeconomic variables and indicators. We believe that the possible link between resilience and value creation has remained unexplored due to this trend. We suggest that an interesting area for future research on the matter is the construction of this connection by considering the capacity and efforts of firms on continuing to generate value in times of disturbance. In this way, value creation could be considered a driver for the resilience of an economic system.*

Originality of the study. *This work contributes to studies on tourism resilience, providing new research perspectives on the theme. We discussed the general approach of scholars on the subject, providing a summary of resilience definitions and models aimed at measuring the degree of resilience of an entity (geographical area, region, destination, tourism sector). We argued that at the current state of the literature, despite different interpretations of resilience, little attention has been paid to the possible link between this one and value creation, paving the way for an important area of study that needs to be explored. To this regard, we provided a new definition of resilience considering the propensity of value creation to improve the quality of response to a crisis.*

Keywords: *resilience, tourism resilience, destination resilience, value creation*

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The role of innovation in tourism industry in times of crisis

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Objectives. *Hospitality sector has always been affected by several crises and innovation has always played a pivotal role in these circumstances (Cheah et al., 2018; Clauss et al., 2019). In times of crisis, innovation has exalted the recovery and resilience character of the Hospitality Industry (Luthe and Wyss, 2015; Kawharu et al., 2017). Recent literature has put in evidence the role of innovation in times of crisis in the hospitality sector and how innovation, especially digitalization, can even influence sustainability (Presenza et al., 2019). Expenditures in innovation and in R&D favour profits during an economic crisis (Lilien and Srinivasan, 2010) and innovation improves the enterprise productivity (Barros et al., 2009).*

The recent crisis (Covid-19) has caused a shift from a tourism vision based on overconsumption to a tourism vision focused on social wellbeing (Everingham and Chassagne, 2020). There are new emerging needs as security and safety (Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006), without precluding the emotional aspects, likewise important. Tourists look for a creative innovation that improves their experience as well as their satisfaction.

Firms are called to rethink and to develop new business models, innovative business models that can affect the value proposition, value creation and value capture (Breier et al., 2021).

This work in progress aims to investigate the pivotal role that innovation has played in times of crisis, focusing the attention on the tourism sector and how it influences the resilient character of the tourism industry. Different theories on the topic will be investigated in order to propose an innovation management model to be tested on hospitality and tourism firms, taking in consideration the actual health crisis that is affecting the tourism sector.

Research Hypothesis:

1) *In times of crisis innovation plays a pivotal role.*
2) *Innovation strengthens the resilience character of Tourism.*
3) *Innovation encourages firms to adopt an approach based on sustainability.*

Methodology. A bibliometric analysis is used to investigate the evolution of the topic in the literature by sorting data, including *references, citations, co-citations, keywords and keyword – plus (Diodato and Gellatly, 2013).This analysis is defined as a quantitative study of published works such as scientific papers, book chapters, proceeding abstracts, conferences and reviews (Broadus, R. N. 1987). A bibliometric analysis allows to analyze the evolution of a discipline taking in consideration the intellectual, social and conceptual structure it is based on (*Zupic and Cˇater, *2015). The relevance of bibliometric analysis in tourism field is enhanced by Koseoglu. et al., 2016 in Annals of Tourism Research, that identify different typologies of bibliometric analysis.*

This work can be considered a theme-focused review study, in the specific case the work analyses the role of innovation in different context of crisis in the tourism sector, two are the main dimensions related to tourism considered: innovation and crisis.

The Bibliometric analysis was conducted through the Bibliometrix R Package (Aria and Cuccurullo, 2017). This software allows for quantitative analysis in bibliometrics and scientometrics. R package is an open source ecosystem and it already supports other different bibliometrics packages that allow performance some specific analysis but none of them allow to perform the full workflow.

This paper presents the full workflow:

- *The research design: consisting to provide the knowledge base of a topic or research field and its intellectual structure, investigating the conceptual structure and producing a social network structure focused on a specific focus.*
- *Data collection: a database of bibliometric data is selected, the set of documents is defined using specific keywords and other filters such as research areas, languages, kind of documents. Finally, the dataset is extracted.*
- *Data analysis: consisting in descriptive analysis and network extraction.*
- *Data visualization: consisting in the extraction of data and their representation through intuitive visualizations or maps.*
- *Interpretation: describing and commenting findings.*

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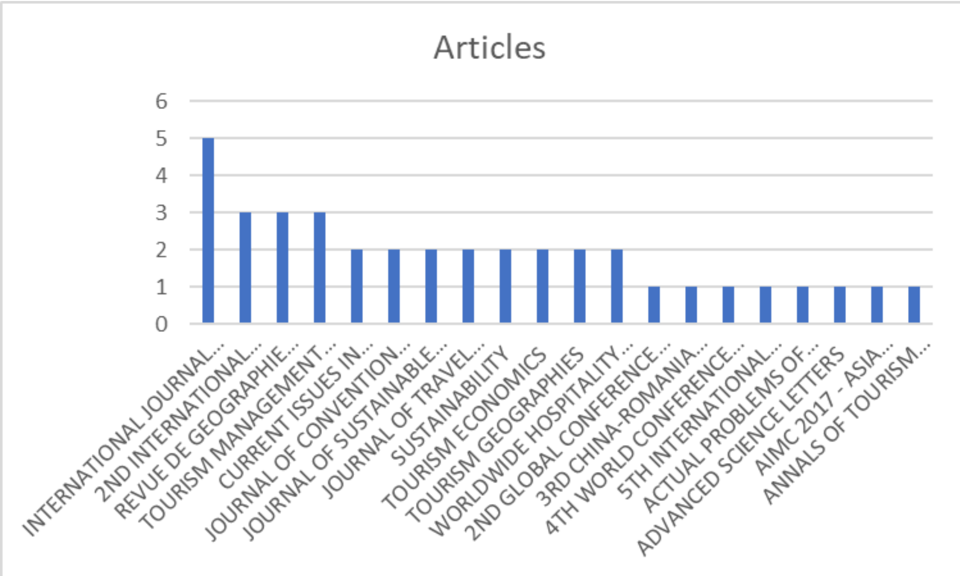
In order to collect data, the multidisciplinary database Web of Science (WoS) was used. WoS is a database that collects scientific resources with a high impact factor, It allows to make thematic research for authors, magazine, production- year, citation of author, citation of a specific scientific work, it includes the Science Citation Index that allows to search for abstracts of publications from scientific journals, the Social Sciences Citation Index which indexes journals in the social sciences, Arts and Humanities Citation Index related to publications in the field the humanities (Mongeon, and Paul-Hus, A.2016).This database has the peculiarity to carry out bibliographic searches in the past and in the future of a publication recalling articles cited previously. This allows to follow the evolution of a published research and the influence it has had over time (Leydesdorff, Carley, and Rafols,2013). The following collection of documents is a result of a query driven by the following keywords: "innovation", "tourism" and "crisis". To collect our data, we selected 87 documents excluding the following indexes: Arts & Humanities Citation Index (A&HCI) , and including articles, proceeding papers, early access and reviews from the following research categories: Hospitality Leisure Sport Tourism (43), Management (16), Business (11), Economics (11), Business Finance (6) .Main sources are represented by management journals and journals concerning sustainability issues (Fig.1).

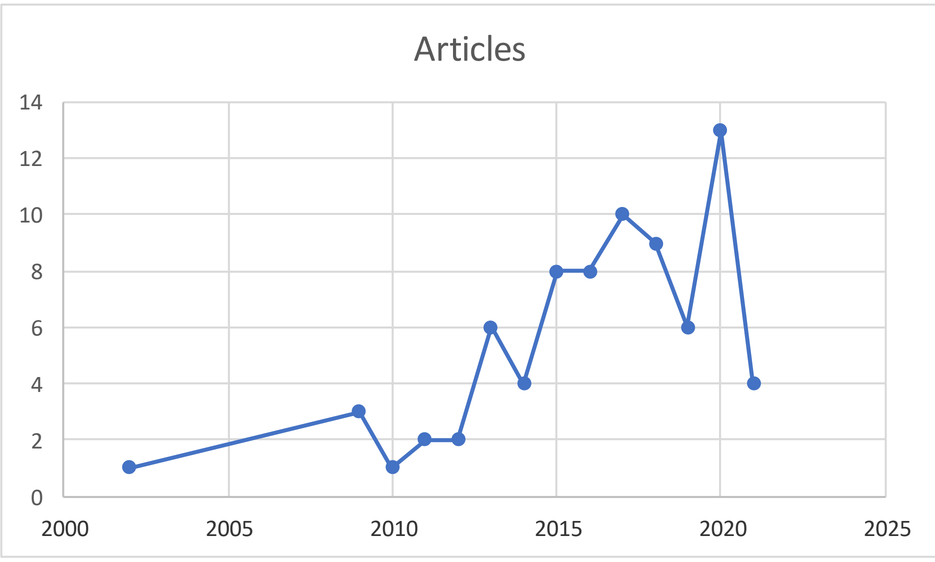
Fig. 1: Most Relevant Sources



Source: our elaboration

Literature trends are displayed through a Pareto diagram that analyzes the frequency of published papers according to a precise lapse of time (2002–2021).

Fig. 2: Scientific Production

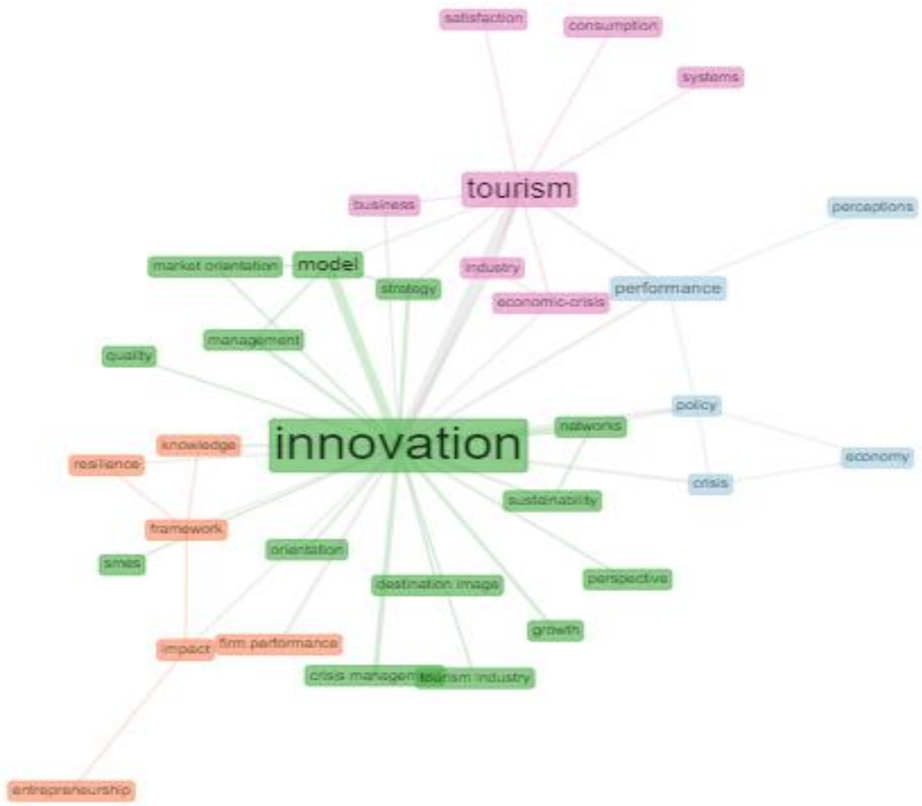


Source: our elaboration

The initial year of the production is related to the first crisis affecting tourism, the terrorist attacks of 2001 (Hall, 2002) and the role of Customer Relation Management in time of turbulence (Abbas and Hassan, 2018). The first relevant scientific production appeared from 2008 to 2014 focused on the global economic - financial crisis that strongly impacted industry district areas that in some cases were forced to rethink their economy, leveraging on their historical, natural, artistic cultural, resources and discovering their tourist vocation through the territorial inventiveness as response to the crisis (Bourdeau, 2009). The financial crisis has affected the housing market, especially the economy of some European countries (PIGS countries). The main cities of these countries have recorded a sharp fall in prices and the rent value, in the meantime the use of sharing economy platforms such as Airbnb has increased encouraging the growth of real estate market demand in cities and favoring tourism in the urban areas (Amore, De Bernardi, and Arvanitis, 2020). From 2014, the scientific production increases intensively, innovative tools are considered to implement business model to deal with economic crisis as Cultural Technology District based on two main drivers Culture and Technology, with the main purpose to reach a sustained value creation through the cooperation of more actors (Di Pietro, Mugion, Renzi, 2014). Concepts as networking, social innovation (Alegre, and Berbegal-Mirabent, 2016) and relational capabilities (Lopes-Costa, and Munoz-Canavate, 2015) appear more frequently. Interactions and knowledge exchange encourage companies to create and implement innovative ideas (Schmallegger, Taylor and Carson, 2011). In 2020 there is the main explosion of the scientific production, 25 documents are counted only in one year, dome of them are focused on the diffusion of innovation in time of disaster (Dillette and Sun-Ah Ponting 2020) , pandemic crisis have pushed enterprise to rethink their business model (Breier et al., 2021), the role of digitalization and the tour operator is described during and after the pandemic crisis (Grigorescu et al., 2020).

Although the term sustainability is not a keyword usually taken in consideration in this field of research, it often appears in author's key words and key words plus (Fig.3).

Fig. 3: Co-occurrence Network



Source: our elaboration

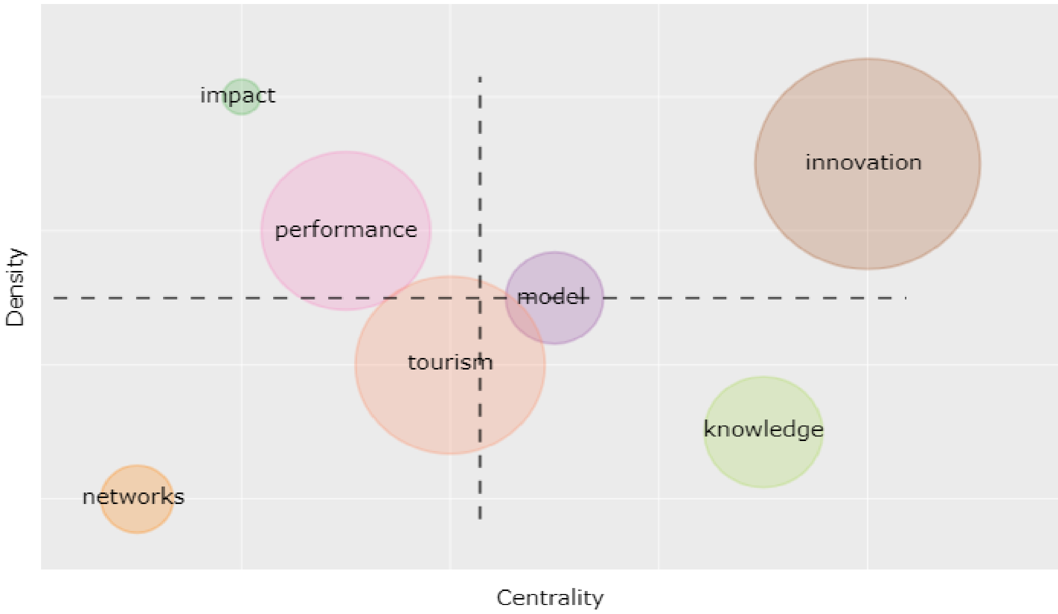
The conceptual structure offers a representation of relations among words or concepts in a set of documents. This structure allows us to discover the main topic investigated in a specific research area.

This graph is made up of vertexes, known as nodes and is made up of ledges, known as links. The size of vertexes represents the occurrence of the item in the document set and the size of ledges represents the item co-occurrences.

From the graph some of the most recurring words are: model, performance, network, sustainability, development, resilience, entrepreneurship. It is already possible to group the scientific documents in four main clusters, a first cluster where the connection between innovation and tourism is significant and visible, these words are visible in the document title, abstract and keywords. In a second cluster, innovation is a transversal theme related to the crisis, and it often appears in the Keywords plus. Keyword plus includes all that keywords in works cited in the reference list of the *documents considered in our sample. In the third cluster, the dominant theme is sustainability and its association with terms such as innovation and crisis, in this third cluster main sources belong to journals focused on sustainability, social and anthropological and geographical issue, the last cluster (Fig.3). Innovation plays a key role in all the dimension of sustainability, as we saw in the section related to the scientific production, innovation is a response to economic crisis, the local innovation favours the local economy and the local entrepreneurship (Carlisle, et al, 2013; Bourdeau, 2009). Scientific researches highlight the role of innovation in environmental issues (Kasima et al., 2014) and sustainable business model innovation as response to climate change issues (Dick-Forde et al., 2020). In terms of social cohesion authors sustain the role of innovation as form of sharing knowledge among different actors to obtain a sustained value (Nunes and Cooke, 2021; Di Pietro, Guglielmetti et al., 2014; Alegre, and Berbegal-Mirabent, 2016)*

The Thematic Map Figure (Fig. 4) allows us to identify four typologies of themes considering two main dimensions: density and centrality. Centrality refers to the importance of the theme in the research field and the density indicates the development of the theme.

Fig. 4: Thematic Map



Source: Our Elaboration

Themes in the upper-right quadrant themes are known as "motor themes" characterized by high centrality and density, this means that this theme is important for the research field and well developed.

Themes in the upper-left quadrant are known as "highly developed and isolated themes or niche themes", this means that the themes are well developed (high density) and they have a limited relevance for the research field (low centrality).

Themes in the lower-left quadrant are known as "emerging or declining themes". They are characterized by low density and low centrality, this means that the themes are not relevant for the topic research and not well studied.

Themes in the lower-right quadrant are known as "basic and transversal themes", characterized by high centrality and low-density. They are relevant for the research topic and not well developed.

The bubble name is the word with the highest occurrence value, the dimension of the bubble is referred to the occurence level of the word, and the bubble position is given to centrality and density level.

In the upper-right quadrant the motor theme is innovation (26) that is connected with other topics such as "model" and strategy, performance highlighting the role of innovation as a strategic driver. This is one of the most recurrent words connected to cluster innovation since some research subjects from which our analysis started belong to these categories "management" "business and strategy". Some authors describe the necessity of firms to review their business model (Breier et al, 2021), performance model (Ghasemi et al., 2020) as response to crisis.

Findings. *Evidence shows the strategic role of innovation in times of crises, relevant theories related to the innovation diffusion are illustrated. The term innovation often appears beside terms as sustainability, resilience development. The main mentioned crises are the Financial Crisis and the actual health emergency. During these two main events, the main variable both in terms of innovation and sustainability are considered and a new model is proposed.*

Authors and publication year	*Theory*	*Dimension*	*Context*
Nunes and Cooke; 2021	*Capitalism has been producing profound excesses for the economic, social and political unsustainability of the planet. The relation between tourism, innovation and sustainability The second result is the development of the concept of ST.i, that is, a 'territorial singularity' fuelled by 'territorial innovation' and that allows innovation and tourism to be coherently integrated in a territorial framework.*	*Territory dimension: Institutions, relational and functional, geographic Territory as singularity: governance shared model, territorial coherence, perfect resources. The preferct resource has seven characteristics: global scarcity; locally abundance: territorial control of the resource; territorial embeddedness; multiplier effects; use requires preservation (sustainability)and global demand. the territorial (geographical, economic and institutional) coherence results from the territorial articulation and integration of three components: governance models, knowledge bases and learning modes.*	*Post coronavirus era, where mobility restriction exists.*
Robertson, Swan, & Newell, 1996; Van de Ven, Polley, Garud, & Venkataraman, 1999; Wolfe, 1994 ***Diffusion of Innovation Theory*** *in Dillette & Sandra Sun-Ah Ponting 2020*	*DOI theory provides a framework for exploring how innovations are communicated within organizations in time of crisis.*	*innovation, social system, time and communication.*	*Health Emergency*
Kasima, Gursoy, Okumusc 2014	*The importance of water management in hotels: a framework for sustainability through innovation*	*4 R Approach: Innovative Reducing, Innovative Reusing, Innovative, Reaching and Innovative Recycling. Technology and information dimension,*	*Environmental Crisis: Water scarcity*
Di Pietro, Guglielmetti, Mugion and Renzi, 2014	*Cultural, technology district (CTD). a network of organization located in a specific geographical area with the purpose to reach a sustained value creation through two drivers: culture and technology.*	*Actors (local bodies, cultural organizations, local and national companies, investors and several stakeholders); Non-human entities (needs, satisfaction levels, information flows, funds, policies, social support, resources, research and studies); Interaction among all these elements.*	*Economic crisis*
Bourdeau, 2009	*The role of territorial inventiveness*	*Re -think places by leveraging on historical and natural artistic cultural resources*	*Economic Crisis*

Research implications and limitations. *This work offers a literature overview on the topic, considering different context of crises and their impact on tourism and the role of innovation, it can be useful for future research in the field, taking in consideration the various innovation dimensions emerged in the literature. Future researches could be extended analyzing the intellectual and social structure of the research topic.*

Practical implications. *This work underlines the importance of social involvement to create innovative models to answer social changes due to every kind of crisis that impacts the society. Indeed, innovation is pushed by the social needs emerging from the crisis. Especially the role of the customer has an important role in the process of innovation management.*

From a managerial point of view this work highlights the role of innovation to support firms to deal with turbulence circumstances, innovation management and innovation diffusion are included in the dynamic capabilities of an organization to renew skills to adapt to the external context and provoke changes regardless of external context.

Originality of the study. *This study offers an overview of scientific contributions focused on innovation management in times of crisis with specific reference to the tourism sector. It highlights the necessity to investigate relevant and emerging topic such as business models and sustainable tourism strongly connected to the main theme.*

Key words: *resilience, destination resilience, travel and tourism resilience, resilience management*

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Cruising intention during the COVID-19 pandemic

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Objectives. *Within the hospitality industry, cruising is one of the most susceptible industries to the current COVID-19 health crisis and therefore associated with amplified safety and security risks for its passengers and crewmembers (Gössling et al., 2020). When COVID-19 first manifested itself, cruise ships turned into traps, with thousands of passengers quarantined in their cabins and facing the challenge of returning home. Owing to the wide media coverage of the COVID-19 issues that cruise ships faced and the high number of deaths on board, consumers' general perception of their health risk has probably increased. When it became clear that cruise ships were an optimal field for infectious diseases due to the closed environment and the contacts between cruisers and the crew members, who are normally transferred between ships (Gössling et al., 2020), cruises became global tourisms' worst scenario. Based on this premise, COVID-19's influence on potential cruisers' travel behaviours should be investigated in order to understand the potential demand and create a discussion about cruise services' reorganisation. Our grasp of the complexities of consumers' intention to cruise may be incomplete and should therefore be investigated in greater depth.*

Taking the current COVID-19 situation into account, this study aims to answer to the following research question: During the COVID-19 pandemic era, which factors influence consumers' intention to cruise? In the cruise industry, attention to critical events, such as health crises, has become an imperative due to the number of critical events at sea and passengers' vulnerability increasing alarmingly (Penco et al., 2019; Tarlow et al., 2012). Safety is therefore emerging as an important issue, especially in the COVID-19 era, since it might influence customers' attitudes regarding purchasing cruises and even their decision-making process (Cleeren et al., 2008; Souiden and Pons, 2009). According to the protection motivation theory (Rogers, 1975), future intentions to cruise in risky situations are related to individuals' perceptions of the threat intensity, the likelihood that a threat might occur, and the estimation of their ability to cope with the threat. This theory suggests that in risky situations, such as a health crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic, the likelihood of having to engage in protective behaviours will increase and consumers' intention to buy will therefore diminish. Hence, in the present pandemic situation, consumers' intention to cruise may be influenced by many factors which can have an impact on the perceptions of seriousness of the threat or can help consumers to cope with the danger.

This study therefore investigates how the crowding on cruises (Hyun and Kim, 2015) and cruisers' health risk perceptions (Le and Arcodia 2018; Liu-Lastres and Schroeder, 2019; Mason et al., 2016) might influence the intention to cruise in the current pandemic era (i.e. H1 and H2).

Previously, scholars found that trust (Castaldo, 2007; Luhmann, 1991; Mishra, 1996; Shuv-Ami, 2017) and a cruise's prior reputation (Cassia et al., 2016; Laufer and Coombs, 2006) play a role in "risk absorption" in uncertain situations. This risk absorption reduces the risk level of the insecurity associated with a given situation. The study also addresses whether these variables could have a positive influence on the likelihood of consumers going on a cruise even in a pandemic situation (H3 and H4). We furthermore control for the roles that cruise motivation (Del Chiappa et al., 2017; Hung and Petrick, 2011) and self-confidence play (Valencia and Crouch, 2008) (H5 and H6). In addition, the study attempts to clarify whether there are differences between novice cruisers and repeat cruisers.

Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework and hypotheses development. We have also inserted two control variables in the model: familiarity and past cruise experience.

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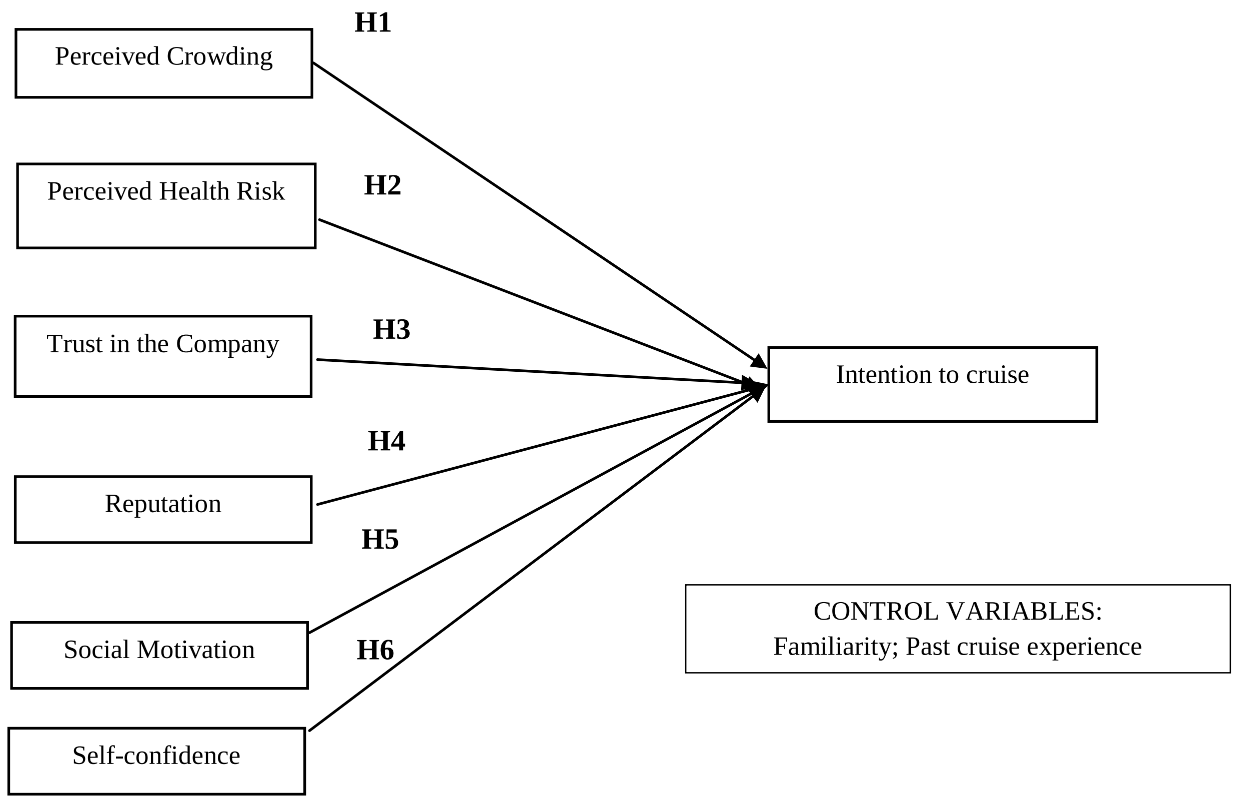
Fig. 1: Conceptual model



Methodology. *The study is based on the development of a structured questionnaire submitted online via social media. The questionnaire was structured into five sections. The first section focuses on cruising, exploring the respondents' familiarity with this type of vacation. The second is devoted to evaluating "the target company" in terms of trust in it and its reputation. The third section explores the respondents' self-confidence and motivations. The fourth section is aimed at evaluating the perception of the human crowding associated with a cruise vacation and the cruise package specific components, as well as the risk perception related to the COVID-19 situation and the respondents' future intention to cruise. The fifth section focuses on the respondents' sociodemographic data. The respondents had to answer all the items on seven-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), with the exception of the demographic information. Overall, 553 individuals' responses were used for understanding the factors that can affect the intentions to cruise by performing several regression models.*

Findings. *This study shed light on how cruisers perceive and react to the COVID-19 pandemic event, particularly in terms of their intention to go on a cruise in future. We thus investigated how the perception of crowding, the health risk, the corporate reputation and trust, together with social motivation and self-confidence influence intention to cruise during this pandemic period (Table 1).*

Although social distance is one of the most important issues that reduce the risk related to COVID-19, the perceived crowding during a cruise does not seem to influence people's intention to cruise. The first hypothesis (H1) is therefore rejected. It is well known that cruise ships and vacations (especially in the mass market) are normally crowded and, analogously to other entertainment services, crowding is not considered completely negative since it is a "part of the game". Conversely, a high health risk perception (RISK) seems to diminish the intention to cruise, confirming the second hypothesis (H2). As expected, the health concern related to COVID-19 creates negative emotions associated with anxiety, insecurity and fear, which have a deterring impact on cruisers' intention to travel.

Trust in the cruise company (TRUST) is confirmed as a positive important predictor of the intention to cruise (H3 accepted), because it reduces the perceived risk level (Laroche et al., 2004). It is true that trust in the company could probably compensate for an "external risk", such as the health risk related to COVID-19, which is difficult to manage, by means of a "relational risk", which is much more manageable. A cruise line's prior good reputation might influence potential customers' future cruising decisions after a critical event such as COVID-19. In particular, as several studies have already found, a cruise company's previous good reputation (REP) reduces the likelihood of a critical event affecting customers' intention to cruise (Coombs and Holladay, 2007), thus confirming H4. A good company reputation might support consumers' confidence in a company and its products/services (Souiden and Pons, 2009), leading to consumers' information processing being biased, which might lead them to discount or minimize negative news about a critical event (Cleeren et al., 2008), even if this is related to a global pandemic.

Tab. 1. Regression models

	Model		
Variable	***1***	***2***	***3***
CROW	-0.025	-0.023	-0.020
	(-0.673)	(-0.615)	(-0.549)
RISK	-0.251***	-0.239***	-0.233***
	(-6.942)	(-6.678)	(-6.526)
TRUST	0.213***	0.161***	0.169***
	(3.755)	(2.815)	(2.960)
REP	0.209***	0.240***	0.249***
	(3.614)	(4.174)	(4.340)
MOTIS	0.215***	0.195***	0.189***
	(4.682)	(4.277)	(4.168)
CONFID	0.198***	0.099*	0.103**
	(3.927)	(1.883)	(1.971)
FAM		0.167***	0.110**
		(4.061)	(2.362)
CRUISER			0.087**
			(2.541)
Constant	3,348E-16	1,195E-16	-0.128
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(-2.223)
Observations	553	553	553
Adjusted R-Squared	.569	.582	.586
F-Statistics	118.255***	106.701***	95.141***

T statistics are shown in brackets
* p< .1; ** p< .05; *** p<.01

Prior literature on cruise motivations found that cruising is a vacation whose social gatherings customers research, especially those in the cruise mass market. Consequently, crowding is not normally considered negative and congestion is less likely to cause annoyance (Kwortnik, 2008; Mahadevan and Chang, 2017). Even in a pandemic situation, the social motivation (MOTIS) influences INT positively, confirming H5. Social motivation is indeed the second factor which presents a greater influence on the intention to cruise. Cruise motivations do not seem to change much during a health crisis, which is perhaps why customers tolerate crowding more on cruises than in other hospitality services, explaining the unexpected finding regarding crowding.

Our findings demonstrate that self-confidence (CONFID) enhances the intention to cruise, which confirms previous literature's findings (Dickman, 2003). H6 is therefore confirmed. If cruisers are self-confident about their ability to find information and to evaluate the risks related to the situation, this awareness influences their intention to buy a cruise positively.

In sum, the results indicate that the perceived crowding does not seem to influence people's intention to cruise. Instead, trust in the cruise company, corporate reputation, cruisers' self-confidence and research of social motivation are positive predictors of intention to cruise, thus reducing the perceived risk's deterring impact.

We also performed a post hoc analysis in order to analyze the differences in their intention to cruise between "no repeat cruisers" and "repeat cruisers": the mean of the intention to cruise is 5.1 for repeaters, 4 for cruisers with 1 cruise taken, but only 3.45 for potential cruisers. The less experienced cruisers consider TRUST the strongest influencing factor on INT. Trust plays a "risk absorption" role, especially for less experienced cruisers, by reducing their level of uncertainty during the interaction (Luhman, 1979, 1991; Mishra, 1996). In other words, if you don't know the cruise industry well, you need to trust the company. Social motivation also seems an important variable for no repeat cruisers: the willingness to meet other people and strengthening a friendship or a relationship seem to lessen the high perceived health risk. Reputation (REP) is the most important predictor for expert cruisers. These cruisers consult blogs and social networks and are more aware of cruise lines' reputation than less experienced ones. Since confidence is an important factor in the creation of trust (Morgan and Hunt, 1994), a strong corporate reputation can strengthen customers' confidence and reduce consumers' risk perceptions when they assess the organisational performance and the products or services' quality.

Research limits. *This study has some limitations. Firstly, the empirical study only focused on Italian respondents. Secondly, the data collection method was internet-based and mainly directed at the Facebook pages of cruisers and a cruise blog. Moreover, although many studies have used multiple regressions to analyse intentions to buy, a structural equation model (SEM) could further enhance the findings' validity in order to detect latent variables and more complex relationships. Finally, this study is only focused on the demand and does not analyze corporate communication's role in shaping consumers' attitude or local destinations' possible restrictions on mega-ships and the cruise tourism in general. Future studies should include research focused on different countries. Moreover, future research should focus on the disparity between the attitude of passengers on larger ships versus those on smaller/luxury cruise ships. Since* *perceived crowding perceptions might also be relevant for crewmembers, future studies should also focus on them, in order to understand the effect of crowding, trust and their company's reputation on their risk perception. Additionally, it could be interesting to investigate interpersonal trust's role, because it is one of the drivers that influence concerns about crowding and social distancing behaviour. Finally, future studies could include an observational component to measure actual behaviours, since observational studies could help reduce the risk of self-reporting bias, because self-reporting measures do not always reflect actual protection motivation behaviour. According to Wen et al. (2020), the implementation of interdisciplinary research on neurosciences and psychology sciences could have important results, such as evaluating future vaccinations' role.*

Practical implications. *The study results have significant practical implications for the cruise industry by highlighting how crowding perceptions are related to the intention to cruise, thus helping cruise companies manage the space and the social interaction on their ships as well as cruisers' risk perceptions and trust, which could be useful when communicating strategies in the pandemic period.*

Since crowding's direct impact on intention to cruise does not appear to be significant, perceived crowding and social distancing are a problem for cruise companies if they are to avoid future quarantined ships, damage in terms of their legal responsibility and a negative image. Cruise liners need to implement a number of health and safety procedures in order to reduce the chances of COVID-19 spreading through a ship by following the CDC's and National Ministries' recommendations. Cruise companies have to reinvent how their passengers move on their ships and interact with other cruisers and crew, creating new logistic paths and substituting their recreational services with other forms of relaxation. Moreover, cruise lines must plan architectural interventions to revamp all highly trafficked area not orientated to maintaining social distancing (e.g., restaurants and buffets, pubs, discos). Before undertaking these interventions, cruise managers need to involve cruisers to identify the proper tools to use for education about a pandemic, thus preventing the risk of future quarantines, without creating a higher risk perception or fear, which might have a negative impact on their future intention to cruise. Repeaters are mainly "ready to cruise" due to their wide experience and knowledge of the cruise product, the cruise line's reputation and their trust in the company. However, less experienced cruisers' trust and self-confidence have a stronger influence on their intentions to cruise; they therefore seem less likely to do so in this period. The latter could create a problem for cruise companies in terms of their capacity and revenue management. Repeaters represent 55% of the Italian cruise market, but they only fill 40% of cruise ships' capacity, which leaves cruise companies with a breakeven-point problem. By taking the differences between less expert cruisers and repeat cruiser (trust vs reputation) into account, cruise managers should create a tailor-made communication for each targeted audience: enhance the less expert cruisers' trust in the company and in the cruise as a whole and, for repeat cruisers, reinforce the cruise company's reputation.

Originality of the study. *As far as we know, no previous studies have focused on how COVID-19 could affect consumer intention to cruise. Our study therefore adds to the relatively limited research on the effects of health-related risk perceptions associated with emerging crisis issues on individuals' evaluation of their perceived safety and their consequent intention to purchase a cruise.*

Given that a cruise package is a mix of several services (e.g. restaurant, hotellerie, entertainment, retailing), it could serve as a laboratory for other sectors, helping service organizations understand the most important factors that facilitate or inhibit the intention to use a service during the COVID-19 pandemic. In a broader perspective, the focus on the cruise industry sheds light on the global mass-tourism problem, since mass-tourism has proved to be fragile and unreliable, leading to a debate on a more responsible tourism and on the development of more economically equitable as well as more socially and more environmentally sustainable hospitality services.

Key words: *Crowding, cruise, reputation, risk, trust*

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Determinants of job pursuit intention and organisational attractiveness in a disaster recovery framework: evidence from the hospitality industry

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Objectives. *The present paper aims at shedding some light on how to recruit talents in the hospitality industry in a post-disaster scenario. Although it is not always possible to clearly define what the characteristics of a "talent" (Lewis & Heckman, 2006) are, companies consider talent management one of the most challenging issues in managing human resources (Collings et al., 2015; Ashton & Morton, 2005). In general, talent management refers to the attraction and overall management of those human resources "of particular value to an organisation to create strategic sustainable success" (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2020). Talent management is essential regardless of the sector and the firm's size, ranging from multinationals to small and micro enterprises (Festing et al., 2013; Valverde, 2013). Unfortunately, it can be extremely complicated in a post-disaster scenario, where talents are vital for an effective economic reconstruction, but the circumstances dramatically reduce local firms' attractiveness.*

In this research, we investigate the drivers that influence talent attraction in such a critical scenario. To the best of our knowledge, previous studies have not empirically analysed the intersection between these two topics, which, indeed, could provide interesting theoretical and managerial implications. From an academic standpoint, this research can contribute to the literature on talent management and the ability to attract high-profile candidates. It provides further evidence on the antecedents of choice to apply to a particular firm's specific position. Additionally, it adds evidence on the way a "compromised" image of a company involved in recovery from a disaster can, nevertheless, be restored and feed the attraction of talented applicants. Our results can help disentangle the drivers of firm attractiveness in the academic debate and provide HR managers with actionable suggestions.

In studying these relationships, the present research focuses on the hospitality industry. The reasons are twofold. First, the hospitality industry has a negative image in terms of talents' attraction because of the perception of a prevailing offer of low-profile positions, weak advancement perspectives, and seasonal work (Baum, 2002). Thus, the competition to attract and retain talents is by default challenging (Baum, 2008), particularly in the case of skilled and graduated employees (Barron, 2008; O'Leary e Deegan, 2005). The second reason refers to the disaster management literature, which identifies the Tourism and Hospitality industry as one of the most vulnerable yet relevant for a socio-economic recovery after a disaster (Orchiston, 2013). Fires, water floodings, hurricanes or earthquakes can cause damages and destruction of the touristic infrastructures, hindering the possibility to host guests (Huang and Min, 2002) but can also damage the natural and cultural heritage of a destination, reducing the touristic demand (Jiang e Ritchie, 2017). Moreover, a disaster can enormously increase the risk perception of a destination (Prideaux et al., 2005), often magnified by the media, lengthening the time needed for recovery (Gurtner, 2016; Ritchie, 2004).

Before designing our empirical research, we reviewed the literature to understand the state of art of talent management in the hospitality sector. The results from this literature review guided us in the definition of the conceptual model to test.

According to our literature review, we identified two variables that are particularly relevant for measuring the ability to attract high-profile applicants, namely, Organization Attractiveness (OA) and Job Pursuit Intention (JPI). OA "is reflected in individuals' affective and attitudinal thoughts about particular companies as potential places for employment" (Highhouse et al., 2003). OA is not a behaviour or an action, but it rather represents a state of mind on how much an organisation can be considered a fulfilling workplace (Boğan et al., 2020). In other words, it captures the desirability that working for a given organisation assumes for an individual. JPI is, instead, the intention to apply for a specific position advised by a particular company (Rynes, 1991). According to Chang and Tanford (2018), JPI is a typical outcome variable in empirical research on recruitment and talent acquisition.

Concerning the factors that the literature considered as drivers of OA or JPI, we focused on social responsibility, career opportunities, and firm reputation. Social responsibility encompasses both environmental orientation and community orientation (Boğan and Dedeoğlu, 2019). It represents a consolidated driver for workers' and applicants'

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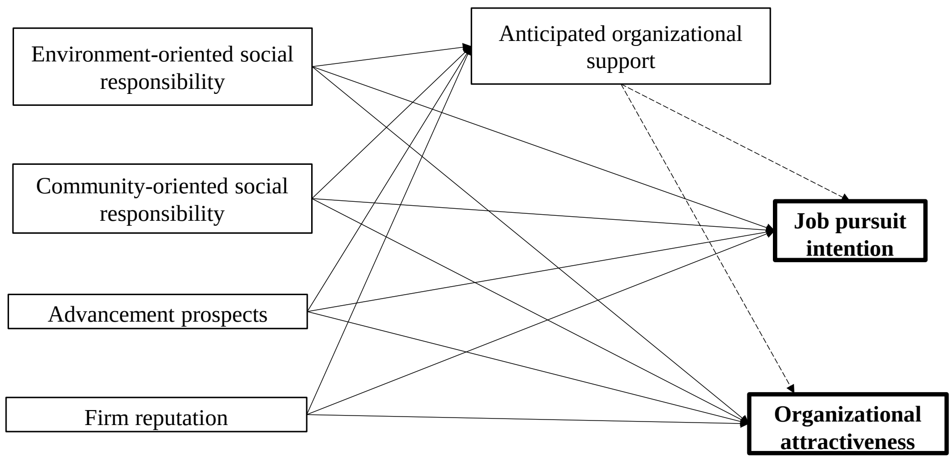
commitment to the hospitality industry firms (Yeung, 2004), especially among young generations (Barber et al., 2011). Career opportunities and advancement prospects are related to the possibility of future development within the company, giving the option to obtain economic rewards and career progression (Chang and Tanford, 2018). Previous evidence has highlighted how advancement prospects are key drivers of hospitality/tourism students' professional choices (Kim et al., 2010). In this research, firm reputation refers to the applicant's evaluation of a company as an employer (Chang and Tanford, 2018) according to social identity theory and signalling theory (Rynes, 1991). Finally, organisational support refers to the applicant's perception of a company's ability to take care of its employees and enhance their work (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In other words, in this study, we considered only anticipated organisation support (those perceived by applicants) and not the proven organisational support, which applies only to a company's actual workers. According to Chang and Tanford (2018) model, we consider the anticipated organisational support as a mediating variable.

Figure 1 shows the proposed conceptual model we test through empirical research.

Fig. 1: The proposed conceptual model



The next section provides some details on the method adopted to compare disaster recovery and non-disaster recovery contexts. This comparison allows us to understand the relations among the variables mentioned above and identify those that are most significant in the recovery from a disaster. The paper concludes by turning theoretical implications into a guide on how to improve talents' attraction and retention from a disaster recovery perspective in the hospitality industry.

Methodology. *The empirical research grounds on an experimental design carried out during summer 2020. Four different stimuli were administrated online to 242 young people (Y and Z generation) as follows: 62 respondents for stimulus 1 and 60 respondents for each of the other three stimuli. The four stimuli derive from a 2x2 manipulation of vertical characteristics, namely the job's location and the fundamentals of the job offer. The location was useful to understand whether disaster recovery influences the choice to apply or not for a specific job. For this reason, we referred to two different locations: one less accessible, less economically attractive and seismic town (namely, the town of Norcia, still involved in the reconstruction and recovery after the earthquake in 2016), and the other one, in the same region, but more attractive in terms of opportunities, accessibility, and services (the town of Perugia). The company's characteristics represent the other feature: high-profile (with a high level of environmental and community-oriented social responsibility, high advancements prospects, and high firm reputation) or low-profile (with a low level of environmental and community-oriented social responsibility, low advancements prospects and low firm reputation). Summarising the four scenarios are:*

- *Scenario 1: low location - high-profile company*
- *Scenario 2: high location - high-profile company*
- *Scenario 3: high location - low-profile company*
- *Scenario 4: low location - low-profile company*

Respondents processed the stimuli delivered as job advertisements describing the company's characteristics, the job position, and the location. The compensation did not vary among the stimuli to not influence respondents through differential economic incentives (not considered in the research).

After reading the randomly assigned job advertisement, each participant replied to some questions to measure the dependent and independent variables. Each dimension was measured through multi-items scales (7-point Likert scale) adopted by the extant literature, as shown in table 1. In table 1 are also summarised the validity tests carried out after the Confirmation Factory Analysis (CFA) to assess the reliability of the constructs.

Tab. 1: Variables, labels, scales, and construct validity tests

Variables	***Labels***	***N. items (original scale)***	***KMO***	***Cronbach's α***
Job pursuit intention	*JPI*	*5 (Chang and Tanford, 2018)*	*0.817*	*0.886*
Organisational attractiveness (OA)	*OA*	*4 (Boğan et al., 2020)*	*0.830*	*0.877*
Anticipated organisational support	*AOS*	*4 (Chang and Tanford, 2018)*	*0.798*	*0.870*
Environment-oriented social responsibility	*EOSR*	*5 (Boğan and Dedeoğlu, 2019)*	*0.915*	*0.977*
Community-oriented social responsibility	*COSR*	*5 (Boğan and Dedeoğlu, 2019)*	*0.840*	*0.959*
Advancement prospects	*AP*	*3 (Chang and Tanford, 2018)*	*0.676*	*0.831*
Firm reputation	*FR*	*4 (Chang and Tanford, 2018*	*0.816*	*0.932*

Findings. *This section shows the study's most relevant results, obtained by performing a SEM on the whole sample and an ANOVA analysis to understand the differences between the four scenarios. Tables 2 and 3 show the main descriptive statistics related to the variables measured.*

Tab. 2: Descriptive statistics

Variable	***Obs***	***Mean***	***Std.Dev.***	***Min***	***Max***
JPI_1	*242*	*5.083*	*0.999*	*1.0*	*7.0*
JPI_2	*242*	*4.376*	*1.106*	*1.0*	*7.0*
JPI_3	*242*	*5.240*	*0.973*	*2.0*	*7.0*
JPI_4	*242*	*4.190*	*1.049*	*1.0*	*7.0*
JPI_5	*242*	*5.070*	*1.156*	*2.0*	*7.0*
OA_1	*242*	*4.802*	*0.961*	*1.0*	*7.0*
OA_2	*242*	*3.331*	*1.155*	*1.0*	*7.0*
OA_3	*242*	*4.541*	*1.027*	*1.0*	*7.0*
OA_4	*242*	*4.607*	*1.026*	*1.0*	*7.0*
OA_5	*242*	*4.492*	*1.032*	*2.0*	*7.0*
AOS_1	*242*	*4.558*	*1.225*	*1.0*	*7.0*
AOS_2	*242*	*3.740*	*1.343*	*1.0*	*7.0*
AOS_3	*242*	*4.512*	*1.223*	*1.0*	*7.0*
AOS_4	*242*	*4.550*	*1.242*	*1.0*	*7.0*
EOSR_1	*242*	*4.698*	*1.571*	*1.0*	*7.0*
EOSR_2	*242*	*4.521*	*1.673*	*1.0*	*7.0*
EOSR_3	*242*	*4.603*	*1.543*	*1.0*	*7.0*
EOSR_4	*242*	*4.628*	*1.581*	*1.0*	*7.0*
EOSR_5	*242*	*4.512*	*1.589*	*1.0*	*7.0*
COSR_1	*242*	*4.620*	*1.459*	*1.0*	*7.0*
COSR_2	*242*	*4.636*	*1.414*	*1.0*	*7.0*
COSR_3	*242*	*4.492*	*1.628*	*1.0*	*7.0*
COSR_4	*242*	*4.351*	*1.539*	*1.0*	*7.0*
COSR_5	*242*	*4.335*	*1.562*	*1.0*	*7.0*
AP_1	*242*	*4.310*	*1.077*	*1.0*	*7.0*
AP_2	*242*	*4.851*	*1.117*	*1.0*	*7.0*
AP_3	*242*	*4.244*	*1.020*	*1.0*	*7.0*
FR_1	*242*	*4.430*	*1.009*	*1.0*	*7.0*
FR_2	*242*	*4.702*	*1.075*	*1.0*	*7.0*
FR_3	*242*	*4.446*	*1.152*	*1.0*	*7.0*
FR_4	*242*	*4.603*	*1.082*	*1.0*	*7.0*

Tab. 3: Means of the dependent and mediator variables for each scenario

Variable	*Scenario 1*	*Scenario 2*	*Scenario 3*	*Scenario 4*
JPI	*5.174*	*5.233*	*4.601*	*4.260*
OA	*4.558*	*4.737*	*4.110*	*4.007*
AOS	*4.637*	*4.888*	*3.925*	*3.900*

The first step was to carry out a SEM on the whole sample to test the relations among dependent, independent, and mediator variables. Table 4 presents the SEM results.

Tab. 4: SEM results

	JPI	***OA***	***AOS***
AOS	0.168**	0.106*	
	(0.0633)	*(0.0539)*	
AP	0.469***	0.230**	0.330***
	(0.108)	*(0.0730)*	*(0.0871)*
FR	0.314**	0.372***	0.280**
	(0.0998)	*(0.0891)*	*(0.106)*
EOSR	-0.01000	-0.0780	0.0353
	(0.0698)	*(0.0613)*	*(0.0924)*
COSR	-0.0976	0.167*	0.343**
	(0.0964)	*(0.0829)*	*(0.123)*

Standard errors in parentheses
** $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$*

The SEM confirms the validity of the proposed model, presenting reasonable fit indexes (RMSEA=0.070; CFI=0.913; TLI=0.900; SRMR=0.076). The model confirms that AOS acts as a mediating variable, positively influencing both JPI and OA. It is, in turn, influenced by AP, FR, and COSR. Surprisingly the participants do not consider EOSR a determinant of the dependent and mediating variables. Community-oriented social responsibility is more relevant in influencing applicant choice than environmental-oriented social responsibility (at least for OA).

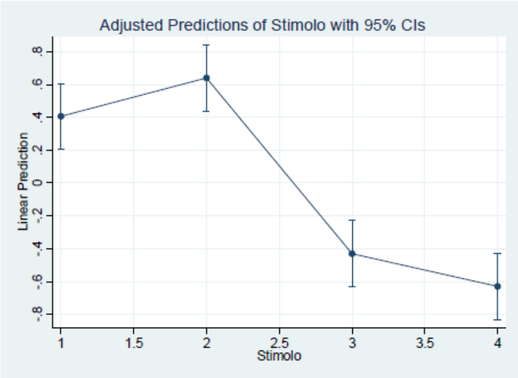
Both advancement prospect and firm reputation are significant predictors of JPI and OA.

Once we assessed the fit of the model and understood the most significant relations among the variables, we performed an ANOVA analysis to test for differences between the stimuli and understand if a company located in a "damage" territory can lever some features to attract high-profile workers. Figure 2 shows the margin plots of each variable, calculated on the factor loadings returned by CFA.

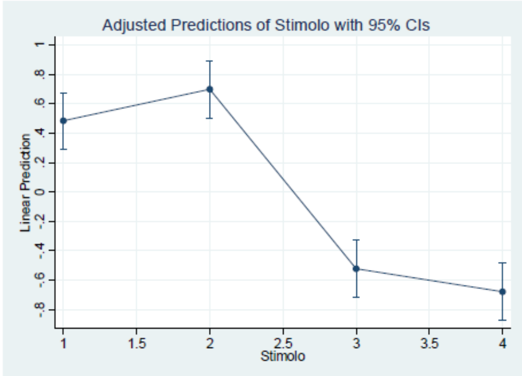
The findings highlight that, for each variable, respondents have more positive reactions after the exposure to Scenario 2 (high location - high-profile company) and that there are no significant differences in case of exposure to Scenario 1 (low location - high-profile company). Scenario 3 (high location - low-profile company) and Scenario 4 (low location - low-profile company) have substantially similar effects, as participants equally less appreciate both these two job offers. The difference between scenarios 1-2 and 3-4 is significant. This difference highlights that the job location is not an insurmountable obstacle because features such as high reputation, company support, career perspectives, and social responsibility towards the community can help overcome it. Job location seems to play a role only in discriminating among companies with a low profile. In fact, a better job location can make the difference basically when applicants have to choose between companies with similar (low) characteristics.

Fig. 2: Margins plots of the ANOVA test

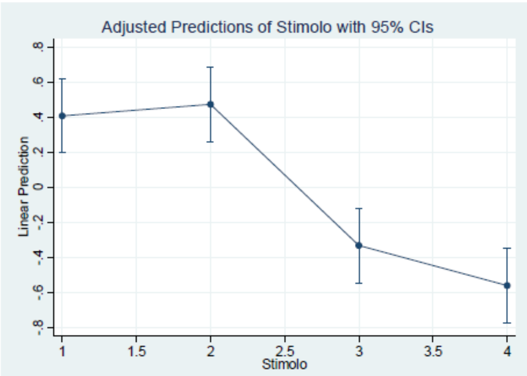
JPI



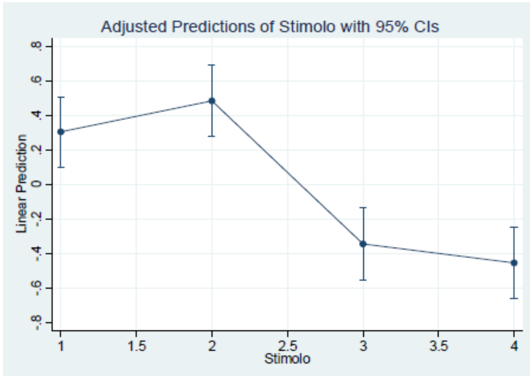
OA



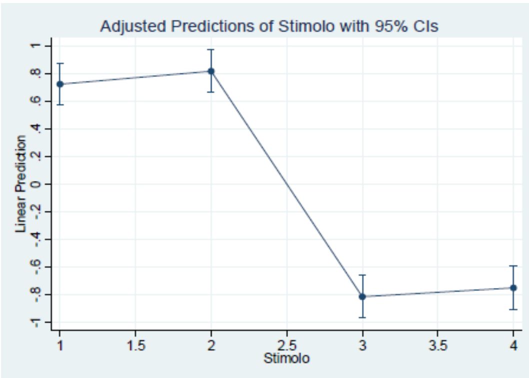
AOS



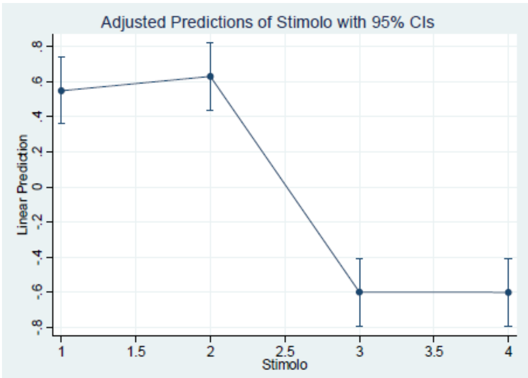
AP



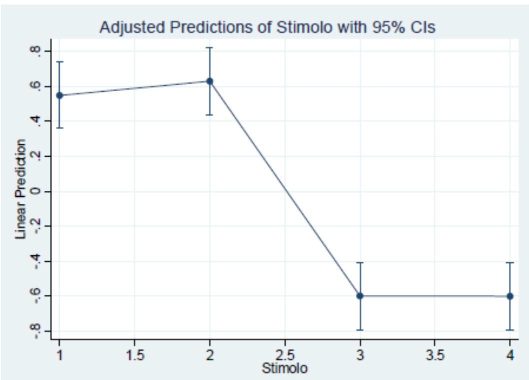
EOSR



COSR



FR



Research limits. *This research has some limitations. Firstly, it is carried out on a heterogeneous sample of respondents without controlling for socio-demographic characteristics. Although it is composed only by the target generation (Z and Y) and gender composition is respected, the sample is represented only by volunteers. Even though this may have guaranteed the accuracy of the answer, future research might further investigate the effects of potential self-selection biases. Secondly, the sample is composed only of Italian respondents, and the proposed scenarios referred explicitly to two job locations (namely, the town of Norcia and Perugia). These characteristics of the research design might limit the possibility to generalize our findings to different socio-economic environments. Finally, the research focuses on the specific sector of hospitality. Future research should focus on other industries and other geographical contexts to check for similarities and differences with our study. In this way, the confirmation of our results might improve the possibility to generalise our findings and strengthen their implications.*

Practical implications. *This study contributes to the literature on talent management, extending it to a disaster recovery framework. It has managerial implications for the hospitality sector (on which the empirical research is focused). The first group of considerations is linked to the factors influencing an organisation's attractiveness as a workplace. Our findings reveal that there are not strong relations between corporate social responsibility and JPI (or OA). Unexpectedly, in particular, environmental issues do not seem to influence a company's attractiveness as an employer. In contrast, applicants seem to be more sensitive to the social responsibility oriented towards the community. These results might reveal that applicants perceive the companies' environmental orientation as something "normal", but they pay greater attention to the links with communities. This manifestation of social responsibility might result still "unexpected" and, thus, can positively influence an organisation's image. Moreover, OA and JPI are strengthened by firm reputation and career perspectives. As already confirmed by extant literature, strong employer branding and the possibility of succeeding in the career are the most relevant determinants of applicants' choices, and this should guide the HR management and the communication strategy of the companies operating in the hospitality industry that want to attract and retain high-profile employees. These results confirm the need for investment in HR growth and empowerment, and the communication of such kind of initiative, in order to "reassure" potential and current workers in the hospitality industry, which can suffer from a perception of a low-quality workplace (as seen in the introduction)*

Besides these implications, this study offers some new suggestions for hospitality companies experiencing a disaster recovery wave. The results obtained help to understand that a company involved in disaster recovery can have access to talented workers and that its ability to compete in the job market is not compromised. To this end, the company must strengthen and communicate some characteristics such as its attention and support to workers and the community or the internal career paths and internal professional growth. These features seem to balance the image of a less accessible or safe territory, damaged by a disaster. In synthesis, if the job offer is attractive and the employer brand of the company is positive and strong, the growth prospects and the person-organization fit are prevailing on the scarce attractiveness of the location. The applicant's choice is guided by the characteristics of the company and the overall job experience, rather than its location, even if hit by a disaster.

Originality of the study. *This study is aimed at providing further empirical evidence on the factors influencing the ability of a company to attract high-profile workers, the so-called talents. The results obtained confirm the extant literature but, at the same time, allow to reflect on some unexpected results, such as the scarce influence of the environmental issues. But, the main novelty offered by this paper is the analysis of talent management in the context of disaster recovery. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first research of its kind to explore how hospitality companies can overcome the cognitive damages derived from a disaster and relaunch their image as employers. In synthesis, the study offers first insights on how some features of the company can help overcome the low attraction of a territory hit by disasters and efficacy compete on the attraction and retention of talents.*

Key words: *Talent management; disaster recovery; hospitality sector*

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ICTs tools combining smart experiences and digital engagement to enhance sustainability: a practice-led insight into tourism destinations

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Objectives. *Digitalisation plays a relevant role in developing smarter destinations, nurturing travel experience innovation and contributing to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the United Nations, potentially addressing challenges such as seasonality and overcrowding (UNWTO, 2020). The European Commission is implementing the European Capital of Smart Tourism initiative, strengthening the connection between tourism-generated innovative development and sustainable development in cities.*

Acknowledging the potential of ICT platforms to radically change tourism destinations, practitioners and policymakers are experimenting with new ways to capitalise on disruptive digital power in COVID-19 era. ICT platforms are reshaping human-technology interaction in physical and virtual tourism experiences and are introducing innovative tools to manage and address tourism imbalances and unsustainable stakeholder behaviours (Femenia-Serra and Neuhofer, 2018; Trunfio and Campana, 2019; Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021).

Destinations as complex and dynamic systems of actors that develop socio-technological relationships create, share and transform knowledge into diverse forms of innovation (Racherla et al., 2008; Sheehan et al., 2016; Trunfio and Campana, 2019). In this scenario, technology-driven innovation enriches the destination with new value propositions and pushes forward the definition of new business models of sustainable development (Trunfio and Campana, 2020; Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021).

Although academics and policymakers worldwide recognise the disruptive power of innovation and diverse start-ups introduced ICT tools to innovate tourism experiences, research on technology-driven innovation in tourism destinations manifests grey areas, opening rooms for future research (Trunfio and Campana, 2019). How destination management organisations (DMOs) can lever on ICT tools to enhance combined forms of stakeholder engagement and experience co-creation and drive destination towards sustainable development remains largely unexplored.

This exploratory research aims to contribute to the debate on technology-driven innovation in the destination by cross-fertilising contributions that derive from adopting different disciplinary and theoretical domains (Eisenhardt et al., 2016; George et al., 2016): digital engagement, experience co-creation and sustainable development. Three areas of investigation have been chosen for the disruptive and pervasive role of ICTs in innovating the destination development model and facilitating stakeholder value co-creation. The paper maps and discusses ICT tools on which destination management organizations are levering in international destinations to enhance stakeholder engagement, experience co-creation and sustainable development. Adopting a practice-led approach, the research proposes theoretical advances and offers managerial practices for destination managers.

Literature considered the ICTs infrastructures as able to stimulate and enhance actors' collaboration in destination networks and stakeholder engagement, supported by alternative forms of bottom-up and top-down legitimation and power (Baggio and Cooper, 2010; Go and Trunfio, 2011; Martínez-Pérez et al., 2019; Sigala, 2018; Stankov and Filimonau, 2019; Tuli et al., 2019; Trunfio and Campana, 2020).

The engagement of complex networks of stakeholders is widely recognised in destination management as one of the main drivers of value co-creation, offering both participatory decision-making and forms of e-democracy (Cabiddu et al., 2013; Melis et al., 2015; Hays et al., 2013; Munar, 2012; Rihova et al., 2014; Sigala and Marinidis, 2012; Trunfio

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and Della Lucia, 2019). It also impacts tourist satisfaction, tourist loyalty, revisit intention, intention to word-of-mouth, decision-making process and strengthens the long-lasting relationship with the destination (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Vivek et al., 2012).

DMOs capitalise on digital platforms to enhance stakeholder interaction and engagement and integrate multiple knowledge that drives forms of participative destination innovation (Trunfio and Della Lucia, 2019). Social media and other digital tools redefine how tourists, residents and other stakeholders openly and act as co-creators of value. They contribute to generating contents (e.g., sharing and viewing contents from a brand), designing dynamic visit experiences and building brand reputation (Barger et al., 2016; Brodie et al., 2013; Pasquinelli et al., 2021; Oh et al., 2017; Van Doorn et al., 2010), while providing significant inputs for destination strategy-making.

The tourism experience is one of the leading topics in tourism research. Cross-fertilising diverse disciplines, tourism experiences are progressively evolving towards more complex interpretations (Stienmetz et al., 2020). Considering the complexity of the tourism experience co-creation (Prebensen and Foss, 2011), which involves diverse actors, including tourists, significant challenges emerged in framing the role of ICTs and its impact on the human-technology interaction (Femenia-Serra and Neuhofer, 2018; Neuhofer et al., 2012; Trunfio and Campana, 2020). Levering on the combination of offline and online tools, DMOs enhance value in digital network interactions and participatory decision-making, enabling forms of experience co-creation and destination value co-creation (Trunfio and Della Lucia, 2019).

ICTs platforms caused radical changes redefining physical and virtual experience co-creation spaces in the pre, during and post travel phases (Neuhofer et al., 2012). A technology-enhanced destination experiences model, framed two levels of co-creation (physical and virtual co-creation), involving diverse destination stakeholders in multiple levels of engagement (Neuhofer et al., 2012). Stakeholders' active physical and digital participation in the experience journey (before, during and after consumption) produces an experiential value in use (Ranjan and Read, 2014).

Levering on ICTs, destinations have access to external knowledge based on the attraction and involvement of creative and intellectual talents and tourists, transforming destinations in a dynamic system of experience co-creation, co-gamification, and co-personalisation (Buonincontri and Micera, 2016; Femenia-Serra et al., 2019; Neuhofer et al., 2012; Trunfio and Campana, 2019).

Building on the experience economy theoretical framework, which combined learning, education, and entertainment with aesthetic and escapist experiences (Pine and Gilmore, 1999), literature framed multiple typologies of emotional and immersive experiences. ICTs innovation played a significant role in innovating and enhancing immersive experiences, such as: education, heritage valorisation, socialisation, escape, and entertainment (Trunfio et al., 2020).

Innovation in tourism destinations involves diverse actors, including tourists, in experiences co-creation (Trunfio and Campana, 2019), creating sustainable development conditions (Femenia-Serra et al., 2019; Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021). Technology-driven innovation empowers the combination of smartness and sustainability concepts to stimulate actors' problematisation to anticipate, identify, and manage urban and social issues that could afflict the destination development negatively (Buhalis and Amaranggana, 2013; Cimbaljević et al., 2019; Del Chiappa and Baggio, 2015; Gretzel et al., 2015; Ivars-Baidal et al., 2019; Trunfio and Campana, 2019; Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021).

An integration between the sustainable destination and the smart destination concepts was proposed in the overtourism debate by two conceptual frameworks, focusing on urban issues regarding mobility, housing, provision of services, social segregation and the environmental footprint in relation to tourism development. First, the Smart City Hospitality Framework (Koens et al., 2019) proposed a destination design-driven approach to governing tourism in the city, by merging sustainable development and the city hospitality dimensions (liveability, experience quality, smart hospitality, sustainability and equitability and resilience). Second, the Smart-City Lens (Pasquinelli and Trunfio, 2020a) framed sustainable development in knowledge-based destinations as driven by three key elements (i.e., internal and external actors, including tourists, ICTs platforms and social capital) which facilitate inclusive forms of sustainable tourism development and reconcile forms of bottom-up engagement in sustainable development with an institutional top-down dimension.

Literature proposed diverse smart technology tools supporting sustainable development (Ali and Frew, 2014a; Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021), including the redirecting of tourism flows from iconic sites, and practice-oriented debate recommended the use of technologies to address overtourism and promote sustainable destinations (UNWTO, 2018). Recent literature showed that most of the actions undertaken to address sustainability are based on smart technologies or can fruitfully integrate them (Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021). Regulative, management and marketing actions are based on smart technologies or can exploit their power (Pasquinelli and Trunfio, 2020b). The smart technology tools support the management and marketing rationales for actions, for example through data collection and big data analysis (Gajdošík, 2019). Smart tech-based actions are aimed at: a) dispersing tourist flows and shaping tourists' behaviours; b) planning, managing and marketing the destination; c) integrating tourism in a broader vision of development; and d) engaging with visitors. On the other side, destination managers seem not to adopt specific smart tools when developing regulatory actions (Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021). Considering these traditional actions, there seems to be a significant unexploited opportunity to capitalise on smart technology power. Smart tech for limiting access can, for instance, contribute to real-time redirection of tourist flows, or support the definition and respect of limitations against the uncontrolled spread of hospitality business and non-professional short-term rentals.

Further analysis showed that the smart tools for addressing sustainability can engage tourists and tourism stakeholders (e.g., tourism organisations) but also the whole system of stakeholders (belonging to the tourism market or to the wider local community), to responsibly address and manage the tourism impacts.

Methodology. *An exploratory empirical study surveyed smart technology tools adopted within international destinations, where DMOs invested in ICT-based tools, as potentially disruptive and pervasive infrastructures for destination sustainable development. The practice-led research approach proposed in this study moves from the need to highlight opportunities for a combination of different technological functions, which are usually treated in literature by distinct theoretical domains. These are the digital engagement and the smart experiences, which are proposed by this study as entangled with sustainable tourism development. This implies an integration of diverse theoretical constructs, which have never been explored in combination in previous studies (Baxter and Jack, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Eisenhardt et al., 2016; Xiao and Smith, 2006; Yin, 2014).*

An original dataset was built through a worldwide mapping of ICT tools. Data collection employed secondary sources (online documents, online reports, online magazines, and website information) and 57 tools were extracted from September to December 2020 through Google search engine. The criterion for inclusion of tools in the dataset was the relevance of the tools for the destination as a system (tools adopted for the single site/attractor were discarded) and the DMOs as owner of the ICTs tool. Six researchers came together in an interactive discussion group to screen the preliminary 57 ICT-based tools and remove all tools that were not closely related to the phenomenon investigated, safeguarding the research quality and effectiveness (Nyumba et al., 2018). Each tool was described and coded according to: Ali and Frew's (2014a, 2014b) macro-categories of ICT tools for sustainability; scale of implementation (i.e., city, metropolitan area, region or country level); involvement of four destination actors (i.e., internal actors such as firms and local communities, and external actors such as tourists); phases of the destination experience in which the tool plays a role (i.e., pre-visit, during the visit, post-visit); and, finally, sustainable development approaches to actions (i.e., regulative, marketing and management).

ICT-based tools in international destinations assessed as eligible for the analysis were 42. The analysis described the set of tools and a cross-case analysis highlighted ICTs similarities and differences across the international destinations.

Findings. *This exploratory paper introduces fresh knowledge in the academic debate on smart sustainable development integrating smart tourism experiences and digital engagement as leading topics in tourism research.*

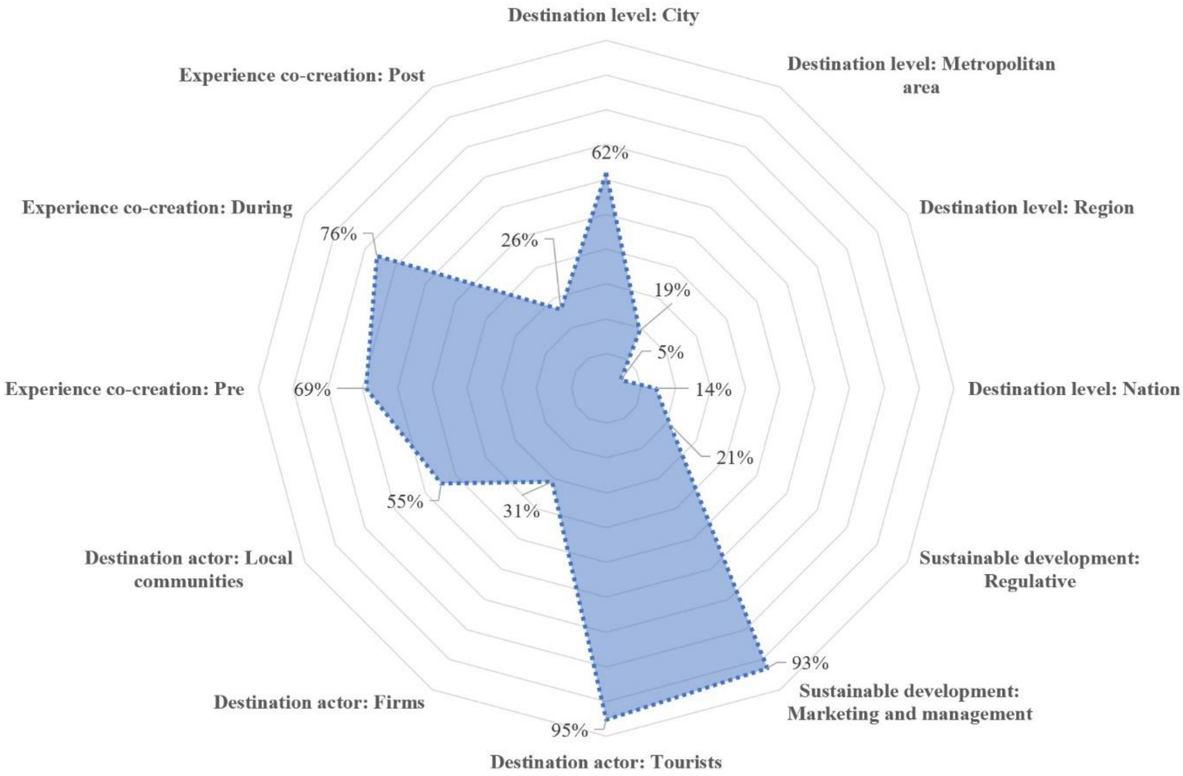
Three prevailing key ICT-tools (Ali and Frew, 2014a, 2014b) has been adopted by international destinations (Table 1): virtual tourism (31%), location-based services (21%), and community informatics (17%).

Tab. 1: Frequencies of ICT-based tools macro-categories in international destinations

Ali and Frew's (2014a, 2014b) ICT-based tools	**Frequency**	**%**
Virtual Tourism	13	31%
Location-based system	9	21%
Community Informatics	7	17%
Tourism Information System	6	14%
Destination Management System	2	5%
Intelligent Transport System	2	5%
Environment Management Information Systems	1	2%
Economic Impact Analysis Software	1	2%
Not classified	1	2%
Total	42	100%

Findings suggest international DMOs are levering on diverse technological tools (Fig. 1) to enhance technology-driven innovation in tourism destinations that combines stakeholder engagement and smart experience to project the destination towards sustainable development (Buhalis and Amaranggana, 2013; Femenia-Serra and Neuhofer, 2018; Trunfio and Campana, 2020; Trunfio and Pasquinelli, 2021).

Fig. 1: The impact of ICT-based tools in international destinations



Destination sustainable development represents the prevailing purpose of the smart tools introduced before and during the pandemic crisis worldwide. 93% of sampled international destinations adopted various digital tools to support destination sustainable managerial and marketing actions. Innovative ICT applications aim to redirect flows, reduce overcrowding, introduce new thematic products and stimulate changes in tourist behaviours (Pasquinelli and Trunfio, 2020b). These best practices may concretise the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and potentially support the building of new smart tourism models that pursue health, well-being and quality of life (Pasquinelli & Trunfio, 2020a).

The urban (62%) and metropolitan areas (19%) are the prevailing contexts that capitalise on smart tools for destination management. Urban DMOs invested on smartness to enhance the city hospitality values and move towards forms of sustainable development based on liveability, quality of tourism experience, equitability and resilience (Koens et al., 2019; Pasquinelli and Trunfio, 2020a).

Digital stakeholder engagement represents a key driver of the destination sustainable development, as consolidated literature affirmed (Cabiddu et al., 2013; Hays et al., 2013; Sigala and Marinidis, 2012; Trunfio and Della Lucia, 2019). ICT tools have been mainly launched to engage tourists (95%) in experience and sustainability awareness.

Capitalising on the technology power, diverse tools integrate the external perspective with local communities (55%) and firm involvement (31%), creating virtual spaces where the value of meeting local community and co-createing experiences can be pursued.

Technology involves diverse destination stakeholders in multiple levels of engagement, which integrate physical and digital spaces during the experience in most cases (76%), as consolidated literature affirmed (Neuhofer et al., 2012; Ranjan and Read, 2014). Adopting new technologies to build virtual pre-experience (69%) represents another leading aspect emerging from the analysis. Virtual experience may create desire to visit destination or substitute the physical experience in the COVID-19 time. They included all virtual tools (e.g., augmented reality, virtual reality, and mixed reality) that provided innovative ways to get access to a huge amount of destination information - about places, restaurants, hotels, cultural monuments, tours, etc. - reshaping economic, physical and social landscapes in cities with the augmentation or virtualisation of the reality.

Diverse typologies of ICTs tools driving sustainability in destination emerged, which has been adopted during (or pre) smart experience involving diverse internal and external stakeholders. Four cases have been chosen considering their complexity, innovativeness and value for the destinations.

The first case summarises the prevailing situation worldwide: smart tools has been adopted during the experience (83%) to involve tourists (95%) in innovative experience in the destination. These tools combine tourist physical presence in the destination with digital additional contents (information, booking, alternative itineraries, etc.) and virtual or augmented experiences. They represent a consolidated topic in academic research and one of the main issues for policy-makers and destination managers. For instance, the Aruba Health App adopted a Tourism Information

System which helps travellers keep up-to-date on health information, including businesses that meet higher health-safety standards, as well as COVID-19 test results. It facilitates more informed and healthy trip enhancing health and sense of safety.

The second case maps destinations in which during the experience the ICT tools facilitate the involvement of tourist and also internal stakeholders such as local community and firms. Pokemon Go represents an innovative case of gamification on which destinations around the globe have been investing incorporating the augmented reality game into their creative marketing activities. Niantic (Nintendo) realised a partnership with the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) to support "Travel Enjoy Respect" campaign, designed to enhance tourism's contribution to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Los Angeles, and other cities around the world, are investing on this unusual destination marketing to "Discover Los Angeles". They created thematic itineraries and contents, including guides for tourists and locals who wish to catch Pokémon, and realised blog posts to trainer citizens and visitors. Besides, installed spots to catch less common Pokémon, along with corresponding hotel and restaurant recommendations.

The third case identifies tools that combine pre- and during visit experiences for tourist. Smart pre- experience promotes the destination and enhances the desire to visit and combines virtual with physical experience. Virtual tours play a relevant role in the pre-experience as the cases of the Table Rock State Park VR Experience-virtual tour (South Carolina, US). It represents a virtual tour including four iconic stops along the trail which involves tourists during the physical visit but also in the virtual spaces anticipating or substituting the contents of the visit. VR can also proactively slow environmental degradation and overcrowding, partially substituting the on-site experiences, with a benefit for heritage and natural preservation.

The fourth case presents the more complex cases of adoption and deployment of ICT tools in which DMOs are levering on technology to enhance shared sustainable development. Smart technology tools allow the encounter between tourists and local community and facilitate awareness and desire to visit the destination (pre-experience) and enhance opportunities for experience co-creation. These platforms represent an opportunity for DMOs and policy-makers because they allow nurturing shared knowledge on sustainable issues and involve all stakeholders in inclusive actions of sustainable tourism development.

Respect the City (RTC) represents the innovative strategic destination management project of Dubrovnik which adopted an Environment Management Information Systems to drive stakeholders towards sustainable and responsible tourism. The aim is to reduce the negative impacts of overtourism, to preserve the cultural heritage, to enhance the quality of citizens' daily lives and to ensure immersive and unusual experiences. They adopted system for predicting the volume of visitors at tourist sites and introduced Artificial Intellingence systems (e.g., Smart Parking/Dubrovnik Eye).

Research limits. *The research collected data considering only secondary sources from the web. Second, researchers selected ICT-tools in which DMOs covered a central position in their use, excluding ICT-tools driven by other destination actors, including tourists.*

Practical implications. *This explorative study has managerial implications since informing decision-makers and practitioners on the opportunity to design smart technology tools and their usage within complex frameworks that integrate and combine diverse rationales of action. To turn sustainable development into practice there is, in fact, a need to define practices and tools connecting stakeholders and making them share perspectives and active contributions to the sustainable destination development.*

Originality of the study. *This study proposes a practice-led research to support the advancements in the technology-driven tourism innovation research agenda, moving from the limitations of the scholarly debate missing to cross-fertilise close yet distinct scientific fields of inquiry, such as the consolidated research fields of digital stakeholder engagement, smart experiences and, on the other hand, sustainable tourism agenda. Moving from an international overview of tools, this paper contributes to cross-fertilising these three theoretical domains - sustainable development, digital stakeholder engagement and smart experiences - under digital conditions. It provides directions on how ICT-based tools may support destination sustainable development, devoting attention to stakeholder engagement and smart experience co-creation in an integrative way.*

Key words: *practice-led research; smart technologies; sustainable destination; experience; digital engagement*

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Minority languages and tourism: the example of the Cimbrian community of Luserna/Lusérn (Trento, Italy)

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Introduction. *According to UNWTO (2018), cultural and heritage tourism is still a major element for international tourism consumption, accounting for approximately 40% of global tourism (Richards, 2018). Recent literature has highlighted some significant, recent changes in cultural tourism. Cultural tourists have an increasing interest in the Intangible Cultural Heritage of the population(s) of the place they are visiting (Richards, 2018; UNWTO, 2018). Furthermore, over the past few decades, growing demand for unique cultural experiences in peripheral regions has also been noticed, as well as increasing attention for Indigenous and minority groups (Pietikäinen and Kelly-Holmes, 2011; Richards, 2018).*

Intangible Cultural Heritage is defined as "practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills - as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith - that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage" (UNESCO, 2003, p.11). The Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage includes oral traditions and languages, as one of the domains where Intangible Cultural Heritage is manifested. As a result, there could be also an interest in minority languages. However, minority languages, i.e. languages different from the major, official languages and often spoken by a minor part of the population, are often threatened with extinction (Bradley and Bradley, 2019; Fishman, 1991).

This study is still a work in progress and aims at providing a better understanding of minority languages as an intangible cultural resource. The study will integrate the paradigm of humanistic management into cultural and sustainable tourism, in relation to the management of intangible heritage.

With humanistic management, the aim is to emphasize and focus on human beings: values like human life, dignity, and ethics (Melé, 2016). Recent research has attempted to integrate the humanistic management paradigm into tourism research, thus recommending a shift in the traditional perspective of tourism management (Della Lucia and Giudici, 2020). The paradigm of humanistic management also includes the principles of sustainability (Della Lucia and Giudici, 2020). According to the sustainable development paradigm, it is fundamental to guarantee that future generations will be able to satisfy their needs, categorized into an economic, social and environmental pillar (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). This also includes one's intangible cultural heritage which can only be transmitted to future generations when practiced, in this case spoken, on a daily basis. In this vein, sustainable tourism should also aim at maintaining intangible cultural heritage (Kim et al., 2019).

This study especially focuses on the perception of the community and considers the Cimbrian community of Luserna / Lusérn, in North-eastern Italy, near Trento. The Cimbrian language is an Upper German variety spoken in North-eastern Italy and now categorized as definitely endangered by the UNESCO's Atlas of the World Languages in Danger (Moseley, 2010).

The paper is structured as follows. The following paragraph will provide a brief summary of the literature on minority languages and tourism and will also briefly explain what are the objectives of this study. Then, the case study will be described, as well as the methodology used. After that, preliminary results will be presented. The final section will be dedicated to the conclusions drawn, based on the preliminary results currently available to the author.

Literature review and objectives. *Various studies have analyzed the role of minority languages in the tourism field before. Previous literature proved that minority languages represent a differentiating factor and therefore are an asset that contributes to differentiate the destination (Pechlaner et al., 2011; Pietikäinen, 2010, 2015). Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2012) argue that Memorable Tourism Experiences also include local culture, as well as knowledge and meaningfulness. Cultural contact, thus, positively influences the Memorable Tourism Experience of cultural tourists (Chen and Rahman, 2018). Minority languages are part of this cultural contact; thus, can contribute to a Memorable Tourism Experience. In fact, previous studies proved that minority languages are perceived as authentic by the visitors (Pietikäinen, 2010, 2015), since language is seen as a fundamental part of the natural and historical environment (Moriarty ,2015).*

Languages can be effectively used to brand a destination, a souvenir, or a restaurant as unique, authentic, and traditional (Bacsi, 2017; Brennan, 2018; Pietikäinen and Kelly-Holmes, 2011), but it is also used in commercial goods

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through labeling, for instance (Brennan, 2018; Ferguson and Sidorova, 2018). The use of the minority language has also been related to the fact that tourists become increasingly loyal to the destination; in other words, they are more likely to recommend and re-visit the destination (Barakos, 2016). In order to analyze the representation of languages in a bilingual town, where a minority language is spoken, the method of linguistic landscape was used (Bruyèl-Olmedo and Juan-Garau, 2015; Moriarty, 2015). This method aims at analyzing the "visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs" (Landry and Bourhis, 1997, p.3).

The positive relationship between tourism and minority languages, however, can be mutual. Some studies highlighted how the use of the language in the landscape and in the tourism experience, as well as the production of arts and crafts, contributed to generating a sense of group identity (De Azeredo Grünewald, 2002; Whitney-Squire, 2016). In the case of Pataxo Indians (Brazil), it also helped legitimate the presence of the Indians in the region (De Azeredo Grünewald, 2002).

Tourism also generated a revival of Indigenous names and language, as Indigenous people realized it is more appealing to present oneself with traditional names and to use the traditional language to brand restaurants, hotels, and museums (Greathouse-Amador, 2005; Whitney-Squire, 2016). In some cases, thanks to the genuine interest shown by tourists, Indigenous people started feeling proud about their origins and wanted to learn more (Greathouse-Amador, 2005; Lonardi et al., 2020; Whitney-Squire, 2016).

The fact that the use of a minority language in tourism-related products and experiences can contribute to its preservation or revitalization has been related to sustainability (Kim et al., 2019), as already mentioned. The maintenance of the language ensures that future generations can use their traditional language, which is part of their intangible cultural heritage (Bradley and Bradley, 2019; Fishman, 1991).

Nonetheless, other studies showed serious concern on the possibility of minority language endangerment after their use in tourism. Some studies highlighted the necessity to use the official national language or to learn an international language, like English, once the town becomes a tourism destination (Bruyèl-Olmedo and Juan-Garau, 2015). More frequently, however, the concern was related to language commodification, i.e. when the language is simply transformed into a commodity (Heller and Duchêne, 2008). Consequently, the use of a minority language in tourism can become stereotyped (Kaomea, 2000), gradually lose its authenticity, and promote a tokenistic use of the language (Moriarty, 2015). A commodified use of a minority language can also contribute to reinforce stereotypes (Kaomea, 2000).

Therefore, the literature suggests that tourism management in peripheral, minority destinations should consider the opportunity offered by minority languages to guarantee cultural distinctiveness to the destination (Bacsi, 2017; Brennan, 2018; Pietikäinen and Kelly-Holmes, 2011). Stakeholders of the destination, including residents, should be aware of the positive impacts that tourism has on the minority community and on the preservation of the minority language (De Azeredo Grünewald, 2002; Greathouse-Amador, 2005; Lonardi et al., 2020; Whitney-Squire, 2016). However, it is also important to consider that, to achieve a positive impact, stakeholders should consider the threat of language commodification (Heller and Duchêne, 2008; Moriarty, 2015).

This study aims at providing an in-depth understanding of community members' perceptions on the role of the tourism industry for the maintenance of the Cimbrian language, including tourists' interest and the use of the language in tourism-related products and experiences. The study will focus on the Cimbrian minority of Luserna / Lusérn, in North-eastern Italy, near Trento.

The following section will present the case study and will describe the methodology used.

Case study and methodology. *The Cimbrian language, an Upper German variety, is the language spoken by immigrants from Southern Bavaria who moved to the mountains of North-eastern Italy from the 11th to the 13th century, to chip the wood in the forests and work as carpenters (Stringher, 2010). The original area where people had Cimbrian ethnicity included the so-called Thirteen Communities (Northeast of Verona), Seven Communities (Northwest of Vicenza), and the South-eastern Trentino (Bidese, 2004; Stringher, 2010). As these communities were isolated and as the Cimbrian language is very different from the Venetian dialect or the Italian language spoken nearby, they maintained it (Bidese, 2004). The UNESCO's Atlas of the World Languages in Danger classifies the Cimbrian language as definitely endangered (Moseley, 2010). Nonetheless, a clarification here is needed, as there is a significant difference between the three communities. Nowadays, the community with the highest number of speakers is Luserna / Lusérn (Trentino), since, according to the latest census, in 2011 the speakers were 238 out of 279 people living there, including the children (Servizio Statistica della Provincia Autonoma di Trento, 2014).*

Luserna / Lusérn is nestled at the foot of Eastern Alps, making it a perfect destination for mountain lovers. In Luserna / Lusérn, for instance, tourism has already been developed, even though it cannot be seen as mass tourism. As a matter of fact, visitors come to Luserna / Lusérn to relax, practice sport (especially ski), hike, snowshoe or simply enjoy the mountain (www.lusern.it). However, Luserna / Lusérn is also a living witness of World War One, such as Fort Lusérn, Millegrobbe trenches, and Costalta cemetery (www.lusern.it). The Provincia Autonoma di Trento is promoting the Cimbrian minority, also through tourism (Dal Bò et al., 2012). The Centro di Documentazione Luserna has the goal of bringing awareness about the Cimbrian minority and of preserving its culture and language (www.lusern.it s.d.). Moreover, there has been some research about the Cimbrian language of Lusern / Lusérn and also about the possibility to preserve and revitalize the culture through tourism. The main example is a project carried out by Eurac (Dal Bò et al., 2012), aimed at researching how tourism influences positively or negatively small groups or minorities.

To conduct this study, a qualitative methodology was used, since it considers the cultural and anthropological *aspects of a population (Richards and Munsters 2010). For the purpose of this study, unstructured interviews are particularly suitable because they provide a holistic, in-depth, and authentic understanding of a phenomenon within a particular cultural context (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). The current sample builds on nine unstructured, in-depth interviews. The persons involved in the project were community members and Cimbrian speakers, who worked in the tourism field, as well as people who are or were part of the governance of this little town. The format of the interviews was unstructured, i.e. it was akin to a conversation, with few questions, where the participants will decide what they think is important and needs particular attention (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). The questions were selected and evolved from the literature review (Greathouse-Amador, 2005; Jennings, 2004; Kelly-Holmes and Pietikäinen, 2016; Whitney-Squire, 2016).*

The interviews took place between February 2020 and February 2021. The initial plan was to conduct face-to-face interviews in a context familiar to the interviewees, i.e. in Luserna / Lusérn. However, due to restrictions related to Covid-19, six interviews were conducted face-to-face, whereas three interviews had to be conducted over the phone. The researcher had no personal relationship with the participants, however, personal connections were used to contact the first interviewee (Aguinis and Solarino, 2019). After that, a snowball sampling approach was used, asking interviewees to mention whom the research should contact next (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). The interviews were conducted in Italian, with only some sentences or words in Cimbrian. The interviews lasted from a minimum of twelve minutes to a maximum of one hour and twenty-four minutes, with an average duration of thirty-eight minutes.

With the consent of the interviewees, the interviews were tape-recorded and then transcribed by the author. Confidentiality will be maintained and all interviewees will stay anonymous. The transcripts were carefully read and re-read by the author to analyze and code them for the identification of themes (Saldaña, 2021) with the support of the qualitative data analysis software MaxQDA. This software allowed to operationalize the categorization of first- and second-order themes (Saldaña, 2021). Only significant quotes were translated into English.

The study is still ongoing; therefore, the author is planning to conduct other six to eight interviews to enlarge the sample and increase the validity and generalizability of the results (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Further interviews will be conducted until saturation will be reached, i.e. when no unpredictable or new results will be found.

Findings. *Even though this is still an ongoing project, it is already possible to draw some preliminary results, that will be presented in this section. The findings of this study provide insights into the integration of an intangible cultural resource, like minority language and tourism management. The study was focused on minority community in North-eastern Italy, i.e. the Cimbrian community in Luserna / Lusérn, which is also already a tourism destination.*

Language endangerment was a matter of concern for the interviewees, even though with various degrees: some interviewees were more optimistic than others. The major concerns among interviewees were globalization, the school system, and the media.

However, the findings highlight that the Cimbrian culture and language play a significant role as a differentiating factor for the destination. Even though, according to interviewees, the language is not the main pull factor that attracts tourists to Luserna / Lusérn, it still represents an important part of the tourism experience, once the tourists are in the region.

> *"The Cimbrian language is not a pull factor per se, but it becomes so when tourists realize they are in a region where a minority community resides, where the signs on the streets and on the hikes are different and people speak a different language." [I6]*

Consequently, the Cimbrian culture, including the language is integrated into the tourism experience: not only is it part of the linguistic landscape but is also the object of a specific room in the Centro Documentazione Luserna museum (the room is called 'Cimbrian community of Luserna'). An example for that are the thematic hiking paths, i.e. hiking paths that are evolved around one theme, for instance:

> *"We offer a hike that can be found only here in Luserna; it's called nå in tritt von Sambinélo, which means 'on the trail of the Salvanello'. It presents the Cimbrian legends, which adds value to the hike...It the most popular hike here, visited by thousands of people every year" [I1]*

Moreover, one restaurant in the town decided to offer the tourists also a menu translated in Cimbrian, which was, according to an interviewee, a success.

> *"Until last year, before the pandemic, we had a menu translated in Cimbrian. […] The cases where this menu was used to order food were very rare. […] But many clients asked for it, to have a look at it, to take a picture or to take it home with them. This allowed us to show and explain who we are and show our identity as Cimbrian people" [I8]*

No interviewee lamented that the use of the Cimbrian language in panels, street or hike signs, in the museum, or in the restaurants was a problem. They argued that Cimbrian people are particularly proud to show their heritage and their language.

> *"Well, Cimbrian people are always very proud. So, whenever it's possible to use the language, by people who can speak it, of course, and can promote it, not only commercially, it's seen as positive." [I8]*

Another interviewee argued that the interest shown by tourists generated a sense of pride in her, personally, and in the whole community:

"We, as Cimbrian speakers, are surprised to see all this interest in our heritage and our language. We are proud to have something so valuable" [I7]

However, some interviewees were more concerned with the use of the Cimbrian language outside the community. They argued that the Cimbrian heritage should only be commercially used and promoted by community members or by people who have a profound knowledge of the Cimbrian legacy.

An interviewee highlighted the importance of the Cimbrian linguistic landscape for both the community and tourists, as a mark of a communal identity, and to differentiate the destination:

"The loss of authenticity due to tourism is a risk for a minority of course. […] But I don't think we're that far. The representation of the language on the signs and on the panels is not a huge monetary investment, but it is important for the community. First, they provide a collective imagination for the community. Second, they show the visitors that they are in a different territory." [I6]

Another interviewee argued that the DMO is careful to promote an authentic culture and that, even though intangible heritage is not fixed, it is important to maintain the core of Cimbrian traditions.

"I think in the Alpe Cimbra the community is committed to genuine preservation and promotion of the culture and that is fine [...]. It is ok to re-interpret some traditions, even in Lavarone and Folgaria, but we should not distort them" [I3]

Another aspect mentioned by some interviewees was the economic sustainability of the tourism industry, as it provides an opportunity for people to remain and work in Luserna / Lusérn and maintain the relationship with the other community members and Cimbrian speakers:

"So, if there's the opportunity to keep these companies here in Luserna, even the language will benefit from that. All these families stay here and will keep speaking the language and pass it on to their children" [I1]

"We have the chance to preserve and give value to the language, we can use it in the official documents, it is taught in schools, the news is in Cimbrian. The problem is economic development. [...] Only 200 people actually stay in Luserna during the week, we are at the threshold of survival for a community" [I2]

One interviewee mentioned the fact that tourism allowed for the development of an official system to write the Cimbrian language, thanks to the use of Cimbrian inside the museum first and then, in panels placed in various places around the town. The Cimbrian language is now written in other contexts as well, not necessarily related to tourism.

"Thanks to the Centro Documentazione di Luserna [museum], the written language was developed and started to widespread. Before that, the language was only oral. The written language started to be used quite late, about thirty years ago, in the 90s." [I4]

An interviewee also mentioned that the translation of the menu in Cimbrian encouraged the community, along with experts, to coin new words in Cimbrian, like, for instance, those words that are used in today's cuisine but were not widespread when the Cimbrian language evolved.

However, interviewees were skeptical about the central role of the tourism industry in the process of language preservation. Interviewees perceived that, even though tourism is an important economic activity and source of pride for the community, the fundamental role for language maintenance lies in their sense of identity, their strong will to preserve the language, and to pass it on to future generations. However, some of the interviewees also mentioned the fact that the process of language maintenance or endangerment is often unpredictable.

Finally, it is important to mention here that some interviewees thought tourists were not really interested in the Cimbrian language but visited the town because of the various possibility to practice sport that it offers. Only a few of them, who were somehow aware of the Cimbrian minority language, were curious to know more and wanted to hear the pronunciation of terms in the Cimbrian language.

Conclusions. *This study aims at analyzing the relationship between tourism and minority language, especially focusing on the perception of the local community, on the example of the Cimbrian community of Luserna / Lusérn (Trento, Italy). Findings were collected through the use of nine unstructured interviews. Further interviews will be collected in the next months.*

Findings show that the integration of humanistic management and tourism (Della Lucia and Giudici, 2020) in the management of intangible cultural resources, like a minority language, is possible. No interviewee had a negative perception in or felt offended by the use of the Cimbrian language in tourism-related products or experiences in Luserna / Lusérn. Residents were more concerned about the use of the Cimbrian language by people from outside the community.

Even though not all interviewees agreed on that, the Cimbrian heritage, including the language, seems to be a differentiating factor for the destination and is particularly appreciated by tourists (Bacsi, 2017; Brennan, 2018). The language is included in various aspects of the tourism experiences, starting from street and hike signs, but also in the museum, in panels around the city, in the menus (Pietikäinen and Kelly-Holmes, 2011). Concerns on language commodification were mentioned but were especially related to the use of the language from people outside the community (Heller and Duchêne, 2008). On the other hand, tourists' interest in the Cimbrian language was related to a sense of pride and identity (De Azeredo Grünewald, 2002; Greathouse-Amador, 2005; Lonardi et al., 2020; Whitney-Squire, 2016), along with the development of a written system thanks to the use of the Cimbrian language in panels at the museum (Whitney-Squire, 2016). However, most interviewees agreed that proper language preservation cannot be completely related to the tourism field, but is dependent on the community and on future generations (Bradley and Bradley, 2019). Another interesting aspect that emerged from the findings of this study is how social sustainability is related to economic sustainability: tourism contributes to language preservation to the extent that it allows community members to remain in the town and maintain the relationship with one another (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).

Research limit. *This study has several limitations. First of all, further interviews have to be conducted in order to comprise a wide spectrum of community members and increase the validity of the findings (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Furthermore, Luserna / Lusérn is located in the autonomous province of Trentino, with its own laws and regulations. The use of a qualitative methodology represents another limitation, since the analysis of data can be subjective. Further research is therefore needed, in order to cross-validate the results, also through quantitative methodologies. Further quantitative research should consider tourists' preferences and behaviors, through questionnaires or experiments (Whitney-Squire, 2016). Other research that considers other minority communities in Italy is also encouraged.*

Key words: *cultural tourism; intangible cultural heritage; minority language; sustainable tourism; Cimbrian; Luserna/Lusérn*

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Music tourism in Italy: audiences and destinations' strategies

MARTHA FRIEL* GIOVANNA SEGRE•

Abstract

In recent years, the phenomenon of "overtourism" has prompted many destinations to investigate their offer system more thoroughly and to build new themed proposals to better distribute flows, creating value for the territories by stimulating new intersectoral collaborations. This need has become even more relevant in light of the post Covid-19 recover process that the tourism sector now needs to undertake.

In this context, music tourism, in particular that linked to classical and opera music, can be an interesting segment to focus on, in both quantitative and qualitative terms, and to develop innovative collaborations between the tourism sector and the performing arts sector for a common recovery.

Through a critical analysis of both the current structure of the tourist offer linked to the Italian music heritage and the demand trends of classic music and opera driven tourism, the paper intends to deepen the knowledge of music tourism sector and to advance some strategic considerations in terms of tourism and cultural policies aimed at a better knowledge and valorisation of the Italian music system.

Objectives. *In recent years, the phenomenon of "overtourism" has prompted many destinations to investigate their offer system more thoroughly and to build new themed proposals to better distribute flows, creating value for the territories. This need has become even more relevant for the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic.*

In this context, music tourism, in particular that linked to classical and opera music, can be an interesting segment to focus on, in both quantitative and qualitative terms (Sound Diplomacy and ProColombia, 2018).

It is now widely recognized by literature, and verified in practice, that festivals and musical events related to classical music and opera constitute an element of recognition and primary attractiveness for many destinations in the world (Gibson and Connell, 2005; Gergaud and Ginsburgh, 2017). This is the case, for example, of cities like Salzburg (Keul and Kühberger, 1997; Luger, 2006; Wenger, 2008), Bayreuth (Bolderman and Reijnders, 2017) Glyndebourne (McKay and Webster, 2016), Savonlinna (Wanhill, 2006), Pesaro (Calcagnini and Cesaroni, 2011) and many others that collect important flows of visitors motivated mainly by music.

Yet, opportunities associated with music tourism are not limited to the system of events and festivals. Music constitutes a complex cultural resource that is found on the territories in a variety of components, tangible and intangible, linked to its entire supply chain: from the places of intangible culture such as the workshops of luthiers or costume designers, to the vast offer of theatres and concert halls, up to training trips with itinerant masterclasses.

This huge heritage constitutes a great opportunity in terms of place branding and tourist effects for many territories and translates into a rich resource in terms of themed tourist offer: shows and concerts, music museums (Sadie and Sadie, 2005; De Martini, 2018), places and itineraries that celebrate the history and life of famous composers and performers (Malavasi, 2010), visits to violin makers and luthiers.

This offer can be a reason of primary interest for niche and specialized tourism, but also a complementary attraction for tourists with different travel motivations such as cultural tourism, widely understood, or food and wine tourism, or city tourism.

For Italy in particular, homeland of opera, this tourism niche can represent a great opportunity for development, both for destinations and for music institutions. Many territories and cities in Italy can in fact count on events and musical attractions of great appeal, often hosted in contexts of historical and artistic interest - theatres, churches, villas - which amplify their attractive potential. Furthermore, in Italy music tourists can find a wide offer distributed throughout the year, linked to the entire music supply chain: from the "harmonic woods" in the Dolomites to the places of life and work of the so-called "big five" of Italian opera Giuseppe Verdi, Giacomo Puccini, Gioacchino Rossini, Gaetano Donizetti and Vincenzo Bellini, whose house-museums and festivals attract thousands of international tourists every year.

Classical music is therefore a precious cultural heritage which, however, still struggles to find adequate tourist recognition. Moreover limited knowledge of current and potential demand persists, both nationally and internationally,

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due to a lack of industry-specific research and data (Quinn, 1996; Gibson and Connell, 2005), resulting in a difficulty in building a targeted offer.

Focusing on Italy as a music tourism destination, the paper therefore intends to contribute to a better understanding of this tourism segment on two levels.

A first level is that of the structure of the music tourism offer in Italy, in particular that linked to opera festivals. On this specific aspect, the paper - through an analysis of the main Italian opera festivals - intends to shed light on how festivals rely on the national and international tourist market, and if this relationship with tourists is also reflected in a collaboration between music institutions, destinations, and tourism operators.

The second level of analysis concerns the profile of today's music traveller. In particular, given the almost total lack of studies on the composition of the demand for music tourism, the paper aims to shed light on the socio-demographic characteristics of this type of travellers and to deepen their travel habits.

Through an analysis of both demand and supply, the paper thus aims to identify some proposals to better valorise the Italian music culture and heritage, also for tourism purposes, and to encourage greater collaboration between music institutions and the tourism industry for a common recovery in the post Covid-19.

Methodology. *In order to analyse the opportunities linked to the development of musical tourism in Italy in the widest possible way, helping to fill some of the above mentioned knowledge gaps and trying to identify some possible directions of development, a mixed methodology was adopted. This because only a plurality of analysis tools permits to grasp the variety of aspects under investigation.*

The first phase of the research concerned the analysis of the demand.

To identify the basic socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics of the music tourist, a sample of 402 European individuals declaring themselves as "opera and classical music lovers" were interviewed through an online survey. The survey took place, as well as via email, online, through social networks supported with a targeted promotion on groups and fan-pages dedicated to classical music and opera.

The variables of the questionnaire were measured and read on two distinct groups based on the answer to the question: (Q) In the last 5 years have you travelled for classical music concerts/festivals?

The descriptive analysis focused on the differences between those who answered "yes" and those who answered "no", and investigated some specific characteristics of the organization of recent musical journeys based on the answers of those who said "yes" to the question Q.

In addition, in order to get a proper understanding of the spectrum of attitudes and behaviours of the music lovers in terms of live music travel habits, we also run a cluster analysis which is still ongoing. The preliminary analysis returned 5 clusters and out of them 4 can be interesting for the purpose of the study and its development.

A second phase of the research concerned the analysis of the offer. For this second step of our study, a questionnaire was prepared and proposed to 12 main Italian festivals dedicated to classical music and opera in order to collect data on:

- *n. of spectators;*
- *% of foreign spectators out of the total;*
- *% of spectators out of the total coming from outside the region;*
- *main foreign countries of origin of the public;*
- *existing collaborations with tour operators and / or tourist agencies;*
- *perceived importance of tourism demand to support the activity of the institution/ festival.*

Following this survey, a number of qualitative interviews were conducted with the main festivals and with the main tourism operators active in the music tourism segment and collaborating with Italian music institutions. This is in order to better understand the dynamics of intersectoral collaboration between the music sector and the tourism sector for the construction of an effective and targeted offer at the destination level.

Findings. *The first part of the descriptive analysis focused on the travel habits of music lovers and, in particular, on the travel habits of those travelling for music purposes.*

Findings show that those who travel with classic music and opera as a motivation have, on average, a higher level of education, more concentrated on undergraduate and postgraduate degrees. Moreover, the profile of the music traveller is that of an enthusiast for whom music - in listening and in practice - is an integral part of everyday life: one in two music tourists listens to classical music every day and participates in concerts and opera at an average frequency of more than once a month.

The preferred venues of music tourists for enjoying live music are concert halls (80%) and theaters (70%), and participation in festivals (56%), moreover the possession of seasonal tickets (18%) for theatre is more than proportional to the group of those who do not travel for music.

As for the travel habits, the market is divided into two main types of music tourists: those who organize themselves independently (about 70% of respondents) and those who rely instead on the experience of travel agencies, specialized tour operators or music associations.

Tab. 1: Trip organization choice of classical music travellers (Q: How do you organize your trip?)

On my own	71%
With the support of a musical association	18%
With the support of an agency specialized in music travels	2%
Organized tours	4%
Other	5%

Source: authors, 2020

This is an interesting finding, because traditionally the opera-lovers tourism market has been considered by tourism professionals to be a largely intermediated market.

The analysis instead shows the presence of a large self-organized market that can be particularly interesting to intercept for smaller destinations and for "boutique festivals". Moreover, very interesting is the role of musical associations as intermediaries in the organization of music travels, thus highlighting the role of musical institutions as promoters of music tourism.

Tab. 2: Communication channel for classical music travellers (Q: How did you find out about these concerts/festivals? Multiple choice)

Web	65%
Friends	50%
Social networks	42%
Advertisement	17%
Specialized magazines	10%
Other	13%

Source: authors, 2020

Those who travel for musical reasons, travel more often alone and as a couple and prefer to stay in hotels rather than in other types of structures such as apartments and b&b.

Tab. 3: Where do you usually stay when you travel for music purposes?

Hotel	54%
Airbnb	13%
Bed & breakfast	11%
Friend's home	18%
Other	4%

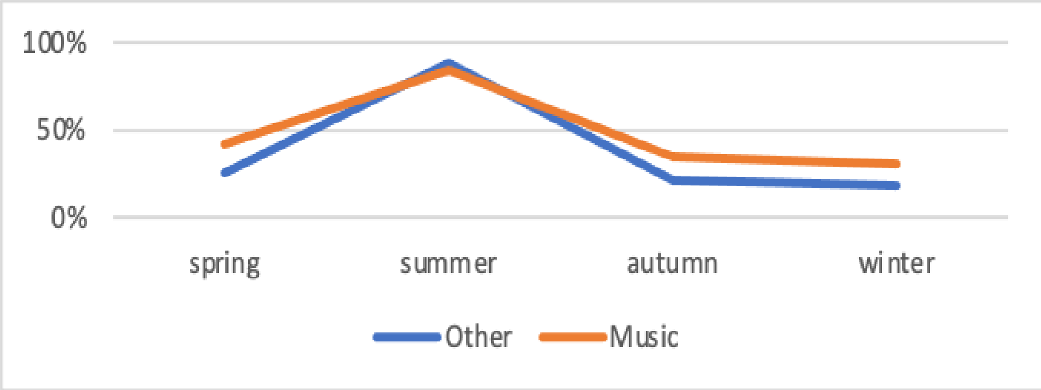
Source: authors, 2020

Whether it's DIY or all-inclusive tourists, music tourists are, more than others, a demanding audience: looking for a high quality of both the tourist service and the music experience.

Not surprisingly, the decision-making criteria that influence the musical journey see in the first place the quality of the music offered, considered very important by 36% of respondents but also the quality and accessibility of the destination emerge as important factors.

The analysis also highlighted some characteristics of traveling for music that confirm a potential greater sustainability of this tourism compared to other types. These characteristics concern in particular: (i) its low seasonality; (ii) the interest of the musical tourist in a broad use of the territory. In fact, the travel habits of the musical tourist have a higher frequency and a greater seasonal adjustment. On average, the musical tourist makes trips in at least 2 seasons of the year compared to the average tourist who has a higher concentration in summer. This makes the seasonality curve of music tourism flatter than that of other types of tourism.

Fig. 1: In which period of the year do you usually travel?



Source: authors, 2020

Moreover, beyond the music event/performance, tourists look for an interesting cultural offer and love to combine music with quality food and wine experiences: in this context, music occasions, concerts etc. organized in special places such as private historic villas and castles, or even in prestigious wine estates, exert an increasing appeal and are able to bring to music tourism experiences also large audiences of non-experts. 87% of those traveling for music also have a strong interest in discovering the art and culture of the place they visit, 54% for the naturalistic aspects, 38% for the food and wine culture.

Finally, when choosing the destination and the journey, the main source used to collect information is increasingly the web: Internet, word of mouth and social networks are the 3 main sources of awareness that stimulate travel. The role of advertising communication and specialized magazines is still low.

These figure on the one hand seem to confirm the increasingly frequent choice of tourist to organize travel independently, on the other hand imposes targeted promotional-marketing strategies on the destination/ event and a good presence on social-media channels.

Given these indications that come from demand, how is the offer structured today? How much does the public made by tourists weigh on the total audience of great Italian classical and opera festivals? Is the world of music institutions and festivals ready to work with tourism to fully exploit the national musical offer on the tourist market?

Data provided by the eleven main opera and classical music festivals in Italy show that the role of international tourists is as a significant one: over 60% of the audience of the Rossini Opera Festival in Pesaro, in the Marche Region, is international coming mainly from France, Germany, the United Kingdom, Japan, the United States, Austria, Switzerland; similar percentages of foreign audiences are also found for the Verdi Festival in Parma (57%) and for the Donizetti Festival in Bergamo (56%) and also for the Arena Opera Festival in Verona which attract audiences from all over Europe but also from the extra-EU and in particular from the United States, Russia, South Korea, Japan, Mexico.

Tab. 4: Total audience and international audience of main Italian music festivals (%), 2018/2019

Festival	N. of tickets	% of foreign public on total
Arena di Verona Festival	39411000%	43,5%
Festival Donizetti	849100%	56%
Pergolesi / Spontini Festival	423400%	0,18
Rossini Opera Festival	1826000%	0,67
Settimane Musicali Gustav Mahler	300000%	0,3
Stresa Festival	860000%	0,3
Varignana Music Festival	100000%	0,2
Verdi Festival	2142500%	0,577
Festival Puccini	2700000%	n.a.
Macerata Opera Festival	3633900%	0,0706
Omaggio a Palladio	189300%	0,565
MITO SettembreMusica	7400000%	0,014

Source: festivals

The public made by tourists - understood in a broad sense, and not only as tourists driven specifically by music - is therefore important and strongly supports the production of music festivals in Italy which, in many territories, could certainly not survive only with local demand.

Despite the importance of the foreign public for many of the festivals analysed, in general, however, there is a low propensity for these musical institutions to collaborate, both with tourism operators and with the tourist promotion offices of destinations where festivals take place.

As emerged by the survey, the main areas of joint action concern:

a) *\inclusion of the festival in the promotion of the territory and in the destination card system;*
b) *combination of the musical proposal with other local experiences such as nature trails ("Trekking & Bike Concert" - La Versiliana); wellness programs (Varignana Festival) etc.*
c) *partnership with tourist agencies and tour operators (Rossini Opera Festival collaborates extremely efficiently with numerous international tour operators and tourist agencies; Stresa Festival collaborates with Il Sipario Musicale, one of the main tour operators in Italy specializing in musical travel; the Festival Verdi is effectively promoted by Parma Incoming Travel, a large incoming agency that deals with promoting the whole territory of Parma in the Emilia Romagna region);*
d) *information sections and references to local resources on the festival website;*
e) *partnerships with restaurants, accommodation facilities and the transport system as well as other partnerships with local companies (wine producers, agri-food companies, etc.) as an opportunity for mutual promotion.*

Research limits. *The analysis has limitations in both supply and demand analysis. As far as the offer is concerned, it was decided to analyse only the "temporary" offer of music destinations, i.e. that of major opera festivals. On the demand side, limitations are given by the size of the sample analysed and the geographical origin of the interviewees, all European citizens. Moreover the analysis here presented does not include the results from the cluster analysis which is still in progress.*

Practical implications. *Music festivals, the seasons of the great opera houses, the places of life and work of the great personalities of the music world constitute an extraordinary cultural heritage and an important tourist resource for many destinations and for Italy in particular. Even just looking at the world of music festivals their attractiveness emerges in bringing quality tourist flows to territories.*

This rich offer, however, too often lacks a structured and integrated organization either due to the lack of self-perception of music festivals as tourist attractions and due to a number of problems related to the programming and non-strategic scheduling of events or to distribution issues on the tourism market.

In the light of the analysis conducted, some first important areas of work emerge which will benefit from further studies both on the demand and supply side.

These are to:

- *promote awareness of festivals and programming and production companies of their role as tourist attractors and of the opportunities that can come from intercepting tourist demand;*
- *strengthen the strategies and methods of communication with specific reference to some target and specific public markets, also taking into account the large market of unorganized tourism and a "new" market made up of young people;*
- *innovate the offer and pricing strategies to incentivize specific target audiences of interest;*
- *create new relationships and opportunities for collaboration with specialized Italian and foreign agencies and tour operators;*
- *strengthen the ability to connect the musical event to itineraries of discovery of the territory, its products and its protagonists also in collaboration with local businesses;*
- *strategically schedule events in consideration of the schedules of the various Institutions of and the needs / seasonality of tourism and its operators;*
- *promote knowledge of the music system and its attractiveness to tourism operators and other operators in the supply chain.*

Originality of the study. *Music tourism has been a scarcely analysed segment in tourist literature even if it constitutes a potentially interesting type of tourism due to the travel habits of the music tourist - less seasonal and interested in a quality experience of the territories - and also important for supporting the activities of many musical institutions.*

Over the years, impact studies have been conducted on events such as the Salzburg festival in Austria (Luger, 2006), the Glyndebourne Opera Festival in the UK (McKay and Webster, 2016), the Rossini Opera Festival in Italy (Calcagnini and Cesaroni, 2011). Some studies have also been conducted on the attractiveness of some of the great international opera houses such as the Sydney Opera House (Colbert, 2003), the Royal Opera House in London (Kaminskas et al. 2013), La Scala in Milan (De Carlo et al.). Finally, in the last ten years, various research reports conducted at an international level have given important insights into the "music economy", helping to bring the theme of music back into the tourism debate (UK Music, 2013 and 2017; Quinn, 2006; Négrier et al., 2013).

However, these studies do not give an overall picture of the profile and preferences of the music tourist nor provide information on the intersectoral collaborations existing between the tourism sector and music operators for the construction of an engineered and targeted offer.

The present study enriches the knowledge of this tourism segment both on the supply side, analysing the intersectoral relationships between music operators and operators in tourism, and on the demand side exploring some characteristics of the travel habits of classical music and opera lovers.

Key words: *music tourist, tourism product, tourism management*

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Market opportunities for cruise lines in the outbound distribution channels: assessing the predictors of new bookings

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Objectives. *Traditionally, the indirect channels such as travel agencies and tour operators have traditionally represented the prominent option for the distribution strategies of the leading cruise lines. The adoption of this perspective, indeed, was in line with the need for keeping the pace of the two-digit growth rates in the industry worldwide as well as for ensuring a capillary presence in far distant markets (Bitner and Booms, 1982; Dwyer and Forsyth, 1996; Dev, 2006). The role assumed by these valuable intermediaries has been historically consistent with a transactional approach predominantly applied to the market by cruise companies (Som et al., 2012). Nonetheless, given recent market trends and in line with a growing shift toward relational marketing and customer engagement approaches within the industry, both practitioners and academics are questioning the traditional marketing mix of leading cruise companies, especially with regards to "place" programmes. Relatedly, the management of direct distribution channels is getting priority in the agenda of cruise managers and marketers.*

As relational approaches to customer are nowadays increasingly at the base of cruise companies' marketing plans (Huang and Hsu, 2010; Hi et al., 2014), direct distribution channels are expected to become a valuable marketing tool for the success of companies operating in the cruise industry. It is especially the case for those market-oriented cruise companies embracing the concept of "customer engagement" (Vivek et al., 2012). Customer' proximity, in fact, favours the quality and the frequency of feedbacks and insights received from the market and cruise lines are expected to benefit from the development of their direct distribution channels if they aim at increasing the degree of trust and commitment, as well as satisfaction and emotion affecting the relations with consumers, especially when well-experienced and loyal (Pansari and Kumar, 2017).

Among direct distribution channels, the outbound channel, in particular, is expected to increase rapidly its relevance in cruise lines' marketing plans, programmes and budgets. By fostering their outbound channel, cruise lines obtain additional market insights from both repeaters and first timers, improve their relationships with loyal and committed customers, develop tailor-made sales programmes and support promotional and communicational campaigns, for protecting or expanding targeted segments.

Nonetheless, these distribution channels have received only limited attention from extant cruise marketing literature and several literature gaps still persist. In particular, as the outbound teams actually embedded in leading cruise companies are still "undersized" compared with the business opportunities in their customer portfolios, the cruise industry would greatly benefit from the development of new theories and analytical models capable to support those managers involved in the sustainable growth of this distribution channel. As managing direct relations with customers is time consuming, the outbound channel operators available should be used for feeding relationships with the customers that show a higher likelihood to positively impact on corporate performance due to their behavioural intentions (e.g., new bookings or word-of-mouth).

Given the above, the manuscript investigates the determinants of the purchasing behaviour of cruisers/leads belonging to portfolios managed by outbound channel operators of cruise companies. The study aims at developing an overarching conceptual framework which addresses the antecedents of the likelihood a cruiser/lead (i.e. an actual or potential customer) books a cruise package when directly contacted by an outbound channel operators.

Methodology. *The manuscript investigates the antecedents of the likelihood a lead books a cruise package when directly contacted by an outbound channel operators. For this purpose, several leads' characteristics are suggested as predictors including among others, behavioural variables (I) and socio-demographic variables (IV) , while the conceptual model proposed (Figure 1) takes into account also channel-related variables (III) and variables linked to the availability of leads' contacts for the outbound personnel, e.g., mobile number, email address, etc. (II).*

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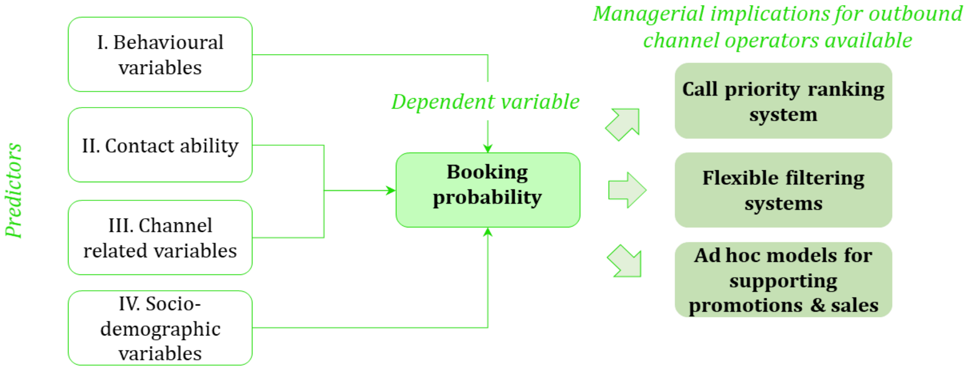
Fig. 1: Research design and investigated variables



Source: Authors' own elaboration.

Research hypotheses are empirically tested and validated grounding on data gathered from the outbound customer portfolios of a major cruise company in the Mediterranean market, i.e. Costa Crociere, which is part of the Carnival Group. Data related to over 300.000 leads are extracted from the Database (DB) belonging to the corporate Customer Relationship Management (CRM) system of the "Outbound Department" of Costa Crociere and then they are matched with information originating from the corporate booking system.

Several logistic regression models are performed for testing the predictors of the cruisers' booking behavior. In addition, a number of alternative specifications to the main model are suggested for estimating potential circumstantial elements, which affect causal relations between the dependent and the independent variables. The outcomes provide practical insights that support cruise managers when selecting call priority criteria for targeting leads enrolled in their outbound customer portfolios.

The overall data analysis process grounds on four main phases. First, all available data and information concerning company' leads are clustered in four clusters, in line with the conceptual framework proposed, in order to reduce the complexity of the data management process (more than 80 variables related to each customer/lead were initially available). In the second phase of the data analysis process, each group of variables is independently analysed for evaluating their inclusion into the performed statistical models and a short list of around 50 variables is selected for next phase. In the third step of the procedure, we ground on the stepwise technique for identifying the best performing statistical model. Finally, the selected model is used for creating both a "call priority" ranking of each lead included in the DB and for identifying a flexible filtering system for selecting cruisers to be contacted given specific circumstantial factors or events, such as promotions or communication campaigns.

Research hypotheses, in particular, are tested by performing a logistics regression model as the dependent variable is operationalized as a dummy variable which takes value 1 if the lead has booked at least one cruise in the selected timeframe (Fiscal Year 2018-2019), and 0 otherwise. The model considers the LOG ODD (booking probability/non booking probability) of the dependent variable as the linear combination of the independent variables as reported in the equation [1]:

$$Logit(p) = log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1\, X_1 + \beta_2\, X_2 + \ldots + \beta_k\, X_k \qquad [1]$$

Where the variable coefficient is given by the ODD ratio. An ODD ratio higher than 1 means that the variable is positively related to booking probability; the higher the coefficient the higher the likelihood.

Results. *The empirical results from the main logistic regression model selected through the adoption of the stepwise technique are reported in Figure 2. The model has been performed on 157,423 statistical observations and includes 32 variables belonging to the four groups of independent variables scrutinized as predictors of the purchasing behaviour of cruisers/leads belonging to portfolios managed by outbound channel operators of investigated cruise line, i.e. behavioural variables (I), availability of leads' contacts for the outbound personnel (II), channel-related variables (III) and socio-demographic variables (IV). The dependent variable is given by the likelihood a cruiser/lead books a cruise package when directly contacted by an outbound operators.*

The overall significance of the model is verified being the Log likelihood ratio test significant (LR chi2 = 38569, p-value < 0.001). In figure 2, for each of 32 variable, the benchmarking variable modality is shown in red, whereas independent variables statistically significant are reported in bold: these are the variables which are argued to be valuable when setting the call priority ranking system of the outbound operators. In addition, variables selected also as parameters for the development of the flexible filtering system discussed in the Section "Practical implication" are reported in green.

Overall 28 out of 32 of the independent variables are founded statistically significant, and 19 of them are positively related with the likelihood a cruiser/lead books a cruise package when directly contacted by an outbound operators, as the related coefficient unveils an ODD ratio greater than 1, whereas for 9 of them the value is lower than 1, suggesting a negative impact of the corresponding independent variable on the likelihood of registering a new booking.

Fig. 2: Main logistic regression model selected through stepwise: empirical results

	Number of obs	=	157,423
	LR chi2(32)	=	38569.02
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log likelihood = -35232.496	Pseudo R2	=	0.3537

	BKG_FY18_19	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P>|z|	Variable group
	RFM					(I) Behavioural variables
vs. 0 low	0 HIGH	1.111021	.0387783	3.02	0.003	
vs. 0 low	1	3.600619	.1276553	36.13	0.000	
vs. 0 low	2	7.813455	.2866029	56.05	0.000	
vs. 0 low	3	12.98662	.5121711	65.01	0.000	
vs. 0 low	4	23.14373	1.285079	56.58	0.000	
vs. 0 low	LOST	.0970273	.0065148	-34.74	0.000	
	NO SEGMENT	1.052651	.3136218	0.17	0.863	
	PROSPECT	9.792138	1.559015	14.33	0.000	
	PAX_TYPE					
vs. standard	CLUB	4.14189	.1957082	30.08	0.000	
vs. standard	GRP	.7019912	.0612709	-4.05	0.000	
	TACTICAL&BASIC	3.28369	.1612468	24.21	0.000	
	Score_place_1					
Vs. Sailor	CITY_HOPPERS	2.145327	.1896858	8.63	0.000	
Vs. Sailor	CULTURE_HISTORY	1.043707	.2292147	0.19	0.846	
Vs. Sailor	NATURE_LANDSCAPE	1.00386	.2857683	0.01	0.989	
Vs. Sailor	STANDARD_MED	1.987432	.1819207	7.50	0.000	
Vs. Sailor	SUN_FOLLOWERS	1.743068	.1654927	5.85	0.000	
Vs. Sailor	WORLD_CRUISE	1.884912	.2348696	5.09	0.000	
	MOBILE_PHONABLE	1.843763	.1582799	7.13	0.000	(II) Contactability
	HOME_PHONANBLE	.6789231	.0418884	-6.28	0.000	
	SMS_ABLE	.7267148	.0556085	-4.17	0.000	
	EMAILABLE	1.321898	.0393289	9.38	0.000	
	OPEN_RATE	1.646562	.052887	15.53	0.000	
	CTOR_new	1.707392	.0648874	14.08	0.000	
	BKG_CHN_prePCC					(III) Channel related variables
Vs. Inbound	OTA	.591947	.0223313	-13.90	0.000	
Vs. Inbound	OnBoard Sales	.7872101	.0477144	-3.95	0.000	
Vs. Inbound	Other Direct	1.084254	.2004853	0.44	0.662	
Vs. Inbound	Outbound	6.381569	.1844613	64.12	0.000	
	Trade	1.086672	.0506608	1.78	0.075	
	Web	.9150195	.024029	-3.38	0.001	
	enroll	1.028281	.000739	38.81	0.000	
	AGE	.9953031	.0007183	-6.52	0.000	(IV) Socio- demogr. variabl
	sex	.9350948	.0184916	-3.39	0.001	
	_cons	.0041981	.0005059	-45.42	0.000	

Note: _cons estimates baseline odds.

Source: Authors' own elaboration.

Behavioural variables (I) emerge as the most relevant factors affecting booking probability. In this group, RFM which is a label developed by the company for assessing the loyalty of corporate customers, is argued as the most valuable predictor in the model. RFM is a variables which jointly considers if the customer/leads has recently (R) performed a booking, the frequencies of his/her purchases (F) and the average price (monetary expenses) paid for the cruise package (M). In other term, this valuable label allows the company to perform behavioural segmentation of its customers or leads. IN the same group of variables also "Pax type" and "Place preferences". The former refers to the typology of cruise packages predominantly purchased by the customer or his/her attitude towards specifical promotion and communication campaign. In this perspective, customers belonging to «club» and «tactical & basic» groups are more likely to book respect to other categories («standard»; «groups»). The latter, i.e. the independent variable "Place preferences" focuses on issues related to the geographical core of the cruise packages predominantly purchased by the customer or the leads.

Within the second group of variables, i.e. independent variables focused on the availability of leads' contacts for the outbound channel operators, all the variables included in the main model are statistically significant but only 4 out of 6 are positively related to the probability of booking «emailable», «Mobile-Phonable»; «OPEN_RATE»; «CTOR».

The first two variables take into account the actual availability of an updated and operating email address or mobile phone number for contacting the lead or the customer. These variables, which has been operationalized as dummy variables take value 1 if the contact is available and 0 otherwise, are the final results of customer/leads decision concerning their privacy and their attitude to stay in contact with the company through specific solutions, buts also depend upon the quality of the data gathering procedures which ensure the feeding and the updating of the overall corporate Customer Relationship Management (CRM) system. The third variable, i.e. "OPEN RATE", is a quantitative variables which measures the percentage of the overall emails sent to the customer or leads by the company that has *been actually opened by him/her. This variables is used as a performance indicator for email marketing campaigns in order to control and improve the quality of mailing lists used for the aforementioned purposes. Finally, the "CTOR" variable that refers to the "click-to-open-rate", ranging from 0 to 1, measures the rate of email received by the lead/customer that after opening, has been characterized by a proactive behaviour by the lead/customer itself by clicking on url link provided in the email. This variable provides therefore valuable insights on the overall interest of the person contacted by the company toward the services offered by the cruise company and can also be considered a proxy of the engagement of the customer/lead toward the outbound channel.*

Unsurprisingly, empirical evidence suggests that, given the specificities of the outbound channels, selling opportunities for personnel involved in this distribution channel, strongly depend upon the availability of good and reliable personal contacts of the leads/customers belonging to the client portfolio managed by each operator.

When it comes to channel-related variables, both "leads source" and "enrolment" are statistically significant but only specific modalities of the variable «leads source» unveil valuable coefficients thus highly contributing to booking probability. In particular, the findings suggest that leads coming from the outbound channel unveil higher attitude toward booking, because this variable shows a probability of booking six times higher than the benchmarking variable modality. At the same time, the influence of the "OTA" variable is very low, as it is characterized by a coefficient slightly higher than half of the "Inbound" variable. In addition, leads enrolled since longer time are expected to increase their likelihood to book., although the value of the coefficient suggest that this variable is not among the prominent predictors of the customer/lead purchasing behaviour.

Socio-demographic variables included in the model (i.e., gender and age) are statistically significant but their coefficients are not far from the value 1 and, therefore, their impact on booking probability can be considered relatively limited. In particular, women have a higher probability to booking respect to men whereas the age is demonstrated to not affect significantly booking probability.

Research limits. *Although the manuscript adds to the ongoing theoretical and practical debate on the potential trajectories which will characterize the "place" dimensions of the cruise lines' future marketing mixes, il still suffer inherent limitations. First the contribution is exploratory in nature: the paper scrutinises more than more than 80 variables related to each customer/lead and the main statistical model includes 32 variables belonging to four different categories, namely: bebavioural variables, socio-demographic variables, channel-related variables (III) and variables linked to the availability of leads' contacts for the outbound personnel. Future researches are therefore suggested to developed a more structured approach toward the analysis of the phenomenon by setting specific research hypothesis in line with tourism literature and service literature.*

Second, the outcomes stress the relevance of behavioural variables as antecedents of the likelihood a customer/lead books a cruise package when directly contacted by an outbound channel operators, also arguing the role of channel-related variables and variables linked to the availability of leads' contacts as potential predictors of the investigated dependent variables. Unexpectedly, only a few number of socio-demographic variables are selected through the stepwise method in the main statistical model. Their negligible role in shaping the customer/lead purchasing behaviour within the outbound distribution channel, indeed, imposes further test and analysis. In line with our empirical findings, behavioural segmentation and benefit segmentation criteria are supposed to support the achievement of more satisfactory marketing goals respect to more traditional segmentation strategies grounded on socio-demographic criteria within this growing and stimulating distribution channel.

Third, the investigation has greatly benefited from the availability of a broad range of data and information from a leasing market operators, but the results could be biased by specific endogenous characteristics of the customer portfolio managed by the outbound channel of the sample cruise lines. The conceptual model and the main findings should be further validated by replicating this analysis on a more heterogenous panel of customers/leads.

Practical implications. *The research outcomes have both theoretical and practical implications for the innovative and effective management of the direct distribution channels of cruise lines, focusing on the outbound channel. The study adds to extant literature as it provides an in-depth empirical analysis of the outbound channel in a very stimulating sector which is expected to experience tremendous changes in the next future in order to overtake the impressive challenges posed by the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the cruise business. In particular, the contribution constitutes a first attempt to design and develop an ad hoc conceptual framework for addressing the drivers of customer/lead' probability of booking. The results shed lights on the main predictors of the purchasing behaviour of customers and leads in this direct channel, thus providing useful insights for both scholars and practitioners.*

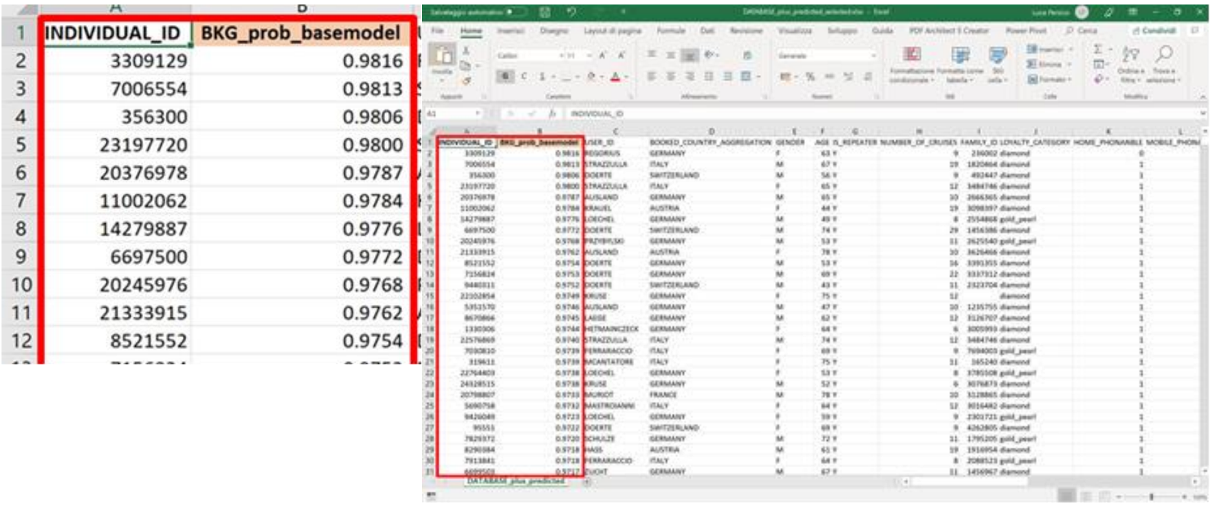
The main statistical model is then enriched further elaborating alternative specifications. In this vein, the research support managers and operators from the outbound channels in evaluating the potential circumstantial elements that act as moderators capable to affect causal relations existing between the dependent and the independent variables. The outbound channel, in fact, is expected to significantly increase its overall weight within the cruise line distribution architecture. Nonetheless, nowadays, the outbound teams are still "undersized" compared with the business opportunities in their customer portfolios, also in leading cruise companies.

As managing direct relations with customers is time consuming and leads portfolios assigned to each outbound operator include large amount of potential customers, business processes and corporate procedures used for selecting leads to be contacted directly from cruise lines' operators should allow to reduce the waste of time, to avoid unfruitful contacts with leads not interested in specific promotional or communicational programs, s well as to improve the effectiveness of the outbound calls. In this perspective, the study greatly supports cruise managers when selecting call *priority criteria for targeting leads enrolled in outbound customer portfolios. The main statistical model performed, in fact, is used for setting a new "Call Priority Ranking", in the sample cruise lines. The Authors, in fact, by cooperating with the corporate team involved in the research project has designed and developed a customized ranking system which allows cruise lines' outbound operators to prioritize leads that have to be contact for selling cruise products during the whole year, i.e., business as usual (See Figure 3). The model has been tested by the company before the COVID-19 pandemic crisis, with impressive market performances.*

In addition, alternative specifications to the main model, included in the research activities have provided fruitful insights for designing the two following managerial tools:

a) *Flexible filtering system: the research team has developed specific filtering rules to be applied by outbound operators to the list of potential leads, that can by applied when selecting criteria for targeting leads enrolled in their customer portfolios, avoiding potential rigidities which originate by aforementioned quantitative "Call Priority Ranking" system.*
b) *Ad hoc models & ranking systems: the research team has set alternative models for supporting specific promotions and marketing activities performed by the outbound channel department during specific events, seasons or campaigns (e.g., promo, call to action, etc.). These alternative specifications are expected to greatly improve the operational and marketing performance of the agents and the operators involved in this direct distribution channel, given their attitude to perfectly fit with specific market segmentation strategies and relatedly well targeted promotional programs and communication campaigns.*

Fig. 3: "Call Priority Ranking" system: the practical tool developed by the research team



Source: Authors' own elaboration.

The managerial and marketing tools which have been developed grounding on the results of our research findings support the Outbound Department by increasing the amount of temporal resources spent for feeding relationships with customers and leads having a higher likelihood to booking, during the entire fiscal year, in specific seasons or given certain promotions from the cruise line. Both corporate market KPIs as well as economic and financial performances related to the Outbound Department have been demonstrated to be positively affected by the introduction of the aforementioned analytical models and practical tools.

Fig. 4: "Flexible filtering system" for prioritizing contacts with customer and leads by outbound channel operators: setting criteria and functional rules

Source: Authors' own elaboration.

Originality of the study. *The manuscript dwells with a stimulating and cutting-edge issues in the tourism management literature, as it evaluates practical solutions for improving the market performances of cruise lines' outbound departments, thus supporting the sustainable growth of this type of direct distribution channels in the cruise sector that, conversely has been traditionally dominated by the design of indirect distribution channels involving diverse typologies of specialized intermediates (e.g., travel agencies, tour operators, etc.).*

The research activities and data used for empirically testing the conceptual model proposed for assessing the predictors of new bookings in the outbound channel greatly benefited from empirical research analyses conducted by a team of both academics and practitioners from the industry. The conceptual model is test for the first time on a huge amount of business data (over 300,000 leads).

The results demonstrate the relevance of different categories of independent variables in determining the likelihood a customer or a lead of a cruise lines books a new cruiser when directly contacted by the Outbound Channel team. Findings demonstrate that the behavioural variables sketching the profiles of leads belonging to the customer portfolios of the outbound operators are among the most meaningful predictors of their attitude to purchase a cruise package when directly contacted by commercial operators from the Outbound Departments.

The empirical analyses performed also allowed to develop practical managerial tools for strengthening the operational and marketing performances of the human resources involved in this direct distribution channels. Advanced statistical tools for supporting the decision marketing process of marketing managers involved in direct distribution channels are suggested and designed in the research project on which the scientific contribution is grounded.

For the first time, moreover, alternative specifications of the main models are provided aiming at identifying a range of potential moderators capable to influence the main causal nexuses between dependent and independent variables. In this perspective, specific operational processes for setting call priority systems during particular events, promotional programmes or communication champaigns are designed grounding on a solid empirical support.

Key words: *cruise market; outbound channel; leads; booking predictor; logistic regression model.*

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Archetipi digitali e risposte strategiche: una tassonomia di riferimento

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Obiettivi. *L'evoluzione delle preferenze della domanda, l'incertezza tecnologica, i processi di globalizzazione e la crescente rivalità competitiva sono riconosciuti come i principali fattori sottesi alle continue trasformazioni nei modelli di business delle imprese (Cennamo et al., 2020; Bergamaschi et al., 2020; Dagnino et al., 2020). In tal prospettiva, si può interpretare la rivoluzione digitale in corso. Integrando varie tecnologie, la digitalizzazione genera cambiamenti radicali in diversi domini aziendali e questa situazione spinge le imprese a sperimentare la trasformazione dei loro business (Brennen e Kreiss, 2016; Dahlman et al., 2016; Gray e Rumpe, 2015).*

La digitalizzazione è un processo multidimensionale basato sull'adozione e l'utilizzo di tecnologie digitali (Legner et al., 2017 Singh e Hess, 2017). In particolare, è possibile individuare due principali fattori che sono driver della digitalizzazione. In primo luogo, la digitalizzazione dipende dalla digital transformation*; ossia il "processo tecnico di conversione dai segnali analogici in forma digitale" (Legner et al., 2017, p. 301, ns. trad.). In secondo luogo, in quanto fenomeno sociale, la digitalizzazione dipende dal* digital mindset *che caratterizza l'impresa e il suo gruppo di comeo (Solberg et al., 2020). Per digital mindset si intende "l'orientamento o la convinzione che lo spostamento di un prodotto o processo fisico in digitale possa differenziare il prodotto/processo e creare valore (in termini di costo, velocità, qualità e funzionalità)" (Allen, 2020, p. 8, ns. trad.)*[1].

Sebbene la letteratura esistente riconosca la digital transformation e il digital mindset come i principali determinanti della digitalizzazione, per spiegare il processo di digitalizzazione delle imprese le ricerche effettuate hanno sin qui esplorato tali driver separatamente, ossia concentrandosi sull'analisi di uno soltanto dei due. Questa ricerca è tesa a mostrare come le strategie digitali emergano dall'interazione tra digital mindset *e* digital transformation. *Sulla base di tale intuizione, il paper presenta una matrice 2x2 generata dalle interazioni fra le due variabili chiave. L'obiettivo del lavoro è, dunque, legato alla costruzione di questa matrice che potrebbe guidare i manager nel riconoscimento dell'archetipo digitale che caratterizza in prevalenza la propria impresa. In tale prospettiva, la ricerca contribuisce a rafforzare la consapevolezza manageriale sulla digitalizzazione.*

Metodologia. *Il percorso di ricerca muove dai princìpi sottesi alla definizione di un contributo teorico secondo Whetten (1989). Il primo principio è riassumibile nella seguente domanda: quali sono i fattori che si dovrebbero considerare per spiegare il fenomeno sociale selezionato? (Whetten 1989: 490). La nostra proposta di ricerca fa leva sul concetto di archetipo inteso quale "insieme di imprese con similari configurazioni di molti attributi" (ns. trad. Elche Hortelano e González Moreno, 2010, p. 539). Muovendo da Elche Hortelano e González Moreno (2010), il presente lavoro sostiene che due imprese che adottano archetipi diversi, presenteranno caratteristiche diverse nel loro approccio alla digitalizzazione.*

Il secondo e il terzo principio proposti da Whetten (1989) consigliano invece di valutare se e come le variabili che abbiamo scelto per identificare i diversi archetipi di impresa (digital transformation e digital mindset) sono correlate. Inoltre, i due principi suddetti spostano l'attenzione sulle "dinamiche che giustificano la selezione dei fattori e la proposta della relazione causale". Partendo dalla definizione di digitalizzazione avanzata da Legner et al. (2017), lo studio sostiene che, sia la digital transformation sia il digital mindset, sono i motori della digitalizzazione. Sebbene i due driver siano indipendenti, entrambi influiscono sul processo di digitalizzazione delle imprese. Nello specifico questo studio sostiene che, in un primo momento, le imprese potrebbero dover affrontare la trasformazione digitale senza il supporto di un digital mindset, successivamente, le stesse potrebbero iniziare a sviluppare una mentalità digitale. Naturalmente, potrebbe anche verificarsi il contrario: imprese con un digital mindset potrebbero inizialmente non affrontare la trasformazione digitale per approcciarla in un secondo momento. Tuttavia, malgrado le due variabili non appaiano correlate, è oltremodo importante che la doppia presenza della trasformazione digitale e della mentalità

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[1] *"L'idea di mindset si riferisce al punto di vista, prospettiva o quadro di riferimento attraverso il quale individui o gruppi di persone sperimentano il mondo, interpretano o danno senso a ciò che incontrano e rispondono a ciò di cui fanno esperienza" (ns trad. Lankshear & Knobel, 2006, p. 31).*

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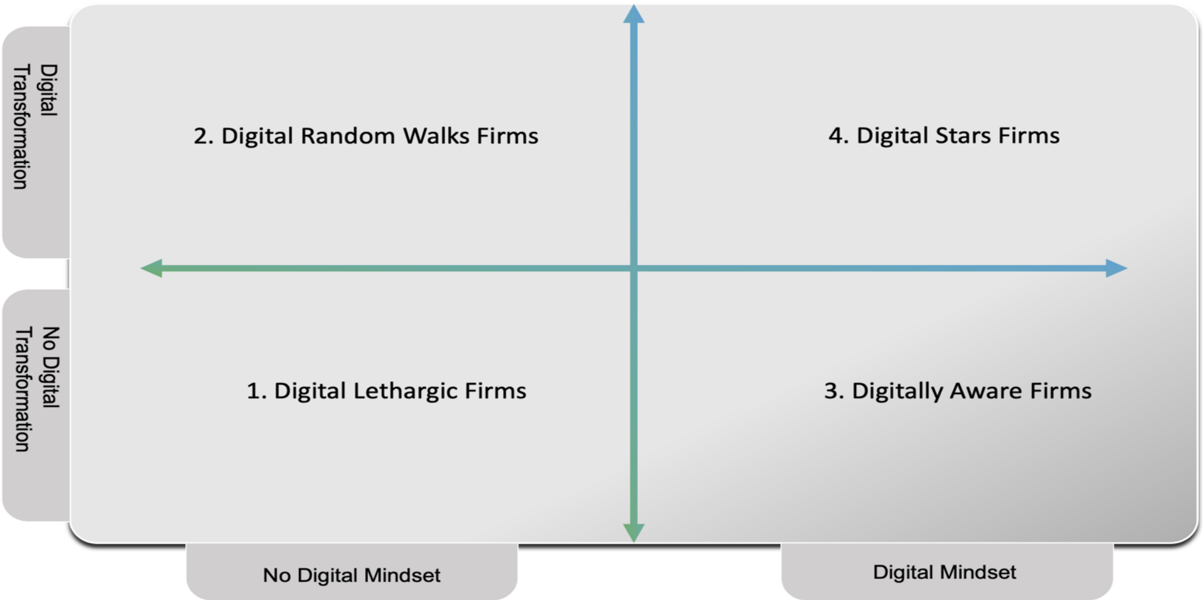
digitale sia contestuale al fine di massimizzare l'effetto. Infatti, digital transformation e digital mindset rappresentano, rispettivamente, l'hardware e il software del processo di digitalizzazione delle imprese. Pertanto, muovendo da Ringberg et al. (2019), questo studio presenta una matrice 2x2 che considera l'interazione tra digital transformation e digital mindset. I cambiamenti relativi all'interazione fra le due variabili spiegano l'efficacia del processo di digitalizzazione e permettono di identificare quattro archetipi digitali di imprese.

Infine, utilizzando principalmente fonti di dati secondarie, la ricerca propone alcuni casi aziendali illustrativi. È lapalissiano comprendere come questo approccio non sia eminentemente induttivo (come, solitamente, accade per i casi di studio), ma permette in ogni modo di offrire alcune intuizioni manageriali derivanti dall'interpretazione della realtà (Stewart e Kamins, 1993).

Risultati. *Muovendo dall'idea che* digital mindset *e* digital transformation *dovrebbero essere analizzate in modo congiunto per studiare il ritmo e la profondità della trasformazione digitale delle imprese proponiamo una matrice due per due (si veda la Figura 1) che mira a svelare i tipi di interazione tra digital mindset e digital transformation. In altre parole, data l'assenza (o la presenza) di digital mindset (asse delle Ascisse) e la presenza (o l'assenza) di digital transformation (asse delle Ordinate), identifichiamo quattro archetipi digitali: (1) digital lethargic firms; (2) digital random walks firms; (3) digitally aware firms; e (4) digital stars firms.*

Fig. 1: Una tassonomia delle strategie digitali d'impresa



Fonte: elaborazione degli autori

Digital lethargic firms. *L'archetipo* digital lethargic firms *emerge dall'intersezione tra le variabili "no digital transformation" e "no digital mindset". In particolare, "no digital transformation" significa che le imprese non sono in grado di sperimentare una trasformazione digitale e, pertanto, che esse non hanno ancora sviluppato alcuna strategia di trasformazione digitale. Invece, "no digital mindset" significa che le imprese non hanno maturato una mentalità che possa supportare tutte le attività alla base della trasformazione digitale e l'integrazione delle diverse tecnologie (Fitzgerard et al, 2014). Quando le imprese non hanno una mentalità digitale diventa piuttosto difficile introdurre e attuare una qualsiasi strategia digitale efficace. Questo aspetto può spiegare perché le imprese di questo quadrante generalmente basino il proprio vantaggio/parità competitiva su aspetti non legati al digitale. Sebbene l'impresa adotti una tecnologia specifica, essa potrebbe emerge in modo esogeno al progresso tecnologico digitale che interessa il mercato in cui opera. In altre parole, l'impresa potrebbe anche essere propensa a utilizzare risorse digitali, ma non sarebbe comunque impegnata a sperimentare attivamente nuove tecnologie digitali e, soprattutto, a creare un sistema integrato digitalmente a livello organizzativo. Le imprese in questo quadrante non riescono a sviluppare una visione digitale ambiziosa. In particolare, questo archetipo d'imprese implementa un approccio basato sull'imitazione che, solitamente, conduce all'emergere di rischi critici per la sopravvivenza futura dell'azienda, come l'incapacità di sviluppare per tempo una mentalità digitale efficace e, di conseguenza, l'incapacità di diventare un'impresa digitale a tutti gli effetti.*

Digital random walks firms. *L'archetipo in parola emerge dall'intersezione tra le variabili "digital transformation" e "no digital mindset". Le imprese posizionate in questo quadrante sperimentano la trasformazione digitale e, quindi, sviluppano un processo di trasformazione digitale, anche se ciò avviene senza aver maturato una mentalità digitale che le supporti nelle attività, persone, processi, risorse e modelli di business che sono alla base della trasformazione digitale (Fitzgerard et al, 2014). Questa condizione appare particolarmente ardua per le imprese che si confrontano con concorrenti che invece hanno già sviluppato una mentalità digitale. Le imprese di questo quadrante tendono ad adattarsi all'ambiente circostante e a sfruttare le tecnologie disponibili sul mercato; esse, pertanto, investono tempo* *prezioso e risorse finanziarie per affrontare la trasformazione digitale e cogliere le opportunità che il mercato offre. Nonostante queste imprese non abbiano ancora sviluppato una mentalità digitale, esse si ritrovano a "passeggiare in maniera casuale" senza seguire una linea retta di ragionamento strategico nell'elaborazione della propria strategia di trasformazione digitale. Per tal motivo, il principale rischio connesso a questo archetipo è legato al fatto che le imprese possono essere inclini a sviluppare un flusso di attività numeroso per gestire la trasformazione digitale. Questa condizione può portarle a sviluppare una "miopia strategica" e quindi a prediligere una prospettiva di breve termine anziché di medio-lungo termine. Tuttavia, come è noto, un processo di digitalizzazione di successo richiede che le imprese abbiano "una chiara visione di che cosa esse vogliono ottenere" (ns. trad. Björkdahl, 2020, p. 14). Diviene quindi fondamentale per le imprese impostare una chiara strategia di trasformazione digitale, che si muova da una riflessione condotta dal top management per poi giungere ad una attenta valutazione delle varie opzioni che consentono di formulare una strategia digitale che sia ben integrata con le caratteristiche distintive dell'impresa (Benlian et al. , 2016). D'altra parte, pur prive di mentalità digitale, le imprese che si trovano nel quadrante delle "digital random walks firms" potrebbero essere stimolate a maturare una mentalità digitale. Infatti, le imprese possono essere inizialmente perplesse allorquando sperimentano nuove tecnologie digitali, ma successivamente possono cambiare il loro approccio iniziando ad affrontare tali tecnologie in modo proattivo. In tal caso, esse non soccombono alla trasformazione digitale, poiché sono progressivamente in grado di riconoscere l'importanza di allineare i loro meccanismi interni per adattarsi e integrare tali tecnologie efficacemente.*

Digitally aware firms. *L'archetipo in parola emerge dall'intersezione tra le dimensioni "no digital transformation" e "digital mindset". È interessante notare come le imprese in questo quadrante non hanno finora sperimentato una trasformazione digitale, sebbene abbiano già sviluppato una mentalità digitale che comprende le potenzialità sottese ad attività e processi che possono supportare lo sfruttamento di un vantaggio competitivo digitale. Le imprese in questo quadrante sono consapevoli dell'importanza di sviluppare una mentalità digitale, sebbene operino tuttora in un contesto competitivo in cui la trasformazione digitale non è tuttavia pervasiva nel mercato di riferimento.*

Alcune imprese collocabili all'interno del quadrante in parola possono implementare strategie digitali all'avanguardia che consentano loro di diventare pionieri del processo di trasformazione digitale e svolgere, in questo modo, un ruolo-chiave nella trasformazione digitale del mercato in cui operano. In questa prospettiva, all'interno dell'impresa, vi possono essere soggetti che agiscono come "campioni della digitalizzazione", ovvero che si dedicano ad attività esplorative relative allo sviluppo e all'adozione di nuove tecnologie digitali (Jansen et al., 2009). Per definire "campione della digitalizzazione", ci basiamo sulla concettualizzazione del "campione dell'innovazione" (Jenssen e Jörgensen, 2004).

Digital stars firms. *L'archetipo delle digital stars firms emerge dall'intersezione fra la presenza di un processo di "digital transformation" e il fatto che le imprese abbiano maturato una "mentalità digitale". In particolare, le imprese posizionate in questo quadrante hanno un digital mindset che consente loro di sviluppare delle efficaci strategie di trasformazione digitale e di integrare e modificare i loro modelli di business, sovente anche in maniera radicale. Questa tipologia di imprese, di solito, rispecchia la mentalità digitale ambiziosa del loro senior management. Poiché la mentalità digitale comprende le opportunità alla base della trasformazione digitale, il management è consapevole dell'importanza di diffondere tale mindset in una prospettiva lungimirante.*

Limiti della ricerca. *La nostra analisi della letteratura corrobora l'idea che digital transformation e digital mindset siano due variabili importanti, ma esse difficilmente possono essere misurate in termini quantitativi. Per quanto riguarda il concetto di digital transformation, essa comprende il processo basato sull'adozione di nuove tecnologie digitali che "permettono di conseguire risultati aziendali orientati al miglioramento della customer experience, alla semplificazione delle operazioni o alla creazione di nuovi business models" (Warner & Wäger, 2019, p. 326, ns. trad.). La difficoltà di misurazione si esplica perché, da un lato, la digital trasformation si esprime in forme diverse per mercati differenti, dall'altro lato, perché anche all'interno degli stessi mercati la trasformazione digitale può assumere forme differenti. Infatti, come abbiamo già affermato, le strategie di trasformazione digitale possono differire sostanzialmente da impresa a impresa, in quanto debbono venire integrate con gli elementi unici che caratterizzano ogni impresa. Infine, ma non meno importante, il concetto di digital transformation è molto ampio e tende quindi a "sfuggire" dai metodi convenzionali di calcolo.*

Per quanto riguarda il concetto di digital mindset è immediato rilevare che, per sua natura, esso sfugge da logiche di misurazione quantitativa.

Infine, si è analizzata l'interrelazione delle variabili digital mindset e digital transformation prendendo in considerazione le configurazioni che derivano dalla presenza o meno di entrambe le variabili (es. presenza/assenza di digital mindset; presenza/assegna di digital transformation). In questo modo, non sono state considerate le configurazioni che possono derivare da livelli di intensità differenti di entrambe le variabili (es. strong/weak digital mindset; strong/weak digital transformation). Per tal motivo, si ritiene che gli archetipi individuati possano presentare delle sfumature specifiche che non state fin qui investigate.

Implicazioni pratiche. *La ricerca presenta tre casi aziendali illustrativi, rispettivamente: il caso Netflix, il caso Blockbuster; e il caso Kodak. Tutti e tre i casi sono posizionati nella matrice proposta. Nello specifico, il caso Blockbuster mostra i rischi tipici di una strategia di imitazione e quali conseguenze negative deve affrontare un'impresa se non è in grado di sviluppare una mentalità digitale in tempo. Il caso Kodak mostra l'importanza di avere diversi promotori della digitalizzazione nel team manageriale, ma anche i rischi legati all'incapacità di diffondere una mentalità digitale tra tutti i membri d'impresa. Infine, il caso Netflix mostra che un'impresa che possiede una mentalità digitale è potenzialmente in grado di pianificare una strategia di trasformazione digitale a lungo termine, prendere le* *distanze dal suo status quo e trasformare radicalmente il suo modello di business e divenire quindi un "disruptive player" che cambia le regole del gioco all'interno di un mercato.*

La struttura della matrice e i casi proposti ci consentono di individuare tre principali intuizioni manageriali. Primo, le imprese devono collegare la digitalizzazione al vantaggio competitivo. Le imprese che desiderano ottenere un vantaggio competitivo basato sul digitale dovrebbero investire tempo e risorse per mettere in discussione il proprio status quo ed esplorare nuovi approcci e soluzioni per affrontare la digitalizzazione. L'evoluzione digitale implica un cambiamento competitivo e un aumento dell'incertezza (Dagnino et al., 2020). Nel contesto competitivo di oggi, si registrano sempre più frequentemente inattesi "cambiamenti distruttivi" che capovolgono le logiche di mercato e accelerano notevolmente il time to market e l'obsolescenza delle tecnologie (Gravier e Swartz, 2009). Diviene, quindi, essenziale che la mentalità dei manager incorpori il legame tra digitalizzazione e vantaggio competitivo.

Secondo, come corollario all'argomento precedente, si richiama l'attenzione sul valore aggiunto attribuibile ai dati dopo che questi vengono elaborati. La produzione e/o la raccolta di dati sono attività cruciali: nell'organizzazione e nell'analisi dei dati; e nella trasformazione dei dati in informazioni strategiche. La gestione dei big data consente dunque alle imprese di accelerare e migliorare i propri processi decisionali (Provost e Fawcett, 2013), comprendere sempre meglio i propri clienti e i loro bisogni (Provost e Fawcett, 2013), nonché rendere più efficienti le attività aziendali e le azioni correttive (Russom, 2013). Quindi, lo sfruttamento dei dati raccolti e/o prodotti offre la possibilità di anticipare il futuro, identificando nuove opportunità di profitto e correggendo eventuali azioni errate o mal implementate (Provost e Fawcett, 2013). Naturalmente, i vantaggi derivanti dai big data saranno maggiori se esiste "una chiara strategia su come i big data forniti dai clienti dovrebbero essere utilizzati per generare maggiori e nuove opportunità di business e per migliorare le prestazioni finanziarie" (ns trad, Kohtamäki et al., 2020, p. 2). Dunque, ancora una volta, si richiama l'attenzione sulla formulazione delle strategie digitali quale momento chiave per la loro implementazione efficace.

Terzo, lo sviluppo del mindset digitale appare il trampolino di lancio per realizzare i cambiamenti che supportano una trasformazione digitale di successo. È palese che accettare dei cambiamenti è complesso, soprattutto quanto questi cambiamenti trasformano le logiche d'impresa. Al contrario, è più facile accettare il cambiamento durante una crisi aziendale. Tuttavia, in un contesto di trasformazione digitale (Liu et al., 2011), il fattore tempo gioca un ruolo chiave per l'efficacia dei modelli di business e indugiare o essere in ritardo potrebbe rivelarsi fatale per la sopravvivenza stessa dell'impresa. In questo contesto, elaborare il proprio mindset digitale è il primo passo per accelerare i tempi di realizzazione dei cambiamenti. La letteratura corrobora questo argomento: infatti, secondo Kretschmer e Khashabi (2020), raggiungere e mantenere il successo richiede non solo che le imprese implementino la trasformazione digitale in modo ampio e diretto, ma anche che si muovano velocemente se vogliono salvaguardare il loro vantaggio competitivo.

Originalità del lavoro. *L'originalità di questo studio risiede nell'analisi congiunta del ruolo della digital mindset e della digital transformation nella formulazione della strategia digitale. Questa ricerca consente dunque di proporre delle previsioni sul ritmo di applicazione delle strategie digitali e sul loro impatto sui business model dell'impresa. La matrice proposta può arricchire la comprensione del contesto di riferimento in cui l'impresa si trova e, di conseguenza, supportare il management nell'individuare, per ciascun quadrante, le azioni strategiche chiave che le imprese possono adottare per rispondere più efficacemente alle nuove dinamiche competitive. Infine, una volta che il management è a conoscenza degli elementi caratterizzanti il quadrante di appartenenza, può di norma decidere di intraprendere una serie di azioni utili a "spostarsi" da un quadrante all'altro della matrice.*

Parole chiave: *digitalizzione; transformazione digitale; digital mindset; strategie di digitalizzazione*

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Strategic management e ruolo dei Big Data: revisione sistematica della letteratura manageriale

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Obiettivi. Il *presente studio propone una review sistematica della letteratura manageriale sul ruolo dei Big Data (BD) nella gestione strategica aziendale. La review si propone di ricostruire la primaria produzione scientifica internazionale prodotta nel corso del tempo in area Marketing, Strategy e nel più trasversale General Management, Ethics, Gender e Social Resposability, al fine di ricostruire i primari risultati e gap della ricerca sul tema ed orientarne i futuri indirizzi. La popolarità dei BD, considerati da taluni come nuovo paradigma manageriale, è cresciuta enormemente nel corso degli ultimi anni, insieme all'ambiguità riguardo una loro completa tassonomia e la loro reale efficacia (Hartmann et al., 2014; George et al., 2016). Le molteplici definizioni rinvenibili in letteratura sul concetto di BD ne determinano l'interdisciplinarietà ma rendono, al contempo, ostica la definizione di un condiviso framework teorico nelle discipline manageriali. Un primo approccio definitorio e descrittivo dei BD fu formalizzato da Laney (2001), che propose le note proprietà della velocità, del volume e della varietà dei grandi dati, successivamente espanse in ulteriori caratteri (Fosso Wamba et al., 2015; Gandomi e Haider, 2015). Molti studi definiscono i BD come quell'ampia quantità di dati complessi e derivanti da varie fonti, strutturate e non, quali i social media, pagine web, transazioni commerciali, download di immagini e video, trials clinici, geotagging, output dai sensori e da altre smart technologies (Fredriksson, 2015; Johnson, 2012; Gandomi e Haider, 2015; McAfee e Brynjolfsson, 2012). Trattasi quindi di dati che consentono di ricostruire non solo i comportamenti dei consumatori ma di offrire un portato di conoscenze ampio di natura sociale ed economica, che enfatizza la valenza dei modelli percettivi e predittivi a supporto delle decisioni aziendali. Altri studi definiscono i BD come un "fenomeno culturale, tecnologico ed accademico che si basa sull'interazione di tre elementi": tecnologia, analisi e mitologia (Boyd e Crawford, 2012). Tale definizione rimanda sia agli strumenti che ai processi che possono trasformare tali dati in risorse strategiche ad alto potenziale, ma anche alla mitologica convinzione, di fatti poco validati in letteratura, che "grandi insiemi di dati offrano una forma superiore di intelligenza e conoscenza in grado di generare intuizioni precedentemente impossibili, con l'aura di verità, obiettività ed accuratezza" (Boyd e Crawford, 2012). Altri studi si focalizzano proprio sul processo di utilizzo dei BD collocandosi nell'interdisciplinare ambito della Big Data Analytics, intesa come quella branca della Business Intelligence che si struttura in tecnologie, processi di analisi ed architetture disegnate per estrarre valore economico dai BD, consentendo alle imprese di elaborare approcci gestionali e decisionali innovativi che generino un vantaggio competitivo durevole (Davenport, 2006; Chen et al., 2012). Appare diffusa la convinzione che l'implementazione dei BD e della loro analisi rappresenti per le organizzazioni soprattutto un'opportunità per accrescere la loro efficienza operativa, nonostante abbiano un elevato potenziale strategico, in modo da poter costruire solide posizioni di vantaggio competitivo nei confronti dei propri concorrenti (Sivarajah et al., 2017). Altri studi rilevano il potenziale di innovazione generato dalla analisi dei BD, tanto da postulare e sostenere che stiamo assistendo alla creazione di un nuovo paradigma scientifico o ad una nuova rivoluzione manageriale (Gobble, 2013; McAfee e Bryniolfsson, 2012; Strawn,2012; Capgemini, 2012). Tuttavia, tale ipotesi in letteratura e le traiettorie di impiego dei BD nella gestione strategica aziendale necessitano di ulteriori validazioni ed esplorazioni (Abbasi et al., 2016; Agarwal e Dhar, 2014; Erevelles et al., 2016), che consentano di verificare empiricamente il potenziale di tali risorse ma anche di analizzare i fattori inibitori al loro efficiente impiego nei processi decisionali. Per le caratteristiche di cui sopra, la letteratura sui BD si è molto concentrata, da un lato, sugli aspetti tecnologici e di processo funzionali al loro utilizzo ed applicazione e, dall'altro, sulla ricerca di modelli di interpretazione che possano dimostrare il rapporto tra i BD e il vantaggio competitivo. Tali sforzi accademici non si sono evoluti seguendo contemporaneamente le traiettorie degli studi manageriali (Ardito et al., 2019), pertanto, emerge in letteratura la necessità di comprendere in maniera approfondita il ruolo dei BD nel processo decisionale strategico (Mazzei e Noble, 2017) ma anche definire lo stato di avanzamento degli studi sul tema per orientare le future ricerche. Difatti, i BD manifestano la loro utilità solo nel caso in cui si arrivi a determinare informazioni aziendali funzionali a direzionare le pratiche manageriali (Ardito et al., 2019). Le organizzazioni per riuscire ad implementare i progetti inerenti ai BD devono indispensabilmente incrementare le loro doti organizzative finalizzate all'identificazione di aree al loro interno che risultino agevolate dal vantaggio derivante*

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dai dati, questo in concomitanza di un mix di capacità e risorse trasversali pianificate strategicamente (Mikelef et al., 2020). Nonostante vi sia una così grande aspettativa correlata a considerevoli investimenti nella raccolta, conservazione e trattazione dei dati, molti manager non sono sicuri di come questa consistente mole di dati possa essere applicata ed essere funzionale alla loro organizzazione per trarre valore (Mazzei e Noble, 2017). Secondo uno studio condotto da Capgemini, due terzi dei manager internazionali intervistati, provenienti da venti settori differenti, asserisce che i processi di raccolta ed analisi di dati siano basilari nella strategia aziendale e nelle decisioni quotidiane, nonostante sostengano che le proprie aziende non considerino in maniera strategica la gestione dei BD, questo probabilmente perché carenti di una "cultura dei big data". In aggiunta a tale prospettiva gestionale il report sottolinea come le organizzazioni riscontrino difficoltà nel "liberare i dati dai silos aziendali" e di come i BD risultino estremamente complicati da gestire dati i grandi volumi e la scarsa qualità, e dato che ben il 42% dei manager ritiene difficile interpretare il contenuto di un dato non strutturato (Capgemini, 2012). Queste evidenze sono confermate anche dalla letteratura, la quale si sta pian piano concentrando sulle varie sfide gestionali, come la gestione della data privacy, la cybersecurity, la governance e la condivisione delle informazioni, che incidono anche sui costi e la proprietà dei dati (Sivarajah et al., 2017).

Pertanto, come sostenuto da Dalle Mule e Davenport (2017), la data strategy deve essere correlata all'implementazione dei BD, interessando tutti i dirigenti appartenenti alla C-suite essendo questa fondamentale per raggiungere elevate prestazioni aziendali (DalleMule e Davenport, 2017).

Gli autori inoltre discutono sugli approcci che le aziende applicano nei confronti di tali progetti, caratterizzati da un equilibrio tra flessibilità di utilizzo e controllo (prospettiva difensiva e offensiva). La prospettiva difensiva è caratterizzata da un'attenzione maggiore di investimenti e risorse nella minimizzazione dei rischi (privacy, sicurezza etc.), mentre la prospettiva offensiva si concentra maggiormente sull'elaborazione istantanea dei dati, tipica delle funzioni aziendali come il marketing. A tale equilibrio si aggiunge la complessità della lettura ed interpretazione dei dati i quali possono avere un'unica o molteplici fonti di verità. Questa per essere gestita necessita di una specifica architettura e di dati flessibili, raggiungendo così benefici strategici e considerevoli risparmi sui costi di gestione IT (DalleMule e Davenport, 2017). In questo contesto di alti potenziali e problematiche di implementazione, si creano grandi aspettative affinché le aziende ottengano un vantaggio sostenibile nell'immediato futuro senza tuttavia un quadro teorico esaustivo (Ardito et al., 2019) e completo dal punto di vista manageriale (Sumbal et al.2017). La presente analisi intende contribuire alla letteratura sul tema, assumendo una prospettiva longitudinale e ancorata all'evoluzione degli studi di strategic management, illustrando i primari risultati, le lacune e le future traiettorie di ricerca. La review sistematica è sempre l'inizio di un percorso di rilancio della letteratura, che trova nell'indirizzo futuro percorribile dalla ricerca il suo maggior valore scientifico.

Metodologia. *Per perseguire gli obiettivi enunciati si procederà ad una revisione sistematica della letteratura internazionale sullo strategic management. Come introdotto nella sezione precedente il crescente interesse nei confronti dei BD nelle discipline manageriali ha portato ad un incremento della produzione della conoscenza con forti influenze interdisciplinari, che presentano approcci di indagine e finalità molto eterogenee, nonché frammentati modelli teorici, rendendo necessaria una sistematizzazione delle evidenze scientifiche disponibili (Snyder, 2019). A tal proposito, l'utilizzo di meta-analisi e di una revisione sistematica sono strumenti funzionali per indagare in maniera affidabile ed accurata tale fenomeno (Liberati et al., 2009). Per effettuare questa revisione della letteratura si è optato per l'utilizzo della metodologia codificata da Massaro et al. (2015), articolata nelle seguenti sei fasi:*

1) Definizione della domanda di ricerca;
2) Protocollo di ricerca per la conduzione della revisione;
3) Definizione degli articoli da includere nella revisione;
4) Sviluppo del framework di codifica;
5) Codificazione degli articoli;
6) Analisi e discussione critica dei risultati.

Come primo passo sono state delineate domande di ricerca del nostro studio, cercando di catturare le diverse sfaccettature del fenomeno oggetto d'indagine. La prima domanda consentirà di ricostruire l'attuale stato dell'arte, la seconda consentirà di delineare gli approcci teorici che si sono delineati nel tempo e le lacune emergenti, infine la terza risulta indispensabile nel comprendere le possibili direzioni di ricerca future (Secundo et al., 2020). Seguendo questo approccio codificato, sono state individuate le seguenti domande di ricerca:

RQ1: Quali sono i principali risultati della ricerca sul ruolo dei BD nella formulazione delle strategie aziendali e dei processi gestionali?

RQ2: Quali sono le implicazioni scientifiche e le lacune emergenti negli studi su Data Strategy e Strategic management?

RQ3: Quali sono le possibili direzioni future per la ricerca?

Nel secondo step si è definito un protocollo di ricerca, individuando specificatamente fonti, strumenti e metodi di estrazione degli articoli da includere nello studio, (Massaro et al., 2015) applicando per l'elaborazione della review i principi del protocollo PRISMA (Secundo et al. 2020; Liberati et al., 2009). Per identificare le keywords funzionali all'estrazione dei documenti pertinenti è stato ricostruito e studiato l'utilizzo dei dati nelle scelte strategiche. Nel corso *del tempo alcuni accademici hanno utilizzato in maniera sovrapposta i termini "Business Intelligence" (BI), Business Analytics (BA) e Big Data (BD) nella trattazione di tali argomenti (Bayrak, 2015). A tal proposito occorre sottolineare come questi concetti non siano del tutto uguali, come precedentemente evidenziato. In questo contesto, come asserito da Sun et al. (2017) a livello concettuale possiamo ricondurre all'interno della Business Analytics le diverse tipologie di analisi digitali inerenti ai BD a supporto dei processi decisionali, che si avvalgono di analisi descrittive, prescrittive e prospettiche. La ricostruzione di tale evoluzione dell'analisi dei BD a livello aziendale è risultata indispensabile nella scelta delle KWs, queste sono state ulteriormente convalidate dalla loro presenza in altre analisi della letteratura più settorializzate che differiscono dal nostro studio proprio per lo specifico obiettivo di ricerca (Günther et al., 2017; Petrosino et al., 2018; Sheng et al., 2017). Le keywords individuate per l'indagine sono le seguenti: "big data", "business intelligence", "business analy*" nel quale poter ricondurre "business analytics" e "business analysis". La scelta di utilizzo di questi elementi è stata subordinata alla necessità di raccogliere un numero maggiore di contributi realizzati nella letteratura scientifica, riuscendo ad avere un quadro il più possibile completo individuando l'origine e le evoluzioni future del tema nelle aree del marketing e delle strategie aziendali. A tale scopo si è optato per limitare l'estrazione del campione alle riviste internazionali presenti nell'Accademy Journal Guide (AJG) (Charted Association of Business Schools, 2018) con la finalità di includere esclusivamente contributi scientifici di alto livello, classificati secondo il noto ranking che va dall'uno al quattro star. Si sono considerate le riviste accademiche rientranti negli ambiti Marketing (MKT), Strategie (STRAT) e General Management, Ethics, Gender and Social Resposability (ETHICS-CSR-MAN). Si è deciso di considerare le riviste appartenenti a quest'ultima area dato che vengono considerate all'interno di questa categoria riviste che affrontano studi trasversali nell'ambito manageriale, che possano risultare utili a questo studio.*

Un ulteriore elemento di considerazione è stata l'individuazione delle riviste appartenenti al ranking 3, 4 e 4 star, limitazione effettuata per poter estrapolare i contributi più rilevanti nell'ambito manageriale. Le riviste considerate nel nostro lavoro ammontano ad un totale di quarantaquattro, nello specifico sono:

Strategy (STRAT):
- *Ranking 4 star: Strategic Management Journal.*
- *ranking 3: Global Strategy Journal; Long Range Planning; Strategic Organization.*

Marketing (MKT):
- *ranking 4 star: Journal of Consumer Psychology; Journal of Consumer Research; Journal of Marketing; Journal of Marketing Research; Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science; Marketing Science.*
- *Ranking 4: International Journal of Research in Marketing; Journal of Retailing.*
- *Ranking 3: European Journal of Marketing; Industrial Marketing Management; International Marketing Review; Journal of Advertising; Journal of Advertising Research; Journal of Interactive Marketing (formerly JDM); Journal of International Marketing; Journal of Public Policy and Marketing; Marketing Letters; Marketing Theory; Psychology and Marketing; Quantitative Marketing and Economics.*

General Management, Ethics, Gender and Social Responsibility (ETHICS-CSR-MAN)
- *ranking 4 star: Academy of Management Journal; Academy of Management Review; Administrative Science Quarterly; Journal of Management.*
- *Ranking 4: Academy of Management Annals; British Journal of Management; Business Ethics Quarterly; Journal of Management Studies.*
- *Ranking 3: Academy of Management Perspectives; Business and Society; California Management Review; European Management Review; Gender and Society; Gender, Work and Organization; Harvard Business Review; International Journal of Management Reviews; Journal of Business Ethics; Journal of Business Research; Journal of Management Inquiry; MIT Sloan Management Review.*

Identificati questi criteri appena descritti si è optato per l'esecuzione di un'estrazione manuale dei singoli contributi nelle specifiche riviste, questa scelta è stata dettata dalla non uniforme presenza di queste nelle principali piattaforme di indicizzazione (EBSCO, Web of Science e Scopus). La ricerca è stata condotta utilizzando le keywords inserite in "anyware", "title", "abstract" e keywords, questo per consentire ai revisori di avere una prima percezione di pertinenza degli articoli nella fase di lettura degli abstract. Si è scelto di non limitare la ricerca in un periodo temporale definito, questo per riuscire ad avere una visione longitudinale del fenomeno e dell'evoluzione dei quadri teorici sviluppati.

L'estrazione condotta con questi criteri è iniziata a fine novembre 2020 ed è terminata a gennaio 2021, portando all'estrapolazione di duemilatrecentotredici (2.313) articoli, andando a considerare una sola volta il contributo presente in più parole chiave. La prima scrematura sarà effettuata eliminando gli editoriali, i commenti, le raccolte di abstract, le book review e i documenti contenenti esclusivamente informazioni relative agli autori e alle redazioni editoriali presenti nel campione estratto; tale scelta di considerare solo gli articoli pubblicati in riviste di alto profilo ha conferito una buona probabilità di ottenere contributi di impatto maggiore sul campo (Keupp et al., 2012). In seguito, si procederà nella lettura degli abstract arrivando ad un primo campione, procedendo successivamente alla lettura integrale degli articoli, arrivando così alla definizione conclusiva dei contributi pertinenti.

Al campione finale si applicherà un framework di codifica sulla base di approcci precedentemente adottati in letteratura (Massaro 2015; Broadbent e Guthrie 2008) e che consente di analizzare il grado di impatto ed evoluzione dei contributi nel network scientifico, di ricostruire la metodologia utilizzata nelle ricerche, per comprendere il livello di avanzamento della letteratura accademica in merito tale materia, infine isolare i temi delle ricerche e le cornici teoriche che evidenziano gli argomenti di frontiera e le possibili aree di sviluppo future (Serenko e Dumay, 2015).

Risultati. *Lo studio mira a fornire un inquadramento della tematica dei big data applicati alla data strategy in area management, tale da orientare la comprensione del fenomeno in maniera più ampia, andando ad individuare lo stato di fatto della letteratura, le implicazioni teoriche e scientifiche emergenti e i futuri indirizzi di ricerca.*

L'intuizione dalla quale parte lo studio è che il fenomeno sia caratterizzato nella sua evoluzione da tre momenti.

È infatti possibile individuare un primo stadio, nel quale si sono avvicendati nel tempo contributi volti a produrre una definizione e comprensione multidisciplinare del fenomeno dei BD e delle tecniche e tecnologie funzionali alle scelte strategiche aziendali. Questo dibattito risulta ancora in fase di discussione essendo intrinseco nella natura stessa della materia (Sivarajah et al., 2017), e venendo confermato dal raddoppio della quantità di dati globale ogni due anni in concomitanza all'avanzamento tecnologico di algoritmi e strutture di elaborazione sempre più sofisticate (Tsbesh et al., 2019).

Il secondo momento si identifica nella ricerca degli elementi che caratterizzano il successo, il fallimento e le dinamiche presenti dietro progetti di implementazione ed utilizzo dei BD nelle scelte strategiche, ossia una fase di analisi dei BD in azione nella gestione strategica delle imprese.

La terza fase corrisponde alla definizione di un framework interpretativo che consenta di validare il rapporto tra BD, strategic management e vantaggio competitivo, producendo modelli gestionali che possano orientare le decisioni strategiche nel futuro. Tali intuizioni risultano in parte supportate da Rialti et al., (2019) i quali sostengono che la ricerca accademica sui BD sia caratterizzata da studi teorici e qualitativi, rendendo necessario un approfondimento empirico su tale fenomeno.

Un ulteriore risvolto di questa review potrebbe confermare l'interesse accademico sulle tre diverse pratiche o fasi di analisi riguardanti la big data analytics (BDA) funzionale alla fruizione di informazioni indispensabili ad eventuali cambiamenti strategici (Van Rijmenam et al., 2019).

La pratica riguardante l'analisi descrittiva consente alle organizzazioni di comprendere le opportunità dell'ambiente esterno ed interno, realizzando un quadro di ciò che è avvenuto fino a quel momento (Van Rijmenam et al., 2019). L'applicazione nell'ambito del marketing delle tecniche di analisi dei BD trova una sua applicazione nell'estrapolazione del contenuto generato online dagli utenti (user generated content - UGC) sui marchi, fornendo alle organizzazioni informazioni preziose (Kauffmann et al., 2020).

L'analisi predittiva invece, permette di ottimizzare il processo decisionale delle organizzazioni prevedendo le evoluzioni future che le interessano (Van Rijmenam et al., 2019). L'implementazione di tale analisi interessa le più svariate sfaccettature ed applicazioni, che vanno dall'analisi dei BD nelle vendite al dettaglio (Bradlow et al., 2017) all'implementazione di progetti predittivi per migliorare le prestazioni operative e la catena di fornitura aziendale (Dubey et al., 2019).

Infine, l'analisi prescrittiva risulta funzionale alle organizzazioni che utilizzano le raccomandazioni emerse andando ed allineare le proprie risorse ed attività al fine di ottimizzare il vantaggio competitivo derivante dalle previsioni emerse (Van Rijmenam et al., 2019).

A livello a teorico appare diffusa nell'indagine del fenomeno oggetto di studio l'adozione della prospettiva delle capacità dinamiche, la quale si collega alla visione basata sulle risorse (resouce based view RBV) ed alla visione basata sulla conoscenza (knowledge based view KBV) (Rialti et al., 2019), risultando utili prospettive adatte a catturare gli elementi che interessano i BD e le decisioni aziendali strategiche (Cao et al., 2019; Merendino et al., 2018; Van Rijmenam et al., 2019).

La data strategy e i BD si dimostrano a livello teorico fonte di grandi potenziali, ma questo non risulta chiaro in un contesto privo di un inquadramento esaustivo che sottolinei teorie, applicazioni ed evoluzioni future.

Limiti della ricerca. *In questo working paper è possibile identificare alcuni limiti riconducibili alle scelte metodologiche effettuate nella revisione della letteratura. Un primo limite riguarda la natura degli articoli inclusi nel campione analizzato e nella non inclusione di articoli pubblicati in atti di conferenze e capitoli di libri, nei quali è possibile trovare ulteriori prospettive di ricerca. Nonostante l'utilizzo di un approccio sistematico di analisi della letteratura, l'inclusione degli articoli inerenti alla tematica dei BD nella data strategy presenti nel campione definitivo è stata oggetto di giudizio soggettivo degli operatori, suscettibile di noti bias decisionali (Fosso Wamba et al., 2015). Alla luce di tali limitazioni, rappresenta un interessante prospettiva la ripetizione di tale studio, considerando un approccio di selezione meno stringente, realizzando una panoramica sempre più rappresentativa del fenomeno in oggetto.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *I dati risultano ormai indispensabili per il "funzionamento delle nostra moderna economia digitale" (Forbes, 2020) e grazie all'uso dei BD il processo decisionale e la data strategy si sono evoluti. La data strategy permette di affrontare il governo e le analisi di questi dati riuscendo ad essere funzionale alle scelte decisionali strategiche, ottimizzando le prestazioni finanziarie aziendali (DalleMule e Davenport, 2017). Tuttavia, di fatto, dietro agli alti potenziali teoricamente enunciati, ancora risulta poco chiaro quali siano gli output dell'effettiva applicazione ed implementazione di questi progetti, su quali siano i principali fattori inibitori nella loro applicazione e quali approcci gestionali ed organizzativi impiegare per efficientare i processi decisionali. Il presente working paper cercherà di fornire una solida e rigorosa base di studio per gli accademici ma anche utili indirizzi operativi ai manager*

impegnati nell'implementazione e nello sfruttamento dei BD, evidenziando sia i principali risultati che ispirando nuovi comportamenti riguardo il loro utilizzo.

Originalità del lavoro. *La trattazione della letteratura in questo studio come suggerito da Palmatier et al. (2018) cerca di andare aldilà delle ricerche precedenti, applicando una metodologia che, con rigore e profondità, mira ad analizzare il contributo dei BD nello scientific management, focalizzandosi sulla primaria letteratura scientifica internazionale nel corso del tempo, ricostruendo i primari stadi di sviluppo del fenomeno ed ispirando future ricerche sul tema. Le motivazioni di una nuova review sistematica della letteratura sono dettate dalla frammentaria comprensione dei BD in campo strategico aziendale, confermata dall'assenza di una revisione verticale di più ampio respiro specifica per la nostra area di interesse. Gli studi precedenti si sono infatti concentrati maggiormente nella sua applicazione nel contesto dell'information technology (IT) o in revisioni più settorializzate del fenomeno nell'area accounting o delle operations; tale revisione rappresenta il primo tentativo di sistematizzare le conoscenze nel campo manageriale dei BD associati alle scelte strategiche.*

Parole chiave: *Big Data; Data strategy; Business Intelligence; Business Analytics; Business analysis.*

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Il bias della hubris nei processi di uscita imprenditoriale: verso la formulazione di un *framework* teorico-interpretativo

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Obiettivi. *Gli studi sull'imprenditorialità si sono estesamente focalizzati sul processo di creazione di nuove imprese, indagando aspetti che riguardano le motivazioni e le caratteristiche individuali degli imprenditori, i programmi di promozione di nuova imprenditorialità e le condizioni di contesto che la favoriscono (Di Paola, 2020; Douglas et al., 2020; Murnieks, 2020; Stayton e Mangematin, 2018; Razmdoost et al., 2020). Al contrario, tradizionalmente, la letteratura in parola ha considerato l'uscita imprenditoriale (in lingua inglese,* entrepreneurial exit*) come una specie di "ultimo atto", quasi come una manifestazione del fallimento imprenditoriale (Jenkins e McKelvie, 2016). Di conseguenza, non sorprende che gli studiosi di imprenditorialità, abbiano per molti anni trascurato lo studio delle condizioni sottese all'uscita imprenditoriale (Huvaj, 2020).*

All'inizio dello scorso decennio, De Tienne (2010) ha offerto una definizione di entrepreneurial exit *valida per avanzare il dibattito. La studiosa suppone che l'uscita imprenditoriale sia il processo tramite il quale i fondatori lasciano l'impresa che hanno contribuito a creare, non partecipando più alla sua proprietà e ai suoi processi decisionali (De Tienne, 2010). Questa definizione ha il pregio rappresentare l'uscita imprenditoriale come un* momento *del processo imprenditoriale (DeTienne, 2010), e pone la necessità di superare la tradizionale dicotomia che vede contrapporsi la sopravvivenza dell'impresa e il fallimento della stessa, per sposare invece una visione più olistica, che prende in considerazione diverse opzioni, quali IPO* (Initial Public Offering)*, successione familiare, vendita, e liquidazione (Wennberg e DeTienne, 2014).*

La decisione di uscita imprenditoriale in quanto tale implica che il fondatore lasci la proprietà e il controllo dell'impresa, ma a questo evento possono seguire diversi scenari. Per quanto riguarda l'impresa, l'uscita imprenditoriale non implica necessariamente la cessazione dell'attività aziendale. Al contrario, l'impresa può sopravvivere, ad esempio, attraverso la successione imprenditoriale o la vendita. Per quanto riguarda l'imprenditore, dopo la sua uscita dall'impresa, egli potrà continuare la propria avventura imprenditoriale in altre imprese (Siepel et al., 2017; Toft-Kehler et al., 2014) e persino divenire un imprenditore seriale (Varaiya, 2017). In nuce*, seguendo questo approccio, l'uscita imprenditoriale rappresenta una fase del processo imprenditoriale. Dal punto di vista logico, l'uscita imprenditoriale rappresenta il momento per certi versi opposto alla fase di creazione di una nuova impresa (DeTienne, 2010); dal punto di vista cronologico, l'uscita imprenditoriale può rappresentare un momento intermedio nel percorso imprenditoriale del singolo. Sulla scorta di questa chiave di lettura, la* exit *è un evento fisiologico nel percorso imprenditoriale, che è sovente oggetto di programmazione da parte dell'imprenditore, il quale ne progetta i modi e i tempi, nell'ambito di un disegno strategico, personale e professionale più ampio (DeTienne e Wennberg, 2013). Questo implica, altresì, che alcune delle decisioni che l'imprenditore assume durante la gestione dell'impresa siano condizionate dal progetto che egli ha in relazione alla fase di uscita.*

Similmente a quanto accade nella fase di creazione di una nuova impresa, anche nella fase di uscita imprenditoriale le caratteristiche personali, le motivazioni e le aspirazioni dell'imprenditore possono giocare un ruolo cruciale (Shane et al., 2003). Tali caratteristiche possono accelerare o inibire i processi decisionali, e talvolta alterare la percezione dell'imprenditore, producendo concrete ricadute (Corner et al., 2017). Tuttavia, la letteratura esistente offre enfasi sugli attributi psicologici dei fondatori nel formulare l'idea imprenditoriale e, più in generale, nella creazione dell'impresa (Cumming et al., 2016; Di Paola et al., 2016; Gimmon et al., 2011; Katila et al., 2012; Paradkar et al., 2015) e nella gestione delle dinamiche famiglia-impresa (Picone et al., 2021; Humphrey et al., 2021). Invece, nel caso della fase di uscita imprenditoriale, l'importanza, il ruolo e le implicazioni degli attributi psicologici dei fondatori appaiono tutt'oggi non sufficientemente esplorati (DeTienne, 2010; Aldrich, 2015).

Questo percorso di ricerca - tuttora in fieri*- introduce il bias della hubris nella letteratura sull'uscita imprenditoriale. Com'è noto, il termine* hubris *risale alla tragedia greca e rappresenta la qualità (negativa) di un uomo arrogante e presuntuoso al punto di mettersi contro le divinità dell'Olimpo (Bollaert e Petit, 2010). Nella tragedia greca, la hubris viene punita tramite il noto meccanismo antitetico della* Némesis*.*

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Muovendosi dalla tragedia greca, gli studi di psicologia hanno ampiamente esplorato la hubris focalizzando l'attenzione sugli antecedenti e sulla sintomatologia (Bollaert e Petit, 2010). In particolare, questi studi hanno approfondito le condizioni che sono alla base del consolidamento dei tratti hubristici e, inoltre, i segnali attraverso i quali tali tratti possono essere individuati. Inoltre, il costrutto della hubris è stato dapprima applicato agli studi di finanza (Roll, 1986) e, successivamente, in quelli di strategia d'impresa per approfondire le dinamiche che riguardano alcune decisioni (a titolo esemplificativo, si ricordano Hayward e Hambrick, 1997; Kroll et al., 2000; Petit e Bollaert, 2012; Tang et al. 2015; Sadler-Smith, 2016). In particolare, la hubris appare essere un fattore chiave nei processi decisionali d'impresa (Hiller e Hambrick, 2005) e nella formulazione e implementazione di alcune strategie: operazioni di M&A (Hayward Hambrick, 1997; Martin e Davis, 2010), strategie di innovazione (Arena et al. 2018), iniziative di (ir)resposabilità sociale d'impresa (Tang et al., 2015; Theissen e Theissen, 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). Alcuni studiosi hanno osservato una good side *e una* bad side *della hubris (Picone et., 2014; Zeitoun et al., 2019) mentre altri hanno esplorato come prevenire una leadership hubristica (Berger et al. 2020) e le condizioni che limitano l'impatto della hubris sulle perfomance (Park et al., 2018)*

Ancorché in misura largamente inferiore, la hubris è stata altresì utilizzata nel contesto degli studisull'imprenditorialità. In particolare, Hayward et al. (2006) introducono il bias della hubris imprenditoriale in riferimento alla nascita d'impresa e ai driver che guidano le decisioni che riguardano l'allocazione delle risorse dell'imprenditore. In questo lavoro, proponiamo la tesi che il bias della hubris del fondatore si rifletta non solo nelle scelte sottese alla formazione, e all'eventuale fallimento dell'impresa (Hayward et al., 2006; Dagnino et al., 2013), ma altresì nel momento dell'uscita imprenditoriale.

Metodologia. *Il bias della hubris si manifesta quando una individuo tende a sovrastimare l'accuratezza delle proprie informazioni, le sue capacità e le probabilità di successo delle azioni che egli formula e/o implementa (Picone et al., 2014). A tal proposito si consideri, altresì, che il bias della hubris colpisce usualmente persone di successo che nel tempo esercitano potere in posizioni apicali di responsabilità (Picone et al., 2014). Di fatti, nei casi di esperienze imprenditoriali di successo, l'imprenditore facilmente si convince (talvolta sbagliando) di essere l'artefice esclusivo, o quanto meno il principale, del successo imprenditoriale. Taluni casi documentano in modo emblematico quanto si è appena detto, ad esempio si pensi alla parabola di Calisto Tanzi in Parmalat (Dagnino et al. 2013).*

Queste considerazioni confermano l'opportunità di esplorare il ruolo della hubris nei processi di uscita imprenditoriale, che affrontiamo proponendo un framework teorico-interpretativo originale. La ricerca si pone all'interno del primo approccio identificato da Zahra e Newey (2009): prendere un concetto (la hubris) a prestito da un campo disciplinare (la psicologia cognitiva) e poi incrociarlo con la letteratura sull'imprenditorialità. In particolare, si assume un approccio riduzionista à la Powell et al. (2011),laddove l'ambito di interesse è il processo decisionale individuale con un focus su euristiche e bias.

Inoltre, per l'elaborazione di tale framework, si seguono i principi enunciati in Whetten (1989), il quale stabilisce gli standard per il processo di sviluppo di un contributo teorico. Sulla scorta del lavoro di Whetten (1989), il nostro sforzo è teso a contribuire alla letteratura sull'uscita imprenditoriale in condizioni diverse rispetto a quelle già analizzate in letteratura.

Risultati. *Com'è noto, i risultati ai quali si propone di pervenire un lavoro di tipo teorico-concettuale consistono in un set di proposizioni. Malgrado i risultati della ricerca non sono ancora disponibili in termini di proposizioni, lo studio èin ogni modo pervenuto a proporre alcune riflessioni che sinteticamente riportiamo di seguito:*

- *riflessione 1: maggiore è il livello di hubris imprenditoriale, maggiore è la probabilità che l'imprenditore modifichi nel tempo la sua prospettiva di identità imprenditoriale. In particolare, il concetto di* identity *(Josselson, 1994; Sluss e Ashforth, 2007)si collega alla sfera più intima dell'individuo e alle sue relazioni con il contesto in cui si muove e opera (Gioia, 1998). In relazione questa definizione, perciò, uno stesso individuo può avere più identità simultaneamente, e può modificare tali identità nel tempo in base alle sue esperienze. In questa ricerca, l'identità imprenditoriale riguarda la percezione che l'imprenditore ha di se stesso in relazione al contesto individuale e organizzativo in cui opera (Ashforth e Johnson, 2001; Down e Reveley, 2004);*
- *riflessione 2: quando l'impresa mostra delle performance insufficienti rispetto a quelle attese, maggiore è il livello di hubris imprenditoriale, maggiore è la probabilità che l'imprenditore reiteri i comportamenti e le decisioni che hanno portato a tali performance. In altri termini, l'imprenditore dotato di hubris tende a ripetere lo schema decisorio adottato precedentemente, senza rendersi conto di eventuali incongruenze;*
- *riflessione 3: quando l'impresa mostra delle performance insufficienti rispetto a quelle attese, maggiore è il livello di hubris imprenditoriale, maggiore è la probabilità che l'imprenditore* intensifichi *(in termini quantitativi) gli investimenti sulle stesse scelte di investimento strategico. In questo senso, l'imprenditore tende a puntare ulteriormente su di un insieme di investimenti, nella convinzione che siano quelli più giusti e che dunque prima o poi possano condurre ai risultati sperati;*
- *riflessione 4: quando l'impresa mostra delle performance insufficienti rispetto a quelle attese, il livello di hubris imprenditoriale sarà positivamente correlato alla probabilità di fallimento. Poiché l'imprenditore hubristico tende a non discostarsi dagli schemi che ha seguito in precedenza, egli più facilmente può precipitare in processi di* escalation *che rischiano di intensificare le difficoltà dell'impresa e di accelerare il suo processo di declino;*
- *riflessione 5: quando l'impresa mostra delle performance adeguate (o migliori) rispetto a quelle attese, l'imprenditore affetto da hubris mostrerà un grado più elevato di "attenzione" alla possibilità di avviare molteplici iniziative imprenditoriali. L'imprenditore hubristico, attribuisce a se stesso i successi dell'impresa e si ritiene*

dunque sempre più capace, a mano a mano che la performance aziendale migliora, di affrontare nuove sfide imprenditoriali;

- *riflessione 6: quando l'impresa mostra delle performance adeguate (o migliori) rispetto a quelle attese, l'imprenditore affetto da hubris non è incline a uscire dal business tramite IPO o acquisizione esterna. In altri termini, l'imprenditore hubristico propende per alcune tipologie di uscita imprenditoriale se le performance dell'impresa sono positive. Egli predilige le modalità di uscita in cui sente di mantenere maggior controllo sulla "creatura" imprenditoriale.*

Limiti della ricerca. *Lo studio in oggetto assume una prospettiva di analisi teorico-concettuale, facendo leva sui recenti contributi sulla hubris in psicologia e assumendo un approccio riduzionista à la Powell et al. (2011). La ricerca può essere estesa lungo tre principali direzioni. Primo, proporre uno studio qualitativo-longitudinale (Yin, 2015) che compara la storia di diverse imprese nelle quali il fondatore ha presentato i sintomi della hubris. Secondo, corroborare i suoi risultati mediante studi quantitativi e/o applicando il metodo storico (Argyres et al., 2020). Terzo, allargare l'ambito di studio a fattori che cambiano in direzione o intensità le relazioni che questo studio propone. Ad esempio, è plausibile ritenere che alcuni aspetti culturali possano incidere su suddette relazioni.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Questo studio si propone di contribuire alla pratica manageriale almeno in tre modi. Anzitutto, mediante l'individuazione dei principali percorsi di uscita degli imprenditori affetti da hubris, questo studio mette in luce le possibili scelte che portano a risultati perniciosi. Inoltre, lo studio supporta la ricerca sui meccanismi organizzativi e di governance utili a ridurre, o persino a eliminare, i danni che l'imprenditore caratterizzato da hubris può potenzialmente arrecare alla propria impresa. Infine, grazie all'individuazione delle traiettorie di uscita imprenditoriale che l'imprenditore hubristico può attuare, è possibile aumentare le capacità interpretative di una più vasta gamma di decisioni imprenditoriali, che riguardano anche le fasi antecedenti, ovvero quelle di regolare funzionamento dell'impresa. Questo può avvenire poiché tali traiettorie di uscita sono sovente formulate, non di rado con notevole anticipo, da parte dell'imprenditore e fanno pertanto parte dello scenario che egli prefigura per se stesso e per la propria impresa.*

Originalità dello studio. *Questa ricerca è tesa a esplorare i meccanismi di base attraverso i quali il bias della hubris si insinua all'interno delle principali scelte di uscita imprenditoriale. Il nostro scopo è di estendere il dibattito sull'uscita imprenditoriale concentrandosi sul ruolo di uno specifico bias cognitivo. Per tale motivo focalizziamo l'attenzione sulla hubris, ovvero perché essa appare come uno dei bias più diffusi fra gli operatori d'impresa (Hiller e Hambrick, 2005). Inoltre, questa ricerca contribuisce alla teoria sulla hubris imprenditoriale ampliando lo spettro di analisi rispetto alle fasi del ciclo di vita dell'impresa. Più specificamente, lo studio consente di andare oltre l'analisi del come, quando e perché le decisioni dell'imprenditore arrogante influenzano la nascita dell'impresa, il suo successo e la sua sopravvivenza (Hayward et al., 2006; Hayward et al., 2010), per indagare il momento dell'uscita imprenditoriale e comprendere le implicazioni della hubris imprenditoriale sulle decisioni-chiave che la precedono e la caratterizzano.*

Parole Chiave: *hubris; uscita imprenditoriale; bias; framework teorico*

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Il ciclo di vita dei settori in convergenza: l'ascesa e il declino del settore dei tablet

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Obiettivi. *È generalmente riconosciuto nell'ambito della letteratura accademica che le caratteristiche strutturali e competitive dei settori industriali variano nel tempo. La comprensione dei meccanismi alla base delle dinamiche evolutive a livello settoriale ha richiesto l'utilizzo di prospettive di studio differenti, che hanno fornito chiavi di lettura complementari (Agarwal, Sarkar, Echambadi, 2002). Nel tempo si è in particolare assistito ad un forte avvicinamento tra le ricerche sul tema svolte nel campo della 'economia evolutiva' (Nelson, Winter, 1982; Gort, Klepper, 1982; Klepper, 1996, 1997) e degli studi di technology management (Abernathy, Utterback, 1978; Utterback, Suarez, 1993; Anderson, Tushman, 1990; Audretsch, 1995; 1997). Le numerose ricerche empiriche sul tema svolte nell'ambito di tali prospettive di analisi hanno mostrato che i settori tendono in prevalenza a evolvere seguendo un ciclo di vita contraddistinto da una serie di 'empirical regularities' riguardanti il modo in cui la struttura del mercato e il cambiamento tecnologico variano dalla nascita dei settori, alla fase di maturità (Keppler, 1996). I risultati di tali ricerche, che hanno indagato la relazione tra processi di innovazione e evoluzione industriale, hanno fornito indirettamente nuove chiavi interpretative per far luce su uno dei principali eventi di trasformazione settoriale su cui negli ultimi anni si sta incentrando l'attenzione degli studiosi in campo economico-manageriale. Ci si riferisce al fenomeno della convergenza settoriale, che ha determinato la confluenza e la fusione di molti mercati separati, specie nell'ambito dei settori digitali (Yoffie, 1997). I processi di convergenza hanno infatti determinano significative discontinuità nelle architetture produttive e tecnologiche in molti settori, provocando spesso la ridefinizione delle caratteristiche strutturali dei business convergenti e, quindi, delle relative curve del ciclo di vita del settore (Hacklin, Marxt, Fahrni, 2009; Hacklin, 2008). Lind (2005, p. 14), proprio partendo dalla considerazione che the "la convergenza si realizza nell'intersezione del cambiamento tra tecnologie, industrie, prodotti e mercati", osserva che la convergenza è un fenomeno sfuggente e sfaccettato, i cui effetti sono difficilmente interpretabili con i framework di analisi esistenti. Egli, quindi, per esaminare i cambiamenti strutturali e competitivi dei settori interessati da tale fenomeno, propone di inserire lo studio dei processi di convergenza nell'ambito di un framework teorico integrato che utilizzi esplicitamente le indicazioni delle ricerche svolte nel campo della prospettiva del technology management e degli studi sul ciclo di vita del settore. Su questo tipo di approccio si muovono sia Stieglitz (2003), per esaminare il processo di convergenza alla base dell'evoluzione del mercato dei Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) negli anni '90 , sia Hacklin, Marxt, e Fahrni (2009), per indagare i processi coevolutivi che hanno caratterizzato diversi comparti dell'ICT.*

Questo lavoro di ricerca fornisce un contributo originale in questa direzione. Obiettivo generale del lavoro è quello di analizzare le dinamiche evolutive di un settore sviluppatosi in forza di un processo di convergenza digitale, quello dei tablet pc. Tale obiettivo è declinato in una serie di interrogativi di ricerca specifici.

In primo luogo, in accordo con le indicazioni degli studiosi del ciclo di vita del prodotto (Vernon, 1966; Rink, Swan, 1979) che hanno mostrato come le varie fasi di questo ciclo siano definite e distinte in relazione ai differenti livelli di crescita delle vendite nel settore, si descrive l'evoluzione della curva del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet sulla base dei dati di vendita nel mondo di tali dispositivi. Ciò per verificare se tale curva ha seguito il 'modello a forma di S' prevalentemente individuato dalle ricerche empiriche condotte in diversi ambiti settoriali, o se invece ha assunto un andamento differente, collegabile ad una delle tipologie di configurazioni alternative individuate in letteratura.

Un secondo aspetto analizzato attiene, invece, allo studio dei processi di ingresso ed uscita delle imprese nel settore degli tablet. Come noto, gli studi empirici sul ciclo di vita del settore hanno mostrato che la maggior parte dei settori segue un'evoluzione della demografia industriale che passa attraverso stadi successivi. Più nello specifico, è emerso che di norma il numero delle imprese operanti in un settore cresce nelle fasi iniziali di sviluppo del business, raggiunge un picco nelle fasi di crescita/maturità, per poi iniziare a ridursi nel tempo. Si procede quindi a verificare se anche in un settore sviluppatosi in base ad un processo di convergenza settoriale, come quello dei tablet, l'evoluzione della demografia industriale abbia seguito questo tipo di andamento.

Un terzo aspetto analizzato è relativo, infine, allo studio dei processi di innovazione durante lo sviluppo del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet. Gli studi svolti nel campo della 'economia evolutiva' e della prospettiva del technology management hanno mostrato che le innovazioni di prodotto sono di norma molto frequenti nelle fasi iniziali di sviluppo

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di un settore, per poi declinare nel tempo a vantaggio di un aumento delle innovazioni di processo. È stato quindi esaminato, relativamente al settore convergente degli tablet, se le innovazioni di prodotto sono cresciute nelle fasi iniziali del ciclo di vita del settore, hanno raggiunto un picco durante la fase di crescita, per poi diminuire nel tempo.

Metodologia. *Dal punto di vista metodologico è stata svolta un'analisi di tipo quali/quantitativo finalizzata a studiare in profondità il ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet. È stato quindi utilizzato un metodo di analisi storico coerente con lo studio di fenomeni che possono essere compresi solo esaminando la sequenza temporale e la tipologia degli eventi alla base delle trasformazioni strutturali e competitive di un settore (Nelson, Winter, 1982; Gort, Keppler, 1992). Più nello specifico, è stata in primo luogo costruita la curva del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet per il periodo 2005-2020 elaborando i dati di mercato forniti da uno dei principali istituti di ricerca specializzati del settore, la International Digital Corporation (IDC). È stato poi svolto un lavoro di ricerca finalizzato ad descrivere l'evoluzione nel tempo del numero delle imprese operanti nel settore dei tablet a livello globale, nonché ad analizzare le innovazioni di prodotto lanciate sul mercato da tali imprese. Sono stati pertanto opportunamente elaborati i dati relativi alle imprese produttrici di tablet attive nel periodo 2010-2020, forniti dal database gestito da 'GSM Arena'. 'GSM Arena' è un sito web indipendente che raccoglie nel continuo informazioni sulla produzione nel mondo di dispositivi digitali (telefoni cellulari/smartphone e tablet) e conduce accurate analisi sulle caratteristiche tecnologiche di tali dispositivi. L'attendibilità di tale database è indirettamente confermata da precedenti lavori di ricerca di natura economico-manageriale (tra gli al.: Cecere, Corrocher, Battaglia, 2015; Giachetti, Dagnino, 2014; Giachetti, Marchi, 2010) che ne hanno utilizzato i dati per analizzare le dinamiche di cambiamento nel settore della telefonia mobile. Le imprese inserite nel database 'GSM Arena' operano a livello internazionale. Sono quindi esclusi gli 'operatori domestici' attivi solo in uno o pochi contesti nazionali. Il dataset che ne risulta contiene 644 modelli di tablet lanciati sul mercato durante il periodo 2010-2020 da 44 operatori di mercato. A supporto dell'analisi, sono stati inoltre utilizzati una serie di dati integrativi raccolti tramite i siti web ufficiali delle imprese operanti nel settore dei tablet (specie nella forma di report annuali e comunicati stampa), nonché usate le informazioni concernenti la storia e l'evoluzione del settore dei tablet pc presenti in pubblicazioni accademiche, rapporti di ricerca e comunicati stampa di istituzioni di ricerca specializzati nello studio del business.*

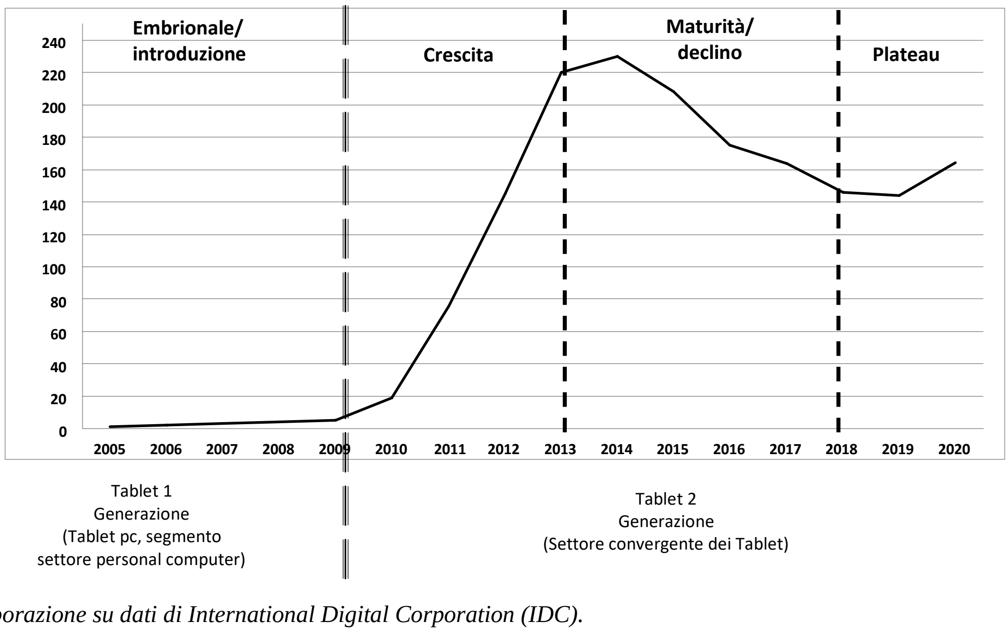
Risultati. *Di seguito sono descritti i primi risultati della ricerca, ancora in corso di svolgimento.*

La nascita e lo sviluppo del settore dei tablet: gli effetti del processo di convergenza settoriale. *Il concetto di tablet nasce per descrivere dei personal computer mobili di piccola dimensione che abilitano allo svolgimento in mobilità di alcune delle funzioni tipiche dei desktop e dei laptop pc. Alcuni prototipi di tablet pc furono sviluppati già a partire dagli anni '90 del secolo scorso, nella forma di mini-pc portatili con schermo tattile utilizzabili tramite una apposita penna, sfruttando i progressi nel campo dei microprocessori e nella produzione di batterie. In questa fase embrionale di sviluppo dei tablet si segnalano in particolare i tentativi dell'impresa giapponese di personal computer Fujitzu che produsse alcuni pen tablet pc di piccole dimensioni basati sull'utilizzo del software Windows CE di Microsoft. È però a partire dal nuovo millennio, dopo il lancio sul mercato nel 2002 da parte di Microsoft di tablet pc convertibili che utilizzavano un nuovo sistema operativo specificatamente progettato per tale tipologia di dispositivo - Windows XP Tablet PC Edition -, che si assiste alla introduzione da parte di diverse imprese produttrici di personal computer di linee di prodotto in formato tablet, principalmente basate sull'utilizzo del software Windows, che furono affiancate alle linee tradizionali di pc di tipo desktop e laptop. L'immissione sul mercato di tali tipologie di tablet pc, però, non diede luogo, in senso stretto, allo sviluppo di settore distinto di attività, in quanto in sostanza i tablet adottavano ancora il concetto d'interfaccia originario dei pc, consentendo di adoperare i normali programmi per computer utilizzando lo schermo come dispositivo di input. Il lancio di tali prodotti appariva, quindi, ancora inquadrabile nell'ambito di una strategia di completamento della gamma di prodotti offerti dalle imprese produttrici di personal computer, come dimostrano anche i dati di mercato. Fino al 2010, infatti, le vendite di tale tipologia di dispositivi mobili restarono molto limitate e rappresentavano un parte assolutamente residuale delle vendite complessive di personal computer. Ciò anche perché tale tipo di dispositivo era prevalentemente utilizzato in ambito business e nel settore educational (Anderson, Schwager, Kerns, 2006). McClard e Somers (2010) sintetizzano efficacemente le caratteristiche, le funzionalità e il tipo di target dei tablet introdotti sul mercato tra il 2000 e il 2010. Essi descrivono i tablet come dispositivi elettronici più piccoli e leggeri dei laptop, ma più grandi e pesanti dei Personal Digital Assistant (PDA), progettati per funzionare principalmente mediante l'uso di 'penna digitale' (sebbene alcuni di essi comprendessero ancora una tastiera come accessorio). Il tocco tramite la penna e il riconoscimento della grafia erano quindi i metodi di immissione principali dei dati all'interno del dispositivo. In effetti il tablet, fino al 2010, era ancora concepito principalmente come un dispositivo che fosse in grado di supportare l'uso delle funzionalità di un computer per lo svolgimento di professioni che richiedevano una elevata mobilità nel lavoro e, comunque, prevalentemente in campo aziendale (specie nella forma dei 'rugged tablet'). Tale precisazione è importante, in quanto il 2010 è l'anno in cui il mercato dei tablet assiste a un cambiamento radicale, sia nella configurazione delle caratteristiche del dispositivo, sia dal punto di vista del target di clienti. Ciò avviene con l'introduzione sul mercato da parte della Apple inc. del modello iPad. Nello specifico, la Apple utilizzò per l'iPad il sistema operativo proprietario mobile iOS, già usato dal 2007 per i propri smartphone iPhone. L'impiego adattato di tale sistema operativo mobile, progettato per i telefoni cellulari, consenti di semplificare molto l'utilizzo delle diverse funzionalità di un tablet pc, specie quelle collegate all'uso di internet (Scully, 2016). Tale software consentì, inoltre, di 'trasportare', dal mondo degli smartphone iPhone a quello dei tablet iPad, l'adozione di una interfaccia grafica basata sull'utilizzo di 'icone' di facile selezione che, unita ad uno schermo multitouch ad elevata risoluzione grafica, consentiva di interagire con il tablet in maniera rapida e intuitiva (soluzione poi imitata dalla maggior parte dei competitors e affermatasi come standard). Il dispositivo della Apple ha* *seguito quindi nel mercato dei tablet la stessa tipologia di innovazione di valore che aveva determinato il successo di vendite dell'iPhone (Calvosa, 2015). L'impresa, infatti, individuò nel mercato 'consumer' il target principale al quale fornire una nuova forma di dispositivo digitale mobile, semplice da utilizzare, con ciò spostando l'attenzione dal mercato business, a cui si era principalmente rivolta fino ad allora l'offerta di tablet pc, ad un mercato di massa. Sempre in quest'ottica, cosi come aveva già fatto per l'iPhone, coerentemente col target individuato, anche per l'iPad fu reso possibile l'accesso ad una sezione del negozio virtuale iTunes, denominata App Store, all'interno del quale venivano rilasciate una serie di applicazioni multimediali tematiche con l'obiettivo di fornire servizi a valore aggiunto al cliente, consentendo di rendere il tablet della Apple uno strumento multifunzione che il singolo utente poteva personalizzare sulla base delle sue esigenze. Inoltre, le caratteristiche avanzate dell'hardware e del sistema operativo iOS resero tale dispositivo mobile particolarmente performante per l'ascolto di musica in formato Mp3, la visualizzazione di video, nonché per la elaborazione di testi e la progettazione grafica. Infine, tale dispositivo permetteva di connettersi ad internet non solo tramite la tecnologia Wi-Fi, come avveniva per la maggior parte dei tablet fino ad allora prodotti, ma anche tramite un collegamento alla rete GSM, consentendo pertanto l'ulteriore vantaggio di fornire connettività ovunque, specie in un periodo in cui le reti Wi-Fi non erano ancora molto diffuse e convenienti (Scully, 2016).*

Le innovazioni introdotte dalla Apple furono immediatamente apprezzate dal mercato. L'impresa, come rilevato dalla IDC, nel 2010, anno di lancio del prodotto, ha venduto circa 15 dei 19 milioni di tablet complessivamente venduti nel mondo. L'introduzione dell'iPad, quindi, contribuì in maniera determinante alla crescita di un mercato che, solo un anno prima, aveva raggiunto appena le 5 milioni di unità vendute. Il lancio dell'iPad, in particolare, ha accelerato lo sviluppo di processo di convergenza digitale tra settori diversi nel campo dell'ICT (personal computer, smartphone/telefoni cellulari, personal digital assistant, elettronica di consumo, editoria digitale e sistemi per le telecomunicazioni), che negli anni a seguire avrebbe determinato l'affermazione di un settore significativamente distinto da quello più ampio dei personal computer. Tale processo di convergenza sembra collegarsi in maniera determinante ad una serie innovazioni tecnologiche - sfruttate da Apple per realizzare il dispositivo iPad - quali: il miglioramento della potenza di elaborazione dei microprocessori (che ha consentito il passaggio da una architettura Intel X86 ad una più performante e leggera architettura ARM); il potenziamento della banda per la trasmissione dei dati, attraverso l'adozione dei nuovi standard digitali per le comunicazioni mobili GSM, 3G e 4G; il potenziamento e la diffusione delle reti Wi-Fi; la creazione di sistemi operativi mobili 'leggeri' dedicati. Proprio facendo leva su tali progressi nelle tecnologie dell'ICT fu possibile, infatti, abbandonare il precedente paradigma alla base del concetto di tablet, ancorato ad una interfaccia utente simile a quella dei personal computer, in favore di una diversa concezione di dispositivo ibrido mobile, caratterizzato da una usability più simile a quella che caratterizzava gli smartphone.

I risultati della ricerca empirica: il ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet. *La descrizione dei fattori e delle principali fasi che hanno determinato lo sviluppo del settore dei tablet permette di comprendere meglio i risultati dell'analisi relativi al primo obiettivo specifico della ricerca, riguardante lo studio dell'evoluzione della curva del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet sulla base dei dati di vendita a livello globale.*

Fig. 1: La curva del ciclo di vita dell'industria dei tablet, espressa in termini di vendite nel mondo (milioni di unità). Anni 2005-2020.



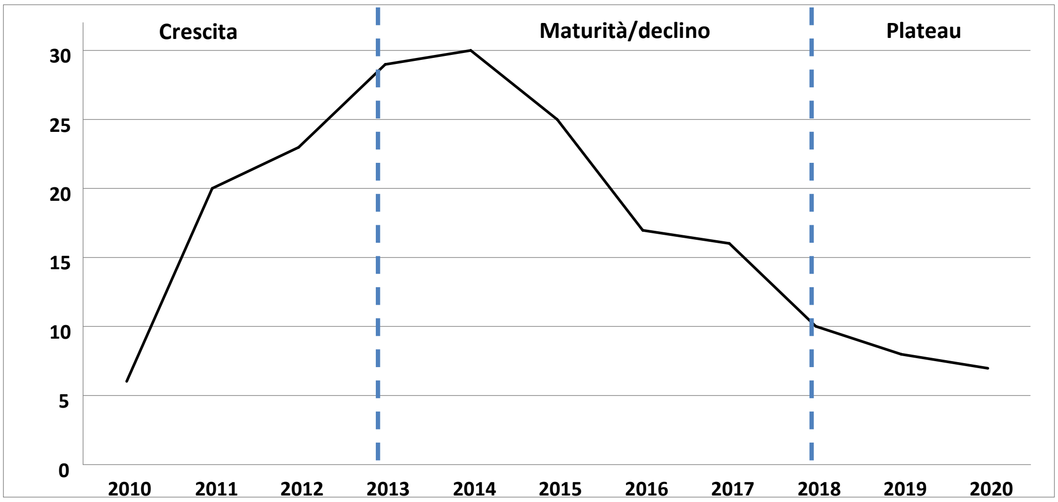
Fonte: ns. elaborazione su dati di International Digital Corporation (IDC).

I risultati della ricerca, graficamente esposti nella figura 1, mostrano un andamento della curva del ciclo di vita del settore caratterizzata da diverse fasi evolutive, definite sulla base dei diversi livelli di crescita delle vendite. L'analisi di tale andamento consente di effettuare alcune considerazioni:

1. *Prima del 2010, le vendite di tablet erano molto limitate. È possibile quindi descrivere questa fase come un periodo di sviluppo embrionale/introduttivo del settore, durante il quale il tablet di prima generazione aveva caratteristiche coerenti con l'obiettivo di fornire, principalmente a clienti di tipo business, un dispositivo di piccole dimensioni che garantisse un utilizzo in movimento più efficace delle funzionalità tipiche di un personal computer. In questa prima fase di sviluppo del mercato le vendite di tablet rientravano, quindi, principalmente nell'ambito di una scelta di completamento della gamma di prodotti offerti dalle imprese produttrici di personal computer. A riprova di ciò, i dati forniti dalla IDC evidenziano che, fino al 2010, quasi il 90 per cento delle vendite del mercato dei tablet era controllato da cinque imprese operanti nel settore dei personal computer (Toshiba, HP, Fujitsu, Acer e Motion Computing);*
2. *A partire dal 2010 si è assistito allo sviluppo rapido del settore, in forza di tassi annui di crescita delle vendite estremamente elevati - a due o tre cifre. Ciò è l'effetto della introduzione sul mercato dell'Ipad della Apple che, come descritto in precedenza, ha accelerato un processo di convergenza digitale alimentato da una serie di innovazioni tecnologiche, riconfigurando l'idea e le possibilità di utilizzo di un tablet e, quindi il suo mercato target di riferimento. Ciò ha dato vita ad un settore convergente significativamente distinto da quello dei personal computer, nel quale hanno fatto il loro ingresso imprese provenienti da diversi comparti dell'ICT, quali quelli degli smartphone/telefoni cellulari, dei Personal digital assistant, dell'elettronica di consumo, dell'editoria digitale e dei sistemi per le telecomunicazioni;*
3. *A partire dal 2014 il settore sembra entrato in una fase di maturità/declino. Il tasso di crescita delle vendite è, infatti, prima fortemente diminuito, per poi divenire negativo a partire dal 2015;*
4. *Dal 2019 sembra essersi arrestata la caduta rapida delle vendite che aveva caratterizzato gli anni precedenti. Nel 2020, in particolare, le vendite hanno ripreso a crescere del 14 per cento rispetto all'anno precedente, cominciando a delineare una fase di 'plateau' del mercato. In realtà, come osservato (International Digital Corporation, IDC, 2021), l'aumento delle vendite sembra in parte dovuto ad una crescita della domanda nei segmenti consumer e istruzione dovuta al lavoro da casa e all'apprendimento online collegata agli effetti della pandemia di Covid-19. Non ci si aspetta, però, che il settore mantenga questo slancio a lungo termine, poiché dovrà ancora affrontare la forte concorrenza di altri dispositivi digitali ibridi. Non è possibile, quindi, dire se la fase di declino delle vendite si sia definitivamente arrestata. Solo l'analisi dei dati relativi all'andamento delle vendite nei prossimi anni fornirà indicazioni certe sulle future fasi di sviluppo del settore.*

Un secondo aspetto esaminato, coerentemente con gli obiettivi specifici della ricerca, è stato quello di verificare se - in linea con le regolarità empiriche individuate dagli studi sul ciclo di vita del settore - durante le diverse fasi di sviluppo del settore dei tablet, il numero di aziende è cresciuto inizialmente fino al raggiungimento di un picco, per poi iniziare a declinare nel tempo. Per fare ciò sono stati elaborati i dati forniti dal database 'GSM Arena' per esaminare il numero e il tipo di imprese attive a livello internazionale nel settore dei tablet nel periodo 2010-2020.

Fig. 2: Dinamica di sviluppo della popolazione di imprese operanti a livello internazionale durante le fasi del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet (numero di imprese). Anni 2010-2020.

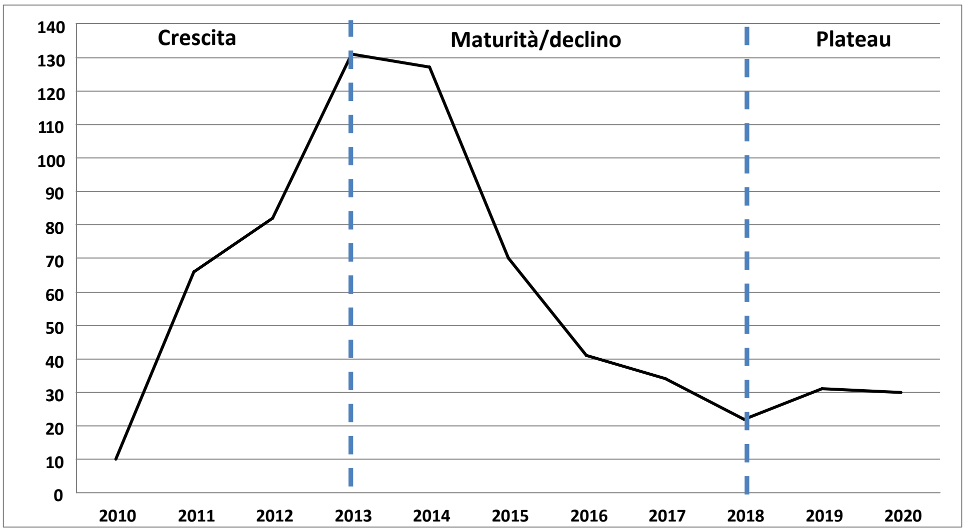


Fonte: ns. elaborazione su dati GSMarena (www.gsmarena.com).

Dall'analisi è risultato che le imprese che hanno operato a livello globale nel settore dei tablet in tale periodo sono state complessivamente 44, di cui 7 ancora attive nel lanciare e vendere tablet nel 2020. Più nello specifico, come graficamente descritto nella figura 2, il numero complessivo di imprese operanti nel settore a livello internazionale è cresciuto rapidamente nella fase iniziale di crescita delle vendite, alla fine della quale ha raggiunto un picco. A ciò a fatto seguito, con l'entrata del settore in una maturità/declino delle vendite, un deciso decremento della demografia settoriale. L'andamento, quindi, sembra in linea con i modelli evolutivi proposti dalla letteratura sul ciclo di vita del settore.

Un ultimo aspetto analizzato è stato quello relativo allo studio dei processi di innovazione durante il ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet. In linea con gli obiettivi specifici del lavoro è stato verificato se - in linea con una delle 'regolarità empiriche' relative ai processi di innovazione durante le fasi del ciclo di vita del settore individuate in letteratura - anche nel settore convergente dei tablet pc le innovazioni di prodotto sono cresciute nelle fasi iniziali di sviluppo del settore, hanno raggiunto un picco durante la fase di crescita, per poi ridursi nel tempo. È bene precisare, in via introduttiva, che l'innovazione di prodotto in un settore può essere misurata in diversi modi. In questo lavoro l'innovazione di prodotto è stata misurata considerando il numero di nuove versioni di prodotto lanciate sul mercato dalle imprese di tablet operanti a livello internazionale. Sono stati elaborati quindi i dati forniti dal database 'GSM Arena' relativi alle nuove versioni di tablet lanciate sul mercato nel periodo 2010-2020. Dall'esame dei dati è emerso che complessivamente le 44 imprese attive durante il periodo analizzato hanno proposto sul mercato 644 differenti versioni di tablet.

Fig. 3: Il livello di innovazione di prodotto nel corso del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet: il numero di nuovi prodotti lanciati sul mercato. Anni 2010-2020.



Fonte: ns. elaborazione su dati GSMarena (www.gsmarena.com).

Dalla figura 3 emerge che il numero annuo di innovazioni di prodotto è cresciuto molto rapidamente nella fase di crescita del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet, per diminuire velocemente nella fase di maturità/declino, assestandosi nella fase di plateau delle vendite. I risultati, quindi, appaiono in linea con una delle 'regolarità empiriche' rilevate dagli studi sul tema, quando si afferma che "la diversità delle versioni concorrenti del prodotto e il numero delle principali innovazioni di prodotto tendono a raggiungere un picco durante la crescita del numero di produttori e poi a diminuire nel tempo" (Keppler, 1996, pp. 565).

Prime conclusioni, limiti e sviluppo della ricerca. *L'analisi svolta consente di effettuare, coerentemente con gli obiettivi conoscitivi della ricerca, alcune interessanti considerazioni sulle dinamiche evolutive che hanno caratterizzato lo sviluppo del settore convergente dei tablet. Dall'analisi è risultato, in primo luogo, che l'andamento della curva del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet, costruita sulla base dei dati di vendita, sembra aver tendenzialmente seguito il 'modello a forma di S' individuato dalle ricerche empiriche condotte sul tema, anche se alcuni aspetti della curva ne fanno assomigliare la forma più specificatamente ad una delle tipologie peculiari di ciclo di vita del prodotto individuate dagli studi sul tema (Rink, Swan, 1979), quella del modello di sviluppo "crescita-declino-plateau". In secondo luogo, è emerso che l'evoluzione della demografia industriale e del livello di innovazione di prodotto lungo le fasi del ciclo di vita del settore dei tablet sono coerenti con il modello evolutivo individuato, tramite ricerche empiriche, dagli studiosi dell'economia evolutiva e di technology management.*

Trattandosi di un lavoro ancora in fase di svolgimento, i risultati appena descritti trovano un limite naturale nella mancanza di un approfondimento di studio che permetta di capire al meglio l'impatto delle convergenza settoriale sulla evoluzione del settore e delle dinamiche competitive del business. È quindi in corso di realizzazione un lavoro di analisi finalizzato a esaminare in dettaglio la natura e gli effetti del processo di convergenza digitale alla base dello sviluppo del settore dei tablet e le relative implicazioni concorrenziali. Nello specifico, in primo luogo è utile indagare più in profondità la tipologia di settori interessati dal processo di convergenza e i driver alla base di tale processo. In secondo luogo, appare necessario indagare le dinamiche evolutive del settore dei tablet inquadrandole nell'ambito più ampio di un meta-mercato digitale nato in forza del processo di convergenza digitale. Ciò per comprendere la natura dei processi di competizione 'ibrida' (Ancarani, Costabile, 2009) che si sono instaurati tra dispositivi tecnologici diversi nella forma - smartphone, notebook, tablet, Phablet, apparati digitali audio e video -, ma simili nel soddisfare un bisogno di accesso semplificato in mobilità ad una serie di funzioni avanzate offerte dalle innovazioni tecnologiche sviluppate negli ultimi anni nel campo dell'ICT.

Originalità del lavoro. *Sono ancora poco numerosi gli studi in campo economico-manageriale che hanno affrontato il tema dello studio delle dinamiche evolutive del settore dei tablet, ciò anche in relazione al recente sviluppo dello stesso. Lo studio di tali tematiche nell'ambito di questo settore convergente, inoltre, appare particolarmente rilevante perché, come osservato da Giachetti e Marchi (2010), in letteratura sono ancora necessarie ricerche finalizzate a colmare le lacune del modello classico del ciclo di vita del settore, soprattutto quando l'evoluzione industriale è influenzata da 'eventi distruttivi' come quelli provocati dalla convergenza tecnologica (Noam, 2019).*

Parole chiave: *convergenza digitale, ciclo di vita del settore, processi di innovazione, tablet, personal computer, smartphone.*

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Esperienza digitale del board e cambiamento strategico delle imprese: l'integrazione tra Dynamic Managerial Capabilities e Resource Dependence Theory

CHIARA ACCIARINI* PAOLO BOCCARDELLI**

"Change before you have to", Jack Welch

Obiettivi. *Il cambiamento strategico rappresenta una tema centrale negli studi di management e strategia (Boeker, 1997; Kunisch et al., 2017; Quinn, 1989; Zajac et al., 2000). La letteratura esistente ha dimostrato che le aziende tendono a modificare le proprie strategie per sopravvivere e competere quando accadono eventi inaspettati (e.g., trasformazione digitale, crisi finanziaria) (Gioia et al., 1994; MacKay and Chia, 2013; Zhang and Rajagopalan, 2010). Secondo (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985), ad esempio, il cambiamento strategico rappresenta una marcata discontinuità oppure un ri-orientamento nella vita dell'azienda. (Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1997) e (van de Ven and Poole, 1995), invece, definiscono il cambiamento strategico una variazione necessaria per garantire l'allineamento tra ambiente esterno e organizzazione. Se da un lato il cambiamento strategico è stato interpretato come un processo non lineare, durante il quale i manager sono in grado di apprendere dalle proprie esperienze, dall'altro lato lo stesso cambiamento strategico può riguardare "oscillazioni" che avvengono in modo alternato e ciclico nel tempo (Denis et al., 1996; Greenwood and Hinings, 1988).*

Al fine di avviare e implementare il cambiamento strategico, ciascuna azienda deve adeguare le proprie risorse; tra queste, rientra lo sviluppo delle capacità dinamiche (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; Helfat, 2007; Teece and Pisano, 2003; Teece et al., 1997; Winter, 2003). Infatti, secondo (Helfat, 2007) e (Sirmon and Hitt, 2009), l'orchestrazione di determinate risorse e competenze è in grado di influenzare la capacità dell'azienda di sopravvivere in un ambiente in evoluzione. In particolare, nel presente studio ci riferiamo al concetto di capacità manageriali dinamiche con lo scopo di esplorare in quali circostanze il board dirige il cambiamento strategico dell'azienda (Helfat e Martin, 2015). Secondo (Helfat and Martin, 2014) il capitale umano manageriale è costituito dalle competenze pregresse acquisite dai dirigenti nel corso della propria carriera professionale. Autori come (O'Reilly and Tushman, 2008) hanno sottolineato l'importanza delle capacità manageriali dinamiche nel rilevare e cogliere le opportunità in un mercato in rapida evoluzione. Il ruolo strategico dei manager è stato studiato anche da (Augier and Teece, 2009), i quali hanno enfatizzato la capacità dei manager di orchestrare le risorse organizzative, sviluppare nuovi modelli di business e creare nuove forme organizzative. Più recentemente, (Kor and Mesko, 2013) hanno associato il concetto di capacità manageriali dinamiche alla logica manageriale dominante. In particolare, (Kor and Mesko, 2013) ipotizzano e dimostrano empiricamente che i manager sono responsabili delle decisioni relative all'allocazione di risorse critiche. Qualche anno dopo, (Huy and Zott, 2019) hanno dimostrato che le capacità manageriali dinamiche non sono rapidamente replicabili, specialmente nella circostanza in cui il manager si sposta da un'organizzazione all'altra, non avendo quindi il tempo necessario per coltivare una specifica conoscenza. Come discusso finora, la teoria delle capacità manageriali dinamiche fornisce spunti interessanti in termini di differenze nelle decisioni manageriali, ma anche di adattamento ai cambiamenti (Adner and Helfat, 2003). Soprattutto, come suggerito da (Helfat and Martin, 2014), tale teoria è utile per mostrare come i dirigenti siano in grado di influenzare il cambiamento strategico delle imprese.

Sebbene la letteratura esistente abbia discusso l'influenza di determinate conoscenze manageriali rispetto alla direzione del cambiamento strategico (Helfat and Martin, 2014), l'attenzione si è concentrata prevalentemente sul top management team (TMT) (Barkema and Shvyrkov, 2007; Hambrick et al., 1996; Wiersema and Bantel, 1992) o sul relativo impatto delle competenze in termini di performance aziendale piuttosto che di cambiamento strategico (Khanna et al., 2014). Inoltre, laddove il ruolo del board sia stato esplorato, gli studi si sono concentrati in particolare sul livello di istruzione (Khanna et al., 2014), senza tuttavia considerare l'esperienza professionale, esplicativa del concetto più ampio di capitale umano manageriale (Helfat and Martin, 2014). La letteratura precedente ha poi ampiamente discusso in che modo gli amministratori delegati potrebbero influenzare il cambiamento strategico delle aziende, sottovalutando ancora una volta il ruolo del board (Müller and Kunisch, 2018). Nonostante i precedenti

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risultati siano edificanti, si rende necessario indagare le condizioni che rendono i membri del board responsabili della direzione del cambiamento strategico (Müller and Kunisch, 2018). Inoltre, si ritiene cruciale analizzare i risultati organizzativi - piuttosto che a livello micro - associati all'inclusione di membri con determinate esperienze professionali (Herrmann and Nadkarni, 2014).

L'obiettivo della ricerca, quindi, è quello di comprendere se la presenza all'interno del board di membri con esperienza digitale impatti positivamente o meno sull'avvio del cambiamento strategico - senza tuttavia indagarne l'implementazione. Per rispondere alla nostra domanda di ricerca, integriamo la prospettiva delle capacità manageriali dinamiche con la resource dependence theory per sostenere che l'esperienza digitale del board può influire sulla capacità dell'azienda di rispondere ad un cambiamento relativo all'ambiente in cui opera. In tal senso, l'azienda, in risposta ad una trasformazione esterna, tenderà ad adattare le proprie risorse e competenze interne, che nel nostro caso sono rappresentate dall'esperienza digitale. Ciò, tra l'altro, risulterebbe particolarmente valido nel contesto della digital transformation.

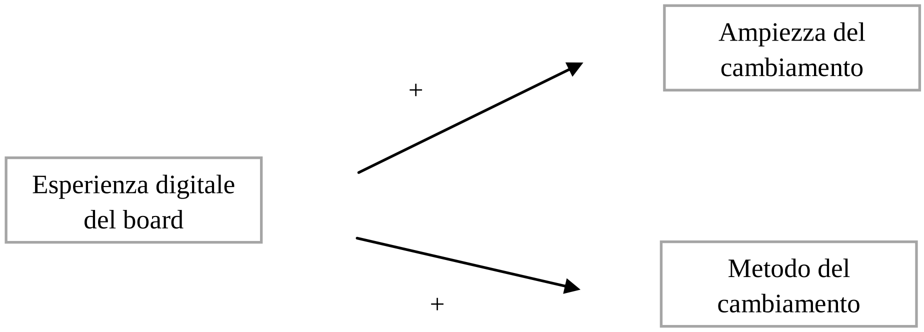
In conclusione, lo studio da noi condotto tiene conto dell'importanza che il cambiamento strategico ricopre nei campi del management e della strategia (Boeker, 1997; Kunisch et al., 2017; Quinn, 1989; Zajac et al., 2000). Inoltre, la necessità delle aziende di cambiare e adattare le proprie strategie al fine di sopravvivere e competere sul mercato in caso di eventi inaspettati si rivela un tema cruciale per la nostra analisi (Gioia et al., 1994; MacKay and Chia, 2013; Zhang and Rajagopalan, 2010). Le ipotesi formulate sono, in particolare, connesse alla necessità di sviluppare le capacità dinamiche manageriali con l'obiettivo di avviare con successo il cambiamento strategico (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; Helfat, 2007; Teece and Pisano, 2003; Teece et al., 1997; Winter, 2003).

Metodologia. *L'analisi quantitativa svolta ha l'obiettivo di comprendere l'impatto derivante dall'inclusione di membri del board con esperienza digitale sul cambiamento strategico dell'impresa. Per la costruzione del nostro panel data, abbiamo selezionato dal database Orbis 2527 grandi aziende (> 250 dipendenti nell'ultimo anno disponibile), quotate, e attive, prendendo in considerazione il periodo 2005-2019. Per l'analisi, ci siamo concentrati su società localizzate negli Stati Uniti e operanti in vari settori. Il database BoardEx e i proxy statement pubblicati su SEC EDGAR sono stati utili per raccogliere informazioni riguardanti il board; l'utilizzo di Compustat e Refinitiv, invece, ci ha permesso di reperire dati di tipo finanziario utili per condurre la nostra analisi.*

In particolare, per determinare la variabile indipendente - esperienza digitale del board - abbiamo verificato se i membri del board, nell'arco temporale 2005-2019, avessero ricoperto almeno una volta il ruolo di "Chief Technology Officer", "Chief Technical Officer", "Chief Information Officer", "Chief Information Security Officer", oppure "Chief Information Technology Officer". In questo caso, i prozy statement del board pubblicati sulla piattaforma SEC EDGAR sono stati utili per ricostruire il background professionale di ciascun membro, Laddove le informazioni fossero poco chiare oppure di dubbia definizione, abbiamo condotto analisi di tipo text scraping attraverso l'ambiente di sviluppo integrato Rstudio; in aggiunta, abbiamo completato le informazioni attraverso una ricerca manuale su LinkedIn. Infine, l'esperienza digitale di ciascun board è stata misurata in base alla proporzione tra membri del board con esperienza digitale sul totale dei membri del board dell'azienda, come suggerito da (Sarwar Bushra *et al.*, 2018; Whitler *et al.*, 2018).

La variabile dipendente - cambiamento strategico - è stata "spacchettata" in due dimensioni: ampiezza, e metodo. Nel dettaglio, l'ampiezza del cambiamento strategico prende in considerazione il livello di internazionalizzazione dell'azienda - misurato in base alle dichiarazioni riportate, di anno in anno, negli annual report dell'azienda rilevate con il software Rstudio-, la penetrazione di mercato - misurata in termini di ricavi totali per settore, e il livello di diversificazione - misurato come (vendite relative al business non $core_{+4}$ − *vendite relative al business non* $core_t$*)/Vendite* $totali_t$*), come suggerito da* (MAYER *et al.*, 2015). *Con riferimento alle vendite del business core, abbiamo selezionato le vendite più elevate registrate in uno dei settori in cui l'azienda opera. In merito al metodo adottato per avviare il cambiamento strategico, sono state considerate il numero di operazioni M&A, il numero di alleanze strategiche, la crescita organica dell'azienda, e il numero di disinvestimenti - calcolati in termini di "exit", "partial exit", e "exit new stake". In questo ultimo caso, l'utilizzo del software Zephyr si è rivelato determinante. Completano l'analisi le seguenti variabili di controllo: livello di intensità degli investimenti in ricerca e sviluppo dell'industry di riferimento - misurata in base alla media degli investimenti in R&S di tutte le aziende con lo stesso codice SIC* (King *et al.*, 2008)*, dimensione dell'azienda - misurata in base al logaritmo naturale del numero di dipendenti, come suggerito da* (Richard *et al.*, 2019) *-, età dell'azienda - a partire dall'anno in cui è stata effettuata l'Initial Public Offering -, performance dell'azienda - misurata dall'indice Return on Assets (ROA), come suggerito da* (Richard *et al.*, 2019).

La figura che segue è rappresentativa del nostro modello di ricerca:



Risultati. *Le analisi sono in corso di realizzazione e ci attendiamo di presentare i risultati e le implicazioni durante la vostra Conferenza, qualora l'extended abstract fosse accettato. Ci attendiamo, comunque, che la presenza di membri del board con esperienza digitale possa aumentare l'ampiezza del cambiamento strategico dell'impresa. In aggiunta, riteniamo che i risultati possano dimostrare un impatto favorevole dell'esperienza digitale sull'avvio di cambiamento strategico maggiormente inorganico piuttosto che organico.*

Limiti della ricerca. *Questo studio non è esente da limitazioni, che lasciano spazio a diverse altre promettenti direzioni di ricerca. Innanzitutto, gli studi futuri potrebbero analizzare l'interrelazione tra capitale sociale manageriale, capitale umano manageriale e cognizione manageriale, come anche suggerito da (Helfat and Martin, 2014). Inoltre, la variabile indipendente rappresentata dall'esperienza digitale del board e da noi introdotta per la prima volta in letteratura, è frutto di un lavoro manuale ed automatizzato, e quindi non esonerato da errore umano.*

Sebbene poi la ricerca si focalizzi su settori molteplici, potrebbero essere analizzate variabili più specifiche associate a determinati settori (e.g., banking). Ancora, studi futuri potrebbero considerare il ruolo della diversità del board, piuttosto che focalizzarsi su un'unica tipologia di esperienza. La presenza dell'esperienza digitale del board potrebbe anche essere esaminata in relazione alla capacità dell'impresa di avviare un cambiamento strategico di tipo digitale. Infine, il presente studio non mira ad analizzare il processo di implementazione del cambiamento strategico (Zajac *et al.*, 2000)*, che meriterebbe una trattazione distinta, limitandosi invece ad investigare il suo avvio.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *I risultati di questa ricerca forniscono implicazioni ai professionisti di vari settori coinvolti nella direzione strategica dell'azienda. In particolare, si richiede di prestare una maggiore attenzione rispetto alla scelta dei membri del board con determinate competenze ed esperienze professionali, anche con riferimento al contesto nel quale l'azienda opera. Inoltre, un'osservazione rilevante connessa all'inclusione di specifici membri del board può riguardare la propensione dei manager d'azienda ad avviare una tipologia piuttosto che l'altra di cambiamento strategico. Nei contesti ambientali particolarmente dinamici, la presenza di membri del board con competenze digitali potrebbe rivelarsi cruciale. Se da una parte l'attenzione è stata focalizzata finora sul board nel suo complesso, e quindi sulla diversità in termini di competenze, l'esperienza professionale nell'ambito di un determinato settore oppure area acquisiscono una importanza sempre maggiore. Ancora, a fronte di una ricerca di fatto predominante sul ruolo degli amministratori delegati e del TMT, contribuiamo ad una migliore comprensione del board nella direzione del cambiamento strategico.*

Originalità del lavoro. *L'integrazione tra le due teorie - capacità manageriali dinamiche e resource dependence theory - consente di esplorare il ruolo dell'esperienza professionale del board, fino ad oggi poco discusso. Inoltre, la stessa esperienza digitale del board viene posta in relazione al cambiamento strategico dell'impresa con lo scopo di comprendere in quali circostanze il board è responsabile dell'avvio del cambiamento strategico. In questo caso, abbiamo introdotto una variabile innovativa, mai presentata prima d'ora in letteratura, per spiegare l'esperienza digitale del board - come già descritto nella sezione di metodologia. Inoltre, sebbene il cambiamento strategico sia stato "spacchettato" in precedenza in ampiezza e metodi, autori come* (Villagrasa *et al.*, 2018) *e (Haynes and Hillman, 2010) hanno raccolto i dati attraverso survey dedicate e rivolte a CEO, senza quindi esplorare il ruolo del board e senza condurre analisi di tipo quantitativo.*

Parole chiave: *cambiamento strategico, esperienza digitale, board, dynamic capability, resource dependence*

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Sustainability-oriented digital platform e impatto sociale: il ruolo delle collaborazioni intersettoriali

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Obiettivi. *Sostenibilità e digitalizzazione sono due temi al centro del dibattito accademico e dell'agenda politica degli ultimi anni. Dalla convergenza di questi due fenomeni emerge il ruolo sempre maggiore svolto delle cosiddette sustainability-oriented digital platform, ossia piattaforme di sharing che mettono in collegamento individui e organizzazioni per lo scambio e condivisione di beni e servizi e che perseguono finalità sia economiche che sociali (Kolk e Ciulli, 2020).*

Una delle principali caratteristiche di queste piattaforme che è operano nei cosiddetti "two o multi-sided markets" (Rochet e Tirole, 2006) e questo comporta la necessità di gestire le relazioni in modo strategico all'interno dell'ecosistema per consentire l'incremento dei fornitori, consumatori, partners al fine di sopravvivere nel lungo periodo (Parente et al. 2018; Rong et al., 2015). Inoltre, in aggiunta ai due o molteplici mercati, queste piattaforme hanno la necessità di gestire le relazioni con un'ampia varietà di stakeholders quali le istituzioni, i media, le università sia a livello locale che globale (Parente et al., 2018; Kolk e Ciulli, 2020) che rendono il contesto particolarmente favorevole per lo sviluppo di collaborazioni intersettoriali.

In questa prospettiva la presente ricerca intende guardare al fenomeno delle sustainability-oriented digital platforms attraverso la prospettiva teorica delle collaborazioni intersettoriali. Verranno prese in analisi le piattaforme di food sharing che per le loro caratteristiche intrinseche, perseguono obiettivi sociali ed economici, operano in stretta connessione con il territorio e collaborano con molteplici attori (Michelini et al. 2018; Ciulli et al. 2019).

Obiettivo finale del progetto di ricerca è quello di far emergere come le sustainability-oriented digital platforms possono incrementare il loro impatto sociale e catturare valore sfruttando le collaborazioni intersettoriali.

L'espressione sharing economy viene utilizzata per indicare "un'ampia gamma di piattaforme digitali commerciali o non profit che facilitano gli scambi tra una varietà di attori attraverso diverse modalità di interazione (P2P, P2B, B2P, B2B, G2G) che favoriscono il consumo o le attività produttive facendo leva su beni capitali (denaro, proprietà immobiliari, attrezzature, auto, ecc.) beni, competenze o semplicemente tempo" (Codagnone et al., 2016 a, p.22). All'interno di questa cornice, che abbraccia piattaforme con diversi modelli di business, sono incluse sustainability-oriented digital platforms che perseguono finalità di natura sia economica che sociale (Kolk e Ciulli, 2020).

Le sustainability-oriented digital platforms presentano delle specificità che meritano di essere evidenziate ai fini del presente studio.

La prima caratteristica è relativa al perseguimento di una dual mission che porta con sé le problematiche relative alla gestione di un'organizzazione cosiddetta "ibrida" (Acquier et al. 2018) quali ad esempio la gestione delle "tensions" nel perseguimento dei differenti obiettivi, la necessitò di individuare un trade-off e il rischio di mission drift (Eiselein et al., 2020).

In secondo luogo, come anticipato, queste piattaforme operano cosiddetti "two o multi-sided markets" (Rochet e Tirole, 2006) e questo rendere rilevante il ruolo del "network effect". Le piattaforme multi-sided sono caratterizzate da effetti di rete indiretti, dove la valutazione di un prodotto (o servizio) da parte dei consumatori dipende da quanti consumatori utilizzano il prodotto/servizio (poichè attirano più venditori di prodotti complementari, Rysman, 2009). Più utenti ha una piattaforma su ogni lato, maggiori sono gli effetti di rete risultanti, chiamati anche esternalità di rete (Rochet e Tirole, 2006). I consumatori preferiscono avere la disponibilità di un'ampia varietà di prodotti e quindi apprezzano le piattaforme che attraggono e trattengono un gran numero di fornitori e, allo stesso tempo, i fornitori preferiscono vendere attraverso una piattaforma che attrae un gran numero di potenziali clienti (Steiner et al., 2016). Questo è applicabile anche nel caso delle piattaforme di food sharing, dove gli acquirenti possono essere più interessati a procurarsi il cibo quando la piattaforma rende disponibili più articoli alimentari contemporaneamente, e i venditori possono trovare maggiori vantaggi quando c'è un maggior numero di acquirenti sulla piattaforma (Richards

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e Hamilton, 2018).

La ricerca dei benefici derivanti dal network effect pone la necessità di considerare il ruolo delle collaborazioni all'interno dell'ecosistema delle sustainability-oriented digital platform, dove i molteplici attori contribuiscono creare e catturare valore (Parente et al. 2018).

In questo scenario diventa quindi cruciale il ruolo delle collaborazioni intersettoriali, ossia quelle interazioni e a lungo termine tra organizzazioni che appartengono ad almeno due dei tre settori (settore privato, settori pubblici e società civile) e che collaborano per affrontare un ampio problema sociale o ambientale (Clarke e Crane, 2018). Come affermato da Bryson et al. (2006), una collaborazione intersettoriale implica il collegamento o la condivisione di informazioni, risorse, attività e capacità da parte di organizzazioni di diversi settori, con lo scopo di raggiungere un risultato che altrimenti non potrebbe essere raggiunto dalle organizzazioni separatamente.

Questo concetto è emerso negli ultimi trent'anni, ed è diventato sempre più importante come approccio per affrontare problemi interconnessi che nascono dal fallimento di singole organizzazioni e settori della società e che, per la loro natura interconnessa, sono fuori dal campo di influenza di un solo settore, richiedendo approcci integrati e innovativi e meno convenzionali (Kolk et al. 2008).

Il legame tra le collaborazioni e cambiamento sistemico è stato ampiamente affrontato in letteratura dove l'attenzione si è per lo più concentrata sulle performance o sull'efficacia di queste partnership nel raggiungimento degli obiettivi sociali e ambientali, sulla capacità degli attori di lavorare insieme e raggiungere un impatto positivo sui beneficiari, sull'individuazione di metriche e metodologie per la sua valutazione, sul processo manageriale di allineamento e accomodamento delle diverse prospettive tra gli attori (Seitanidi et al. 2010).

A livello micro, e quindi relativamente alle organizzazioni coinvolte, la letteratura ha focalizzato l'attenzione in particolare verso le motivazioni che i partner hanno quando avviano una partnership (Seitanidi et al. 2010; Yaziji e Doh 2009) e i driver che possono portare alla creazione di valore collaborativo (ad esempio, Austin e Seitanidi 2012; Le Ber e Branzei 2010). Tuttavia, come evidenziato da Clarke e Crane (2018) nella loro recente revisione della letteratura, questo tema ha sollevato alcune domande alle quali gli studiosi non hanno ancora fornito una risposta comunemente condivisa. Ad esempio, una prima difficoltà risiede nella definizione del cambiamento sistemico che le collaborazioni possono favorire, che dovrebbe essere meglio operazionalizzato e concettualizzato.

Il presente progetto di ricerca intende contribuire alla letteratura sul tema delle collaborazioni intersettoriali attraverso il caso delle piattaforme di food sharing.

Metodologia. *Al fine di raggiungere gli obiettivi sopra citati è stata svolta una multiple case study analysis (Yin 2003). Per la selezione del campione è stata utilizzato un dataset esistente composto da 52 piattaforme (Michelini et al., 2018) e dopo un aggiornamento (eliminando le piattaforme non più esistenti, quelle non attive negli ultimi 6 mesi, quelle che avevo modificato il proprio business model) sono state identificate 35 piattaforme. Da queste ne sono state selezionate 12 utilizzando i seguenti criteri: 1) garantire una varietà di piattaforme profit e non profit e 2) operare in marketplaces differenti (P2P, B2C; B2NPOs) 3) avere un elevato numero di collaborazioni attive e 4) operare in aree geografiche differenti (EU and USA). Sono state condotte 18 interviste (di durata tra i 30 e 45 minuti). Tutte le interviste sono state registrate e trascritte. L'analisi dei dati è stata svolta impiegando il framework teorico costruito adattato sulla base della letteratura e composto da quattro dimensioni:*

- *business model, in cui sono state impiegate le seguenti variabili di analisi: marketplace, modello di revenue, aspetti logistici;*
- *ecosystem composto da due livelli: platform players e business players (Parente et al. 2018; Rong et al., 2013, 2015;*
- *impatto sociale descritto attraverso gli elementi della catena dell'impatto ossia: attività, outputs e outcome (Clark et al. 2004);*
- *cross-collaborations in cui gli elementi analizzati sono: attori coinvolti, obiettivo della partnership, tipo di impatto e fattori critici (Bryson et al., 2006; Sonday and Wilson-Prangley; 2016; Shumate et al., 2018).*

Abbiamo iniziato la nostra analisi riassumendo i dati in un case history per ogni piattaforma. Ci siamo quindi concentrati sulle informazioni che potevano essere confermate da più fonti di dati. Quando mancavano dei dettagli, abbiamo ottenuto ulteriori informazioni via e-mail. Abbiamo codificato i dati usando il quadro teorico che abbiamo derivato dalla letteratura. Il processo di codifica è stato eseguito da due autori in modo indipendente e ogni difformità è stata risolta attraverso riunioni e discussioni riesaminando i dati originali e modificando le istruzioni di codifica. Per ogni dimensione del framework è stata condotta un'analisi within-case, in grado di evidenziare le specificità di ogni caso. Poi è stata eseguita un'analisi cross-case, per rilevare somiglianze e differenze tra le piattaforme (Miles e Huberman, 1994). Infine, le risultanze teoriche sono state confrontate con la letteratura esistente.

Risultati

Food sharing business models

Per quanto riguarda i modelli di business è emerso che le piattaforme di food sharing possono essere suddivise in tre tipologie principali.

Un primo gruppo di piattaforme sono quelle caratterizzate da un modello di business prevalentemente non profit che mira essenzialmente a ridurre lo spreco alimentare. Le piattaforme possono essere raggruppate in due tipologie: 1) quelle i cui flussi di entrate sono basati su donazioni e sponsorizzazioni, dove i volontari svolgono un ruolo critico per *l'organizzazione e il modello di delivery è **P2P** (AmpleHarvest.org e Foodsharing.de) e 2) quelle le cui entrate provengono dall'adesione delle imprese. Quest'ultime operano nel settore **B2NPO**, quindi raccolgono il cibo principalmente dalle imprese (produttori, produttori di ristoranti, catering, retrobottega) e lo distribuiscono agli enti di beneficenza (Plan Zheroes).*

*Un ulteriore gruppo è composto da piattaforme for profit (My foody, Nofoodwaste, Too good to go, LELOCA, RESQ-Club) che operano nel mercato **B2C**. In questo caso le imprese pubblicano le offerte sull'app e i consumatori ritirano i prodotti direttamente dai fornitori (che possono essere di diverso tipo come ristoranti, panetterie, supermercati ...). Il loro modello di revenue si basa su una commissione per articolo venduto o su una quota fissa pagata dai fornitori.*

*Ci sono poi piattaforme for profit che operano nel mercato **B2B** dove i fornitori possono rivendere il cibo in eccesso a prezzi scontati ai canali di distribuzione secondaria (Spoiler Alert).*

Infine, ci sono piattaforme che operano in più mercati:

- P2P e B2NPO, dove sia i consumatori che le imprese (o consorzio come nel caso di Bringthefood) pubblicano offerte alimentari che possono essere ottenute gratuitamente da altri consumatori e associazioni di beneficenza. I due casi di OLIO e Bring the Food si differenziano per alcuni aspetti logistici;

- B2NPO e B2C, dove i ristoranti pubblicano l'offerta sull'app e i consumatori vanno direttamente dai fornitori a prendere il cibo, oppure la piattaforma collega i fornitori (ristoranti, distributori e mense) con le organizzazioni non profit. In questo caso emerge anche un nuovo modello in cui le amministrazioni locali sono coinvolte nel processo sostenendo le connessioni, lavorando come facilitatori (creando connessioni tra gli attori) e supervisori (valutando la qualità e la quantità del cibo condiviso) (Regusto).

Food sharing business models e impatto

*Per quanto riguarda la relazione tra le tipologie di modello di business e le aree di impatto, dall'analisi dei casi emerge che il modello di business **B2NPO** è quello in grado di avere un impatto più ampio sulla società, poiché ha effetti positivi su quattro dimensioni: ambientale, sociale, economico e politico.*

D'altra parte, questi modelli sono guidati dalla logica e dai principi del settore non-profit, poiché questo è il loro status giuridico abituale. Nonostante la capacità di generare impatto positivo, il modello B2NPO ha più difficoltà a catturare valore sul mercato a causa del modello di revenue adottato.

*Nel caso delle piattaforme che operano nei mercati **B2C e B2B** emerge come siano in grado di generare impatti prevalentemente di tipo ambientale ed economico. In questi casi, le piattaforme catturano valore economico dai fornitori attraverso commissioni o canoni fissi o dai clienti (nel caso del B2B).*

*L'ultimo tipo di piattaforma è quella che opera nei mercati del **P2P**. In questo caso ciò che emerge è una forte attenzione alla creazione di impatto, soprattutto sociale e ambientale. Dal punto di vista della sostenibilità finanziaria, questi sono i modelli che faticano di più, poiché il modello di entrate è spesso basato su contributi volontari ed è difficile garantire un flusso costante di entrate.*

Partendo dal presupposto che tutte le piattaforme sono orientate alla generazione di un impatto ambientale (riduzione degli sprechi alimentari) l'analisi dei casi mostra ci sono due tipologie di piattaforme: quelle in grado di generare, oltre all'impatto ambientale, anche un impatto anche sociale (B2NPO e P2P), e quelle che tendono a generare un impatto prevalentemente di natura economica (B2C e B2B).

Food sharing business models, impatto e collaborazioni intersettoriali

Per quanto riguarda il modo in cui l'impatto può essere potenziato facendo leva sulle collaborazioni, tutti i casi (ad eccezione di quelli che lavorano esclusivamente nel mercato P2P) mostrano che il ruolo cruciale è giocato dai fornitori, in quanto hanno un impatto diretto sulla capacità della piattaforma di ridurre gli sprechi e di essere economicamente sostenibile.

*Collaborare con i **fornitori** permette alle piattaforme di aumentare l'effetto di rete indiretto, per cui il valore della piattaforma aumenta in proporzione alla gamma e alla varietà della sua offerta (Richards e Hamilton, 2018). Di conseguenza, il rapporto con i fornitori è fondamentale per aumentare l'impatto complessivo. Inoltre, c'è una questione legata alla difendibilità del marketplace, che nasce dal fenomeno del "multi-tenanting", ossia i fornitori possono pubblicare i loro prodotti su due o più piattaforme; uno degli obiettivi principali della piattaforma dovrebbe quindi essere quello di progettare il servizio in modo da aggiungere valore o cercare di trattenere il fornitore in modo che non siano tentati dall'operare su più piattaforme.*

Un'altra questione rilevante è la dimensione value capture che descrive come l'impresa trasforma il valore offerto ai clienti in ricavi e profitti (Abdelkafi e Tauscher, 2016; Baden-Fuller e Mangematin, 2013). I casi studiati mostrano che i fornitori sono gli attori principali che permettono ad una piattaforma di catturare valore e garantire la sua sostenibilità finanziaria nel tempo.

*Nella gestione delle relazioni coni fornitori i casi studio rivelano che le organizzazioni di food sharing devono gestire i seguenti fattori chiave. In primo luogo, devono essere **flessibili e agire come consulenti**; a volte i fornitori non conoscono i potenziali benefici offerti da una piattaforma e possono aver bisogno di soluzioni su in funzione della posizione assunta nella filiera (ad esempio, agricoltori, rivenditori, ristoranti). Inoltre, la collaborazione è fondamentale per migliorare la familiarità con i processi di distribuzione e adattare le piattaforme alle esigenze del fornitore per massimizzare i potenziali benefici della tecnologia.*

*Un secondo fattore rilevante è l'importanza di **gestire le relazioni umane**; nei casi in cui "la tecnologia non è* *sufficiente" per gestire le interazioni. A differenza di altre piattaforme come Airbnb, dove la piattaforma permette la gestione dell'intero processo, nel caso del food sharing il fattore umano è essenziale. Le relazioni umane sono anche essenziali per superare la resistenza alla tecnologia, così come* ***la formazione dei fornitori*** *necessaria per abituarsi ad essa. Inoltre, molte piattaforme hanno sottolineato la scarsa consapevolezza ambientale dei fornitori e una forte tendenza a considerare solo i benefici economici. Infine, un fattore chiave è la visione a lungo termine, che significa passare dalla riduzione degli sprechi alla prevenzione, che comporta la necessità di migliorare la misurazione degli sprechi e utilizzare i dati per ridurli (risalendo nella catena del valore).*

Un secondo tipo di attore rilevante sono le ***organizzazioni senza scopo*** *di lucro che permettono alle piattaforme di migliorare il loro impatto sociale (principalmente in termini di riduzione della fame e aumento dell'inclusione sociale). Anche in questo caso, la gestione delle relazioni umane è cruciale per superare la resistenza alla tecnologia.*

Lo studio rivela anche quanto sia importante lavorare in sinergia con altre organizzazioni come le banche alimentari e le associazioni per aumentare il numero di potenziali beneficiari nelle categorie svantaggiate. Infine, i casi studiati hanno evidenziato la necessità di garantire la sicurezza e la qualità del cibo condiviso e di lavorare per costruire la fiducia nel mercato. Un possibile strumento in questo ambito è l'integrazione di un sistema di ranking per valutare le piattaforme.

I dati mostrano ancora poche ***collaborazioni con fornitori di beni complementari****, probabilmente a causa del fatto che la maggior parte delle piattaforme sono startup (mentre l'integrazione di nuove funzioni è tipica nella fase di scaling up), quindi rappresenta un'area che in futuro dovrebbe essere esplorata per aumentare il valore complessivo della piattaforma.*

In prospettiva futura si procederà ad analizzare anche le possibili forme di collaborazione con gli altri attori dell'ecosistema (università, media, amministrazione locale, governo, ecc.)

Da questa analisi preliminare emerge che le piattaforme per loro natura ibride (e caratterizzate a seconda del modello di business da un approccio profit o non profit) devono necessariamente attivare collaborazioni intersettoriali per garantire il raggiungimento della duplice finalità. La relazione più strategica e ruolo dominante è quello del fornitore (profit) necessario per amplificare l'impatto sociale e ambientale. In particolare, per le piattaforme non profit i fornitori svolgono un ruolo chiave per poter cercare di catturare valore e garantirsi una sostenibilità economico-finanziaria. Il ruolo delle organizzazioni non profit è strumentale ad una maggiore diffusione e capillarità del servizio e quindi dell'impatto sociale.

Il contributo teorico alla letteratura sulle collaborazioni intersettoriali consiste prevalentemente nel fornire evidenza circa il ruolo che assumono queste collaborazioni nel sostenere i modelli di imprese ibride e la capacità di utilizzare le relazioni per compensare le limitazioni intrinseche di ciascun modello di business nel generare impatto sui diversi ambiti. Un risultato che rafforza l'interpretazione di considerare le collaborazioni intersettoriali come uno strumento per superare i limiti e l'inefficacia delle misure individuali (Dentoni et al., 2018). In secondo luogo evidenzia alcuni fattori rilevanti nel processo di gestione della collaborazione.

Limiti della ricerca. *I limiti della ricerca sono connessi alle scelte metodologiche effettuate. In particolare, il campione, seppur ampio rispetto ai dati disponibili sul mercato di riferimento, è stato selezionato attraverso criteri discrezionali del ricercatore. Ulteriori criticità sono connesse alla costruzione discrezionale del framework teorico di codifica adottato per guidare l'analisi dei casi di studio e al processo di coding, nonostante siano state adottate una serie di misure per garantire l'affidabilità dei risultati.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Lo scopo della ricerca è quello di evidenziare come le piattaforme di food sharing possano incrementare la loro sostenibilità finanziaria e il loro impatto positivo sulla società facendo leva sulle collaborazioni. Le implicazioni offerte da questo studio sono molteplici. In primo luogo, consente di chiarire le principali caratteristiche dei modelli di food sharing che, all'interno del discorso complessivo sui modelli di business della sharing economy, sono ancora poco studiati (Michelini, 2018). Questo è estremamente utile anche data la particolare natura di queste piattaforme che lavorano come organizzazioni ibride, in cui si integrano la necessità di perseguire la sostenibilità finanziaria con la missione sociale di risolvere la sfida dello spreco alimentare (Acquier e Carbone, 2018).*

*La ricerca offre anche una classificazione delle principali aree di impatto delle piattaforme di food sharing quando la maggior parte della letteratura si concentra solo sulla dimensione dello spreco alimentare (Morone et al., 2016; Falcone e Imbert, 2017). Infine, la classificazione degli attori e dei contributi che possono apportare al raggiungimento della missione sociale, permette di analizzare le collaborazioni come mezzo per aumentare l'impatto che le piattaforme di food sharing possono avere sulla società, individuando le diverse forme di sostegno che possono ottenere dai partner***.**

Originalità del lavoro. *L'analisi congiunta di tre aspetti (modello di business, impatto sociale e forme di collaborazione) attraverso il framework proposto, consente di fornire importanti spunti di riflessione. Da un lato, questo studio è un'ulteriore conferma della necessità di favorire l'affermarsi di modelli ibridi che consentono di massimizzare il potenziale ambientale e sociale delle iniziative e anche diversificare i flussi di entrata che possono garantire la sostenibilità finanziaria dell'impresa. Dall'altro, concentrandosi su come far leva sul contributo delle collaborazioni per aumentare l'impatto sulla società, la ricerca fa luce sui fattori abilitanti fondamentali e sulle principali problematiche che possono emergere, proponendo modi per superarle.*

Parole chiave: *sharing economy, collaborazioni intersettoriali, impatto sociale*

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Citizen Science e Big Data: opportunità e sfide del coinvolgimento dei cittadini nei progetti di ricerca

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Obiettivi. *La Citizen Science è un fenomeno che risale ai primi anni del XIX secolo, ma che negli ultimi anni si sta diffondendo sempre più grazie agli avanzamenti delle information technologies (IT), attirando una crescente attenzione da parte del mondo della ricerca (Land-Zandstra et al., 2015; Pocock et al., 2017; Wildschut, 2017). Del resto la Citizen Science è una delle forme di Crowd Science, i.e. del coinvolgimento di crowd esterne ai confini organizzativi, che si sta diffondendo grazie alla facilità con la quale gli individui esterni alle organizzazioni possono essere coinvolti oggigiorno, nella generazione di nuove conoscenze (Franzoni and Sauermann, 2014). La Citizen Science, letteralmente "la scienza dei cittadini", è rivolta al coinvolgimento di cittadini – senza alcun particolare background - nella raccolta ed analisi di dati per progetti di ricerca. Difatti, enti di ricerca ed organizzazioni pubbliche sono alla ricerca di metodi per collezionare ed analizzare ingenti quantità di dati, e la Citizen Science rappresenta un framework efficace per raggiungere questo obiettivo (Cappa et al., 2016; Dickinson et al., 2012; Garcia Martinez and Walton, 2014; Riesch et al., 2013). Grazie agli avanzamenti delle IT., individui da tutte le parti del globo possono partecipare ai progetti di Citizen Science superando barriere geografiche, sociali e motorie (Cappa et al., 2016; Franzoni and Sauermann, 2014; Laut et al., 2015). I benefici portati dai progetti di Citizen Science sono numerosi sia per i ricercatori che per i partecipanti: i primi hanno a disposizione un maggior numero di persone che collezionano e analizzano dati, e riducono i costi per i progetti scientifici (Haklay, 2013; Nov et al., 2014); i cittadini partecipanti, invece, aumentano le loro conoscenze scientifiche, partecipano ad attività di utilità sociale e che possono essere appaganti per loro, ed inoltre trovano un punto d'incontro con il mondo scientifico che solitamente risulta lontano e distaccato dalle loro problematiche (Paul et al., 2014; Raddick et al., 2013). In aggiunta, aumentare le conoscenze scientifiche della popolazione e favorire il successo dei progetti di ricerca risulta essere rilevante anche per i policymakers. Nonostante i diversi aspetti positivi per tutte le parti coinvolte, avere partecipanti motivati è un aspetto cruciale per la Citizen Science, dato che molto spesso i progetti di Citizen Science falliscono a causa della scarsa partecipazione (Cappa et al., 2016), e dato che più sono i dati raccolti ed analizzati migliori saranno i risultati scientifici del progetto (Cappa et al., 2016, 2018; Nov et al., 2014). Quindi capire come motivare i cittadini a partecipare rappresenta un aspetto cruciale. D'altronde, la Citizen Science offre numerose opportunità non solo in ambito scientifico ma anche attinenti alla realtà economica, sociale e politica. Difatti, oggigiorno la società si trova a dover affrontare numerosi Grand Challenge, i.e. pressanti problemi ambientali e sociali (Foray et al., 2012; Kuhlmann, 2014), che impattano le decisioni politiche, la vita economica delle aziende e degli individui, e il benessere dell'intera società. Il coinvolgimento delle crowd permette di rispondere a tali necessità e di riservare particolare attenzione ai temi cruciali della sostenibilità, risultando essere un trend rilevante per studiosi, manager, imprenditori e policymakers. Dato il crescente interesse verso la Citizen Science ed i numerosi benefici che ne possono derivare, con questo studio si intende definire nel dettaglio il fenomeno, evidenziandone gli aspetti cruciali e gli sviluppi futuri per favorire una sua maggiore comprensione ed utilizzo.*

Metodologia. *Con questo articolo di review della letteratura si intende definire nel dettaglio il fenomeno della Citizen Science, evidenziandone gli aspetti cruciali, lo stato dell'arte e gli sviluppi futuri per favorire una maggiore comprensione ed utilizzo per i progetti di ricerca. Dopo aver brevemente richiamato le origini ed i principi della Citizen Science, si procederà alla schematica rappresentazione dello stato dell'arte, elencando i principali modelli teorici utilizzati per classificare i progetti ed il metodo operativo seguito dai partecipanti (citizens scientists) nelle varie fasi della ricerca. Inoltre, viene proposto il nuovo stato dell'arte circa il condurre progetti di Citizen Science di successo dovuto agli avanzamenti delle IT. Successivamente, prendendo in considerazione la rilevanza dei Big Data nella società ed il loro impatto sulle performance aziendali e nei vari settori, verrà enfatizzato il duplice ruolo della Citizen Science come mezzo per raccogliere ed elaborare non solo dati di interesse scientifico, ma anche insights di altra natura (e.g. i tratti comportamentali dei citizens, l'età, il livello di istruzione) che permettono l'estrapolazione di informazioni di valore.*

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Risultati.*La Citizen Science è considerata un efficace strumento che permette ai ricercatori provenienti da diverse discipline di porre dei problemi e di risolverli attraverso il valido contributo della comunità. D'altronde, visti gli ottimi risultati scientifici raggiungibili, numerose sono le collaborazioni che si contano tra noti istituti di ricerca ed i cittadini (ad esempio il Citizen Cyberscience Centre collabora con il CERN; la Open Air Laboratories svolge la sua attività di ricerca sotto la supervisione dell'Imperial College di Londra e del Museo di Storia Naturale del Regno Unito etc.). La crescente attenzione verso i progetti di Citizen Science è stata anche evidenziata dal Crowdsourcing and Citizen Science Act, introdotto in USA nel 2015 per favorire l'uso della Citizen Science nei programmi scientifici federali (Coons, 2015). Il coinvolgimento dei volontari può riguardare tutti gli stadi della ricerca scientifica o essere limitato solo ad alcune fasi del progetto: mentre alcuni approcci prevedono che il contributo dei citizens sia relegato alla semplice raccolta delle osservazioni e catalogazione dei dati, altri coinvolgono i non esperti anche nelle fasi di selezione, valutazione ed elaborazione dei dati reperiti, nonché nella selezione del problema scientifico da indagare. Per facilitare lo sviluppo e l'implementazione dei progetti di Citizen Science, un gruppo di esperti provenienti dal Cornell Lab of Ornithology (Bonney et al., 2009; Killion et al., 2018; Newman et al., 2012; Riesch et al., 2013) ha elencato le nove principali fasi che i ricercatori devono seguire per sviluppare progetti di Citizen Science di successo:*

Tab. 1: Evoluzione temporale delle fasi dei progetti di Citizen Science

	Passato	***Presente***	***Futuro***
Fase 1: Scegliere un problema scientifico	*Sviluppo nuovi problemi (approccio top-down)*	*Sviluppo nuovi problemi (approccio top-down con lenta affermazione di processi bottom-up)*	*Sviluppo nuovi problemi (approccio prevalentemente bottom-up sfruttando la visualizzazione dei dati in tempo reale*
Fasi 2-4-5: Raccogliere risorse/Radunare team/Cercare partner	*Appassionati connessi da un comune interesse scientifico; si assiste a forme di collaborazione a livello locale*	*Gruppi di volontari locali che si aggregano partecipando a progetti su scala nazionale e globale*	*Marketing virale, reti di banche dati, infrastrutture virtuali guideranno lo sviluppo di community virtuali*
Fasi 3-6: Raccogliere e gestire dati	*Dati raccolti attraverso una procedura monitorata dagli scienziati, consegnati su fogli di carta e non disponibili in tempo reale*	*I cittadini partecipano alla gestione dei dati online, con problemi di integrazione e qualità*	*Dati di elevata qualità, grazie anche ai numerosi contributi, integrati senza interruzioni all'interno di reti globali di banche dati*
Fase 7: Analizzare e interpretare dati	*Dati analizzati ed interpretati da ricercatori professionisti*	*Dati analizzati ed interpretati dai ricercatori professionisti, grazie all'ampia scala spaziale e temporale gli studi diventano più fattibili*	*I datasets potranno affrontare nuovi problemi scientifici attraverso l'elaborazione dei dati ad alta prestazione*
Fase 8: Divulgare i risultati	*Dati divulgati dagli scienziati attraverso pubblicazioni*	*Dati divulgati dagli scienziati attraverso pubblicazioni, ma disponibili online per gli stakeholders*	*Maggiore condivisione di conoscenza tra le community virtuali, attraverso i social media e le valutazioni tra pari*
Fase 9: Valutare gli esiti	*Minima valutazione di impatto del progetto*	*Valutazione interna con misure project-specific; impossibilità di valutare le differenze tra i vari progetti*	*Misure di valutazione standardizzate per permettere confronti tra i progetti; standard comune per tracciare il comportamento degli individui*

Grazie agli avanzamenti delle IT., le fasi sopra menzionate si sono evolute nel tempo. Lo sviluppo delle IT ha, infatti, un grande impatto sulla generazione e condivisione di nuove conoscenze in quanto influenza i modi ed i tempi con i quali i cittadini possono essere coinvolti (Presenza et al., 2017).

Alla luce di queste considerazioni, il presente studio evidenzia come la Citizen Science possa adattarsi ai nuovi sviluppi tecnologici, come riportato in Tabella 1, al fine di massimizzare il numero di contributi collezionati e quindi il successo dei progetti. In particolare, per quanto riguarda la prima fase, mentre in passato i cittadini erano coinvolti unicamente in maniera passiva, oggigiorno possono loro stessi proporre nuove domande di ricerca da analizzare in un approccio bottom-up invece che solamente top-down. Per quanto riguarda la seconda fase, grazie ad un coinvolgimento attivo dei cittadini si possono creare delle vere e proprie reti globali per attrarre un maggior numero di cittadini attivi per i progetti di Citizen Science, eventualmente ricorrendo anche a marketing virale e social media. Inoltre, grazie alla quantità dei dati collezionati e dei partecipanti si possono garantire livelli più elevati di qualità dei *risultati. L'approccio bottom-up può essere poi anche implementato nella gestione stessa della totalità o di parte del progetto di Citizen Science da parte dei cittadini, che possono così direzionare il progetto verso tematiche per loro cruciali e che magari potrebbero non esserlo per i ricercatori. Infine, l'ultima parte delle fasi della gestione dei progetti di Citizen Science da noi rielaborata prevede una maggiore apertura e condivisione dei risultati ottenuti, per condividerli con la più larga porzione di pubblico possibile ed anche per far emergere ulteriori insights inaspettati. Bisogna rimarcare il fatto che esiste uno stretto legame tra quantità dei dati raccolti e la qualità degli insights scientifici che possono scaturire dalla Citizen Science (Cappa et al., 2016), così come avviene anche per il crowdsourcing (Boudreau et al., 2011; Cappa et al., 2019).*

Dato il focus verso la raccolta di numerosi dati scientifici, tramite la Citizen Science si possono collezionare in queste occasioni anche numerose altre informazioni riguardanti i cittadini che possono risultare utili per azioni mirate e per scoprire bisogni inespressi e trend futuri. In tal senso, la Citizen Science offre una sottostimata possibilità di collezionare Big Data che possono essere cruciali per i policymakers e per manager di organizzazioni pubbliche. Infatti, nel contesto for-profit la proliferazione delle nuove tecnologie ha fortemente contribuito alla generazione di enormi quantità di dati disponibili in tempo reale e relativi alle interazioni prodotto-cliente, alle esigenze del mercato, ai cicli di vita dei prodotti, alle opinioni, preferenze, attitudini dei consumatori e così via (Ardito et al., 2018). La crescita senza precedenti del volume, della varietà e della velocità con cui vengono generati e trasferiti i dati emersa nel corso dell'ultimo decennio ha determinato la nascita del concetto di "Big Data". Hashem et al. (Hashem et al., 2015) definiscono i Big data come "un insieme di tecniche e tecnologie che richiedono nuove forme di integrazione per scoprire grandi valori nascosti all'interno di set di dati diversi, complessi e di grandi dimensioni". In sintesi, rispetto ai dati tradizionali, i Big Data sono caratterizzati da alti valori di volume, velocità, varietà, veridicità e valore (Jin et al., 2015). Diversi studi (Corte-Real et al., 2017; Müller et al., 2018) hanno evidenziato l'impatto positivo che l'utilizzo dei Big Data ha sulle organizzazioni, sulla performance aziendale e su diversi settori (finanza, assistenza sanitaria, ricerche scientifiche, società). In particolare, dall'indagine di Tiwari et al. (Tiwari et al., 2018) emerge che i Big Data possono avere numerose applicazioni, anche in contesti diversi rispetto a quello strettamente aziendale. Ad esempio, l'analisi dei Big Data nel settore dell'assistenza sanitaria può ridurre i costi sanitari migliorandone la qualità, mentre in ambito sociale la grande quantità di informazioni contenute nei Big Data risulta utile in svariati contesti politici ed economici (Jin et al., 2015). In questo studio, sottolineiamo come i Big Data possano caratterizzare anche il framework della Citizen Science, rappresentando un ulteriore beneficio, in quanto dal coinvolgimento di numerosi cittadini si possono ricavare insights di valore. Risulta infatti interessante indagare la possibilità di collezionare, attraverso l'attività (volontaria o involontaria) dei citizens partecipanti, non solo informazioni utili ai fini della ricerca scientifica, ma soprattutto dati aggiuntivi (ad esempio attinenti al sesso, al grado d'istruzione, all'età) dalla cui elaborazione poter estrapolare informazioni di valore anche per contesti diversi da quello iniziale del progetto. Tutto ciò è possibile in quanto le metodologie più innovativi per la raccolta dei dati (mobile device, smartphone, tablet etc.) che, impiegando di volta in volta funzionalità differenti (fotocamera, microfono, sensori GPS) garantiscono una raccolta delle informazioni più rapida e precisa. Allo stesso tempo la disponibilità di nuove tecnologie offre nuove opportunità in quanto permette il rilevamento non solo di dati ottenuti attraverso la partecipazione consapevole dei citizens, come ad esempio l'uso della fotocamera e del GPS per immortalare gli uccelli visti in una determinata zona per il progetto e-bird (Sullivan et al., 2014) ma anche dei flussi di informazioni generati inconsapevolmente dai partecipanti, come gli spostamenti fatti, la tipologia di mezzo di trasporto utilizzato mentre si svolgeva l'attività, il sesso e il genere ecc. Certamente, prerequisito fondamentale affinché sia possibile estrapolare informazioni aggiuntive, ma anche perché il progetto di Citizen Science riesca a raggiungere risultati scientificamente validi, è avere a disposizione grandi volumi di dati. Infatti, per garantire la qualità dei dati nei progetti di Citizen Science è cruciale collezionare enormi quantità di dati (Cappa et al., 2016, 2018; Nov et al., 2014), ed anche per ottenere insigths di valore dai Big Data è necessario avere un numero elevato di partecipanti. Risulta quindi essere rilevante aumentare le motivazioni dei cittadini a contribuire al progetto di Citizen Science. Una volta analizzati i numerosi benefici che possono scaturire dai progetti di Citizen Science, diventa indispensabile comprendere quali sono le motivazioni che spingono i citizens ad offrire il proprio contributo nelle ricerche scientifiche, e come aumentarle. Oggigiorno siamo sottoposti a diversi input per partecipare ad attività di vario tipo attraverso internet e le mobile technologies, ed è quindi importante studiare come mantenere vivo l'interesse dei cittadini verso i progetti di Citizen Science (Nov et al., 2014; Tinati et al., 2017).

La varietà e la variabilità nel tempo delle motivazioni, influenzando il coinvolgimento e la partecipazione degli utenti, possono determinare il fallimento dei progetti di Citizen Science (Cappa et al., 2016). Per ridurre al minimo i casi di contribuzioni sporadiche, numerose sono le iniziative che agiscono direttamente sulle motivazioni con l'obiettivo di attrarre un maggior numero di partecipanti e di appassionare di più gli utenti che già sono coinvolti nel progetto. Le motivazioni degli individui coinvolti in progetti crowd come la Citizen Science possono essere suddivise in due macrogruppi: intrinseche e estrinseche (Antikainen et al., 2010; Deci & Ryan, 2000). La prima tipologia di motivazioni è basata sulla partecipazione volontaria collegata alla self-determination ovvero alla realizzazione di sé stessi nel contribuire all'obiettivo dei progetti di Citizen Science, tipicamente di natura ambientale o sociale, e la soddisfazione che se ne trae (Fiorillo, 2011; Pedrotti & Nistor, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000). La seconda tipologia di motivazioni è invece collegata alla faireness expectation (Franke et al., 2013), basata sull'ottenimento di premi a seguito della partecipazione (Cappa et al., 2018) per far sì che i benefici siano distribuiti tra tutti i partecipanti al progetto di Citizen Science. Dato che gli obiettivi della Citizen Science sono principalmente sociali, e dato che l'obiettivo è quello di ottenere numerosi dati per fini pubblici, l'uso delle ricompense è molto limitato e i cittadini partecipano principalmente per motivazioni intrinseche. Infatti, le più recenti metodologie analizzate per agire *positivamente sulle motivazioni si sono concentrate sull'aumento della soddisfazione dei soggetti coinvolti. In particolare, sempre maggiore attenzione viene rivolta al divertimento dei citizens nello svolgere le attività, i.e. motivazioni intrinseche, in quanto in grado di aumentare il senso di coinvolgimento nei progetti di Citizen Science (Cappa et al., 2016, 2018). È stato difatti recentemente mostrato come la gamification del progetto di Citizen Science, sia in grado di aumentare le motivazioni dei partecipanti (Laut et al., 2017; Prestopnik and Tang, 2015; Tinati et al., 2017). Inoltre, è stato evidenziato come una interazione faccia-a-faccia con i ricercatori durante la gestione della parte tecnologica di un progetto di Citizen Science sia in grado di aumentare le motivazioni dei citizen scientists (Cappa et al., 2016). Tuttavia, anche la sfera delle motivazioni estrinseche, con le dovute attenzioni, può essere utilizzata per motivare maggiormente i cittadini ad esempio attraverso l'uso di piccole somme di ricompense monetarie (Cappa et al., 2018). In aggiunta, è stato anche dimostrato (Cappa et al., 2018) che l'offerta di rewards, sia di tipo monetario che di tipo non monetario, come il ringraziamento pubblico online per i contributi forniti al progetto, influisce positivamente sulle motivazioni dei citizens. Mentre il contributo non monetario fa di nuovo leva sull'aspetto intrinseco delle motivazioni aumentando la soddisfazione mediante un ringraziamento pubblico per i contributi forniti dai cittadini (Deci and Ryan, 2000), in questo studio si mostra come anche l'uso di ricompense monetarie, con i dovuti accorgimenti, possa impattare positivamente le motivazioni dei citizen scientists. Infatti, nei contesti di partecipazione volontaria, come lo è anche la Citizen Science, l'uso di somme di denaro per incentivare la partecipazione era stata evidenziato come negativo per le motivazioni, come nel caso delle donazioni di sangue, in quanto diminuiva l'autonomia delle persone e veniva percepito come un meccanismo di controllo da parte delle organizzazioni pubbliche e dei policymakers (Pedrotti and Nistor, 2016; Titmuss, 1998). Con questo studio si è invece evidenziato come contributi di bassa entità e con la possibilità da parte degli individui di rinunciarvi non minino l'autonomia decisionale delle persone a partecipare ed anzi esaltino l'importanza del progetto al quale contribuiscono (Cameron et al., 2001). Inoltre, così facendo è possibile anche evidenziare come la suddivisione dei benefici derivanti dai contributi dei citizen scientists comprenda tutti gli stakeholders coinvolti sula base della teoria della fairness expectation (Franke et al., 2013).*

Uno degli aspetti vincenti nella definitiva accettazione e validazione scientifica della Citizen Science si identifica nel progressivo incremento negli anni del numero di progetti e del numero di pubblicazioni scientifiche ad esso collegate. La provata possibilità della Citizen Science di acquisire, analizzare ed elaborare dati per la creazione e la diffusione di nuove conoscenze attraverso la partecipazione attiva dei cittadini in progetti scientifici rappresenta una valida opportunità per tutti i soggetti coinvolti. Difatti i benefici dovuti a questo coinvolgimento dei cittadini sono sia per i ricercatori, che possono condurre ricerche più velocemente e a minor costo, che per i cittadini, che hanno la possibilità di apprendere e di essere una parte attiva per l'avanzamento scientifico, che anche per i policymakers, che possono adottare questo strumento come mezzo per l'alfabetizzazione scientifica della popolazione ed anche favorire collaborazioni tra mondo civile e scientifico, cruciali per risolvere i Grand Challenge che ci troviamo ad affrontare oggigiorno. Alla luce di queste considerazioni è possibile affermare che la Citizen Science ha già dimostrato di essere uno strumento efficace per favorire le ricerche scientifiche.

Limiti della ricerca. *Questo studio non è esente da limitazioni che lasciano spazio a diverse altre promettenti direzioni di ricerca. In particolare la descrizione degli step da seguire per gestire oggigiorno al meglio i progetti di Citizen Science ed i benefici ulteriori che possono scaturire dalla collezione di Big Data tramite i progetti di Citizen Science sono stati analizzati solo in maniera concettuale in questo articolo, futuri studi dovranno essere indirizzati a fornire supporto empirico a questi ragionamenti per favorire ulteriormente la diffusione della Citizen Science.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Tramite la concettualizzazione degli step da seguire, l'intento è quello di fornire punti di riferimento per i ricercatori che vogliono far partire nuovi progetti di Citizen Science. Inoltre, si è evidenziato come i dati raccolti dai cittadini possano anche costituire Big Data da cui trarre ulteriori insight e sono state evidenziate le più avanzate tecniche su come motivare i citizen scientists a contribuire. Con questo studio sono stati messi in risalto gli innumerevoli benefici per tutti gli attori coinvolti, dovuti alla raccolta ed analisi dati attraverso il contributo dei cittadini, e le ulteriori possibilità che possono scaturire dalla collezione di Big Data, rendendo la Citizen Science una risorsa rilevante per i ricercatori ed i policymakers. Inoltre, fornendo spunti per nuove future ricerche in questo campo l'intenzione è anche quella di stimolare l'attenzione dei ricercatori a condurre ricerche sulle motivazioni dei citizen scientists data la loro rilevanza accademica e manageriale.*

Originalità del lavoro. *Questo studio è tra i primi ad analizzare il ruolo della Citizen Science nel coinvolgimento di crowd per la generazione di nuove conoscenze. In particolare, è possibile favorire le ricerche scientifiche grazie all'inclusione dei cittadini per la collezione e/o analisi di enormi quantità di dati.*

Parole chiave: C*itizen Science; Big Data, Crowd Science*

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L'ecosistema di innovazione delle città intelligenti attraverso la prospettiva dei sistemi dinamici

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Obiettivi. *Le città intelligenti, anche conosciute come "smart city", sono una delle tendenze più ricercate negli ultimi dieci anni. Esse identificano ambienti urbani intelligenti caratterizzati da una serie di aspetti socio-tecnici e socio-economici innovativi che riguardano l'economia, la mobilità, l'ambiente, le persone, la vita e la governance (Caragliu et al., 2011; Zygiaris, 2013) ed hanno come obiettivo il benessere di quei soggetti che vivono l'ambiente urbano (Marsa-Maestre et al., 2008). Più precisamente, le città intelligenti intendono migliorare le comodità e la qualità della vita della comunità urbana, facilitare la mobilità, distribuire le risorse in modo efficace, risparmiare energia, identificare problemi e risolverli in tempi brevi, e recuperare rapidamente da disastri urbani o sociali (Nam e Pardo, 2011). Per farlo occorre però raccogliere una enorme quantità di dati utili, e condividerli per prendere decisioni migliori. È dunque facile intuire che la componente tecnologica è tra gli elementi essenziali per la realizzazione degli obiettivi suddetti e che la costruzione di una infrastruttura tecnologica è propedeutica alla creazione di una "smart city". Ecco il motivo per cui le città intelligenti fungono allo stesso tempo da laboratori a cielo aperto in cui vengono continuamente testate ed implementate tecnologie dirompenti ed innovazioni (Nam e Pardo, 2011) sfruttando un ambiente basato sulla vita reale. Diversi corpi di letteratura (Caragliu et al., 2011, Nam e Pardo, 2011) hanno affrontato l'argomento cercando di giungere ad una migliore comprensione di un fenomeno che radicalmente ha condizionato il paradigma evolutivo delle città tradizionalmente e modernamente concepite. La letteratura ha difatti stravolto il concetto di città inizialmente inteso come spazio di comunità, trasformandolo dapprima in spazio di adozione dell'innovazione tecnologica, e poi in spazio sviluppatore e creatore dell'innovazione, in cui, comunità urbane vivaci e creative, insieme ad un ambiente stimolante e una dotazione tecnologica di base, diventano condizioni favorevoli e fruttuose per lo sviluppo di innovative città intelligenti (Anthopoulos et al., 2019).*

Questa attitudine all'innovazione, che risulta essere una vocazione delle "smart cities", ha stimolato l'implementazione di un'ampia serie di tecnologie digitali legate a servizi, strutture e infrastrutture urbane (Kumar et al., 2016; Ciasullo et al., 2020) inducendo alla necessità di sviluppare piattaforme comuni di lavoro. In particolare, l'utilizzo diffuso di tecnologie digitali come l'intelligenza artificiale (IA) o l'internet delle cose (IoC), ha portato alla necessità di una comune interconnessione realizzabile attraverso piattaforme digitali di smart city (digital smart city platform) in grado di orchestrare al meglio gli strumenti digitali urbani (ad esempio segnali intelligenti, contatori intelligenti, sensori di traffico e così via), i fornitori di tali strumenti e servizi e i finali fruitori (siano essi cittadini, istituzioni, o imprese). Mitchell (2006) paragona infatti le "smart city" ad organismi in grado di sviluppare un sistema nervoso artificiale, che consente loro di comportarsi in modo intelligente e in modalità coordinata. La nuova intelligenza delle città risiede di fatto in una combinazione efficace di reti digitali di telecomunicazione paragonabili ai nervi di un sistema biologico, ubiquitariamente incorporate in una intelligenza paragonabile al nostro cervello, che si serve di sensori e tag allo stesso modo dei nostri organi sensoriali, e di software contenitori di conoscenza e competenza cognitiva. Reti digitali, dispositivi e software sono rappresentativi della architettura digitale delle città intelligenti che costituisce lo strato complementare alla struttura fisica della città e anche allo sviluppo dell'ecosistema innovativo. In accordo con Ahvenniemi et al., (2017) le infrastrutture tecnologiche, nella pratica, non sono solo in grado di generare il flusso di intelligenza urbana, ma rivestono un ruolo importante di attrazione e di connessione tra gli attori. Eppure, sino ad ora, al meglio della nostra conoscenza, non sono noti studi che vadano a valutare la capacità delle infrastrutture tecnologiche di generare valore in ottica ecosistemica. Al momento, l'interconnessione e la partecipazione di più e diversi soggetti ha semplicemente condotto alcuni studiosi (Gutiérrez et al., 2014; Ciasullo et al., 2020) alla necessità di ricorrere alla letteratura degli ecosistemi per descrivere al meglio il fenomeno. Ciasullo et

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al., (2020) hanno evidenziato l'importanza di ricorrere ad un approccio ecosistemico per condurre analisi multi-attore e multi-scopo in grado di portare alla luce i meccanismi di co-creazione e le strategie di integrazione di risorse di una comunità variegata. Gutiérrez et al., (2014) hanno invece fatto emergere, attraverso l'analisi di un caso empirico, il concetto di ecosistema di innovazione delle città intelligenti (smart city innovation ecosystem) evidenziando le potenzialità delle smart city di promuovere il paradigma dell'innovazione sociale. Tale concetto è inoltre servito da un lato ad ampliare la prospettiva di analisi e dall'altro ad estendere il significato di smart city oltre al bisogno del cittadino, e verso quello di una comunità ecosistemica (Yovanof e Hazapis, 2009). Tuttavia, già nel 2011, Komninos, Pallot e Schaffers proposero una special issue sul Journal of the Knowledge Economy, in cui invitavano gli studiosi delle "smart cities" a ricorre ai concetti degli ecosistemi dell'innovazione per interpretare le dinamiche collaborative tra gli attori coinvolti nella creazione e nello sviluppo di una città intelligente. I contributi presentati fornirono però una frammentata visione dell'integrazione del concetto di ecosistema innovativo con quello di città intelligente, spaziando tra temi di diversa natura: "smart city participants" come catalizzatori dell'innovazione, gestione sistemica di risorse e tecnologie, open innovation e città intelligenti. Quel che però complessivamente emerse, e che noi stessi nel presente lavoro utilizziamo come riferimento, è che: gli ecosistemi dell'innovazione, essendo caratterizzati da un mix di iniziative dall'alto verso il basso e dal basso verso l'alto portano al networking e alla collaborazione tra vari stakeholder; tale collaborazione dà vita a progetti, prodotti e servizi ad alto contenuto innovativo che necessitano a loro volta di interconnessione e partecipazione per realizzarsi. Ciò implica che alla base di ciascuna piattaforma digitale sussiste una interconnessione di relazioni intra ed extra "smart city" che contribuisce alla creazione di un ecosistema innovativo di città intelligente.

Limitando l'obiettivo dell'analisi alle piattaforme digitali impiegate in un contesto urbano intelligente, apriamo la strada a due domande di ricerca. In primo luogo, in che modo i processi sottostanti le piattaforme digitali e i modelli di innovazione ad essi connesse plasmano le città intelligenti? In secondo luogo, qual è il valore reale prodotto dall'interconnessione tra infrastruttura della piattaforma digitale? Per rispondere alle nostre domande di ricerca, oltre ad esplorare la letteratura esistente, abbiamo analizzato un caso di successo di stampo internazionale, la "Smart Santander Pltaform", dalla quale abbiamo derivato degli assunti di base del nostro modello di simulazione e identificato i fattori più significativi che innescano l'evoluzione dell'innovazione nelle città intelligenti. In sintesi, la piattaforma digitale è il fulcro della nostra analisi, imperniata sulla migliore comprensione degli schemi di adozione predominanti che la maggior parte delle "smart city" sta seguendo. Questa analisi, ci ha condotto alla identificazione di modelli di business innovativi che emergono dal distretto urbano, ma che allo stesso tempo fluiscono nello sviluppo di un più complesso ecosistema innovativo.

Metodologia. *Per affrontare il complesso tema dell'implementazione tecnologica nelle città e la generazione di valore che da essa ne deriva, il paper, adotta un impianto metodologico qualitativo, nella sua prima parte e una simulazione mediante l'approccio dei sistemi dinamici nella seconda parte. L'analisi qualitativa è consistita nell'osservazione del caso internazionale di successo della piattaforma digitale, installata nella città iberica di Santander. Il progetto è denominato "Smart Santander Platform". L'interesse di ricerca suscitato dal caso Santander è dovuto alla volontà della municipalità, di costruire attraverso l'adozione di nuove tecnologie digitali, un ecosistema urbano, che oltre a consentire il miglioramento della qualità della vita dei cittadini, al contempo possa fungere da laboratorio per lo sviluppo e la sperimentazione sul campo di nuove tecnologie. Questa linea di sviluppo strategico, si è sovrapposta all'obiettivo di ricerca di questo lavoro, ovvero comprendere se e in che maniera le "smart city" possono stimolare la nascita di un ecosistema per l'innovazione. Con l'obiettivo di sviluppare una simulazione attraverso l'approccio dei System dynamics (Luna-Reyes 2003) era necessario individuare delle variabili di ingresso, ovvero quelle grandezze che condizionano l'evoluzione dell'ecosistema. In tal senso l'analisi del caso Santander è stata portata avanti attraverso l'utilizzi di dati secondari (sito della "Smart Santander Platform", riviste specializzate) del caso spagnolo. L'osservazione ha consentito di raccogliere dati sui vari livelli di implementazione delle nuove tecnologie digitali. Inoltre, una serie di informazioni è stata reperita sulle modalità di raggruppamento, gestione e stoccaggio degli user-data proveniente dai device dei cittadini. Infine, l'ultima unità di analisi osservata è stata la modalità in cui questi dati vengono analizzati ed utilizzati per consentire alla comunità urbana di individuare nuove fonti di innovazione ed implementazione. La clusterizzazione delle unità di analisi prima menzionate, ha consentito di creare delle variabili di ingresso per la simulazione attraverso il metodo dei sistemi dinamici. La metodologia dei System Dynamics è stata sviluppata per l'analisi di sistemi complessi in relazione a comportamenti dinamici. Rispetto ai metodi tradizionali, l'approccio di simulazione System Dynamics studia le interrelazioni tra gli attori, che hanno un forte grado di causalità. Tale metodologia riesce a gestire dinamiche di retro-effetto attraverso la messa a sistema di feedback nel tempo. Tale metodologia, seppur sotto un grado elevato di astrazione, ha il grosso pregio di non richiedere per la sua progettazione dati longitudinali del tipo Panel o Time Series Cross-Section. Data la loro estrema configurabilità le simulazioni con System Dynamics si prestano ad attività di test di strategie in scenari ad alto grado di evoluzione. Gli elementi di base della simulazione System Dynamics sono riconducibili a quattro componenti: Stock ("variabile di stato", "livello", o "serbatoio"), Flow ("tasso", "variabile di controllo" o "processi"), Converter ("ausiliario", o "variabile di traslazione") e Connector (o "freccia di informazione"). Il modello di simulazione consiste in un insieme di equazioni differenziali non lineari, come equazioni di livello (o di stato), equazioni di flusso, equazioni ausiliarie, equazioni di parametro, equazioni di condizione e equazioni di valore iniziale (Richardson 1991). L'equazione di livello è l'equazione centrale, che presenta il comportamento dinamico di un sistema. Il nostro modello assume che l'equazione di livello del sistema è dato dalla legge di Metcalfe (1995). Tale legge assume che il valore di* *un network, nel nostro caso quello della piattaforma digitale urbana, dipenda dal numero di user connessi con una equazione del tipo:*

$V_{pd} = n_{pd}(n_{pd}-1)$.

V_{pd} = *piattaforma digitale*

n_{pd} = *user connessi*

Tale formulazione prevede che tutti gli utenti connessi abbiano egual peso all'interno del network. Inoltre, il modello assume come variabili di stato quattro sub-categorie estratte dall'osservazione del caso Santander:

- *Dispositivi;*
- *Infrastruttura per la gestione dati;*
- *Cloud;*
- *Applicazioni.*

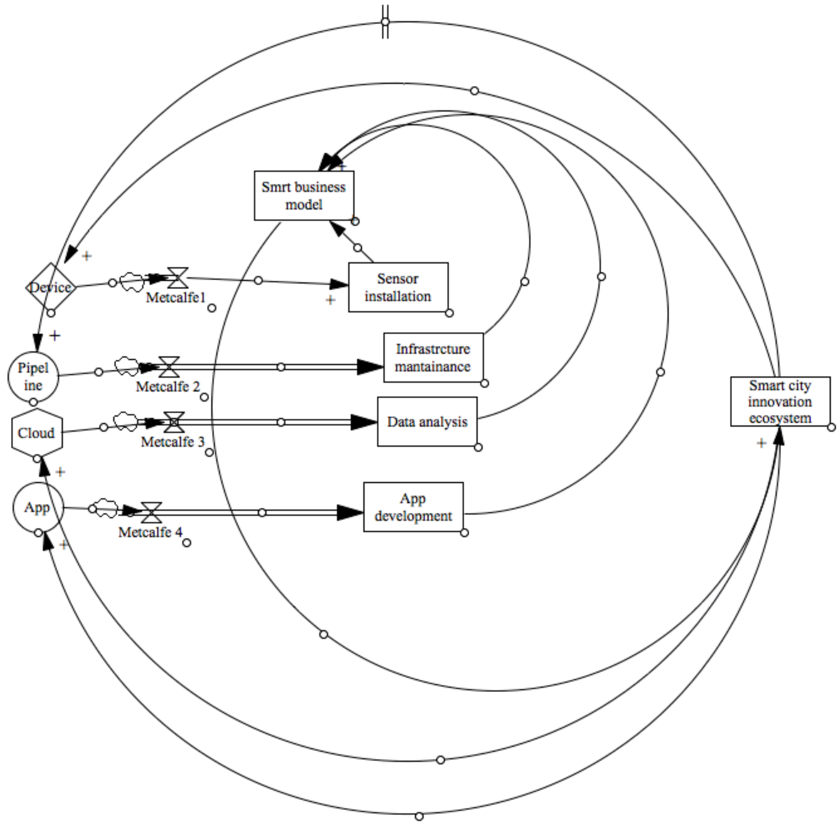
Queste quattro sottocategorie della più generale infrastruttura digitale urbana costituiscono le variabili di ingresso del sistema ma anche la variabile Connector che registra l'effetto retroattivo tra il valore generato dall'ecosistema urbano e la piattaforma digitale.

La variabile Flow è associata a quattro sub categorie che afferiscono al più ampio raggruppamento delle innovazioni dei modelli di business:

- *Installazione di sensori e nuove tecnologie digitali;*
- *Manutenzione della infrastruttura digitale;*
- *Cloud computing;*
- *Sviluppo delle app.*

In sintesi, il modello concettuale alla base del modello di simulazione prevede due grandi gruppi di analisi: quello della piattaforma di valore e quello dei Business Model innovation. Questi gruppi a loro volta sono formati da sottocategorie tutte a loro volta responsabili di un unico valore, ovvero quello generato dall'ecosistema urbano. In pratica la generazione del valore attraverso nuovi modelli di business crea l'ecosistema di innovazione nella città intelligente che agisce come variabile in uscita, ma che altresì alimenta il processo innescando un ulteriore sviluppo della piattaforma digital.

Fig. 1: Modello concettuale per la simulazione



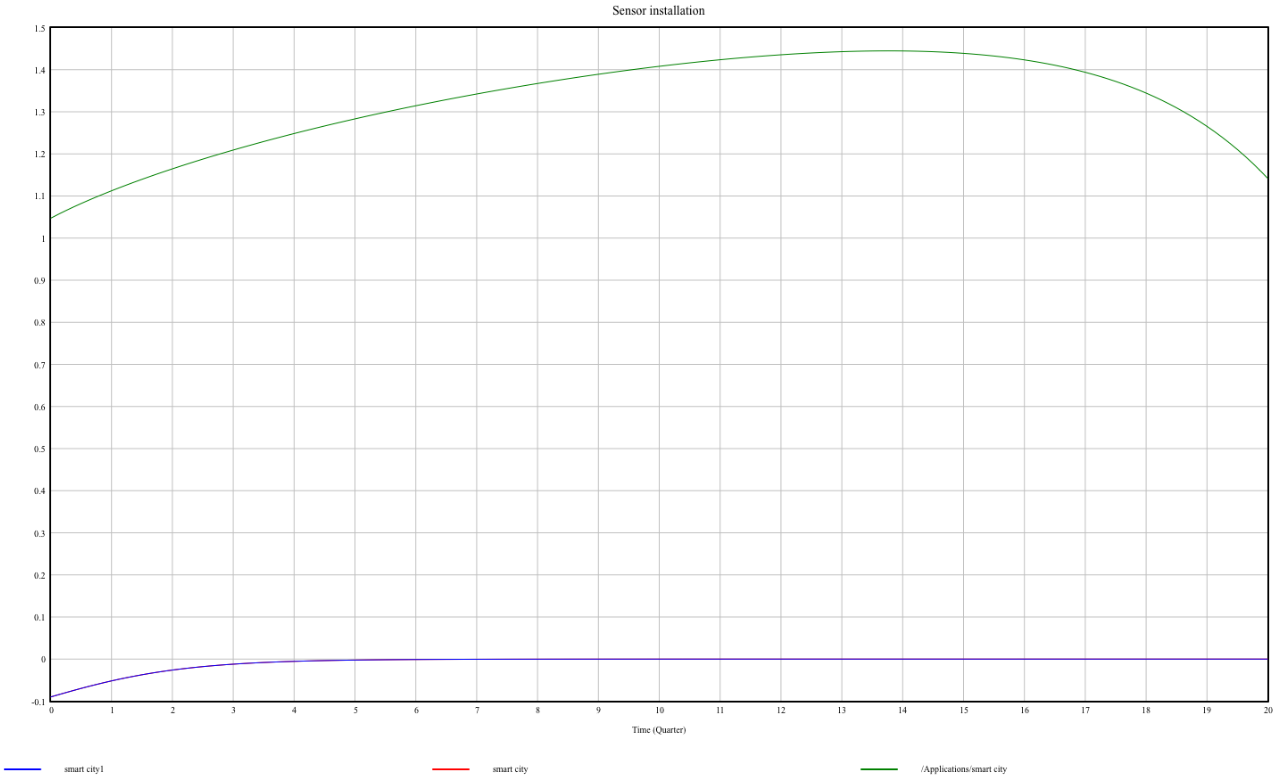
Fonte: elaborazione degli autori da software Vensim PLE

La simulazione è stata condotta in un arco temporale pari a 20 trimetri. Tale scelta è stata adottata per due ragioni: la possibilità di osservare e registrare l'evoluzione con un grado maggiore rispetto all'ampiezza temporale di un anno, *e la verosimiglianza con il caso Santander, dove l'implementazione e lo sviluppo di nuove tecnologie ha una cadenza di molto inferiore all'anno. Per sviluppare la simulazione si è scelto di adottare il software Vensim PLE (Schiehlen 2013).*

Risultati. *L'osservazione del caso Santander restituisce un paradigma di implementazione delle piattaforme digitali urbane del tipo Device-Pipeline-Cloud-App. Questi quattro ambiti di sviluppo ed implementazione tecnologica aprono la strada a nuove ed innovative applicazioni per le tecnologie digitali all'interno di ecosistemi innovativi. Diversi sono gli esempi attraverso cui Santander ha innovato la sua infrastruttura tecnologica a partire da questi quattro livelli. Solo per portare alcuni esempi può esser fatto richiamo ai Santander IoT devices Outdoor parking sensors, una rete di sensori cittadina in grado di rilevare il flusso del traffico e le aree di criticità per il parcheggio. Oppure le Smart Santander App participatory sensing,attraverso è stato possibile intercettare la partecipazione dei cittadini alle diverse attività nell'area urbana. Oppure per concludere i Multihop OTAP node, dei centri di ingresso dati attraverso cui i device comunicano dati alla piattaforma.*

Queste quattro sottocategorie sviluppano dei cluster all'interno del network che accrescono il loro valore all'aumentare del numero di user presenti nella subcategoria. Lo sviluppo di valore regolato dalla legge di Metcalfe è stato testato per ogni sottocategoria (vedi figura 2 Metcalfe1, Metcalfe2, Metcalfe3; Metcalfe4)

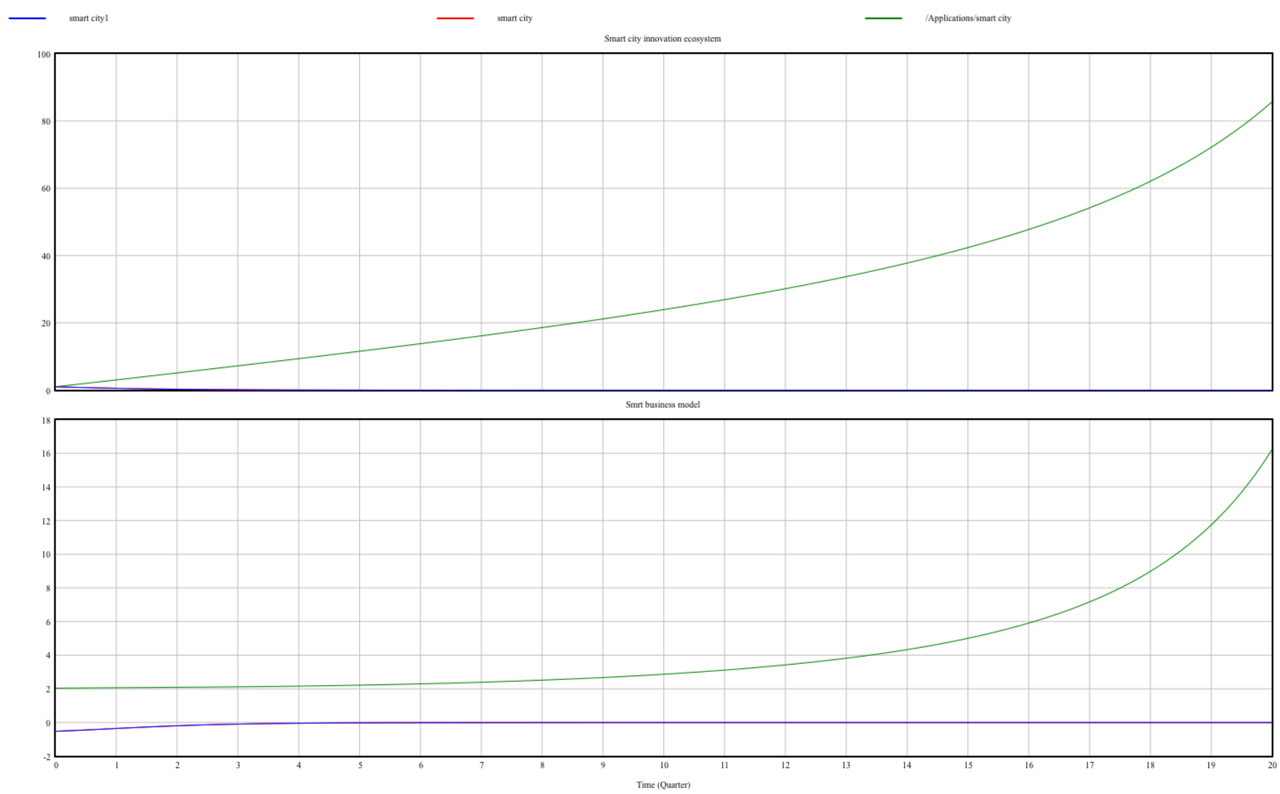
Fig. 2: Simulazione della Metcalfe Law



Fonte: elaborazione degli autori da software Vensim PLE

Il grafico mostra come al trascorrere del tempo la funzione di Metcalfe perde di valore fino a decrescere. Questo effetto non è dovuto alla funzione in sé, quanto al valore di ingresso, ovvero le subcategorie tecnologiche che essendo a loro volta funzione del valore dell'ecosistema, hanno una evoluzione decrescente.

Fig. 3 Simulazione di confronto tra "Smart city innovation ecosystem" e "Smart business model"



Fonte: elaborazione degli autori da software Vensim PLE

La simulazione mostra come i quattro sottolivelli di "smart business model" agiscano nel tempo con un andamento pressoché identico rispetto al valore del network. Tuttavia, è utile notare come, fino al quattordicesimo trimestre la crescita dell'ecosistema sia più robusta della crescita del valore dei business model. Questo rafforza il concetto di ecosistema, laddove, i tassi di crescita dei modelli di business sono inferiore individualmente, al valore collettivo dell'intero sistema urbano. Questo suggerisce come l'interazione e gli effetti retroattivi supportino le specifiche aree di sviluppo verso una crescita vigorosa, che addirittura in termini di tasso di crescita supera il tasso di incremento trimestrale dell'intero ecosistema.

Limiti della ricerca. *Questo studio non è privo di limitazioni. In primo luogo, le speculazioni teoriche e il modello di simulazione applicato potrebbero essere dimostrate in futuro analizzando più casi di studio per indagare l'effettivo miglioramento delle prestazioni degli attori coinvolti nell'ecosistema di innovazione delle città intelligenti. Inoltre, vista la grande importanza della differente regolamentazione di diversi settori, l'analisi dei casi potrebbe evidenziare le variazioni negli effetti che i servizi basati su queste tecnologie digitali creano per diversi attori soggetti a regole differenti. Inoltre, vari problemi, come la complessità e i confini dell'ecosistema potrebbero minare il valore della ricerca di casi di studio quando questo metodo viene implementato per indagare diversi mercati B2B. Tali criticità, a nostro avviso, sono accresciute dalle potenzialità delle diverse tecnologie che, per caratteristiche, possono fornire soluzioni altamente specializzate, sofisticate e contestualizzate. Per queste ragioni, il tema della generalizzabilità emerge in modo più evidente come limitazione dello studio, che riporta un unico paese oggetto di indagine. Infine, lo studio si basa su dati secondari per indagare l' implementazione delle piattaforme digitali urbane del tipo Device-Pipeline-Cloud-App. Pertanto, invitiamo i futuri ricercatori a studiare dei modelli di business similari in diversi contesti per capire se la simulazione effettuata è replicabile.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Attingendo ai risultati sopra riportati, è possibile sviluppare una serie di implicazioni pratiche per i diversi attori coinvolti nell'ecosistema di innovazione delle città intelligenti. Un primo ragionamento riguarda la co-creazione di valore guidata dall'utilizzo di strumenti digitali (ad es. segnali intelligenti, sensori del traffico etc.) per la corretta pianificazione dei servizi offerti dalle città intelligenti. Queste ultime generano risultati positivi non solo per i fornitori e gli acquirenti di questi servizi ma anche per gli utenti finali e altre parti (ad esempio, istituzioni pubbliche e utenti finali, responsabili delle politiche regionali e managers di imprese) che dovrebbero trarre vantaggi dall'intero ecosistema innovativo. I diversi attori sono coinvolti nella condivisione di dati e informazioni che non possono essere gestiti in modo sistematico o passivo senza contare su un quadro affidabile che guida la raccolta e l'analisi dei dati. Per questi motivi, solo un'efficiente impostazione digitale dell'ecosistema può fornire il sostegno a eventuali indicatori di performance che monitorano le diverse attività (es. cloud computing). Il mining di processi non è deputato solo alla descrizione delle dinamiche di sistema. Infatti, accoppiando strettamente i dati degli eventi e i*

modelli di processo, l'ecosistema di innovazione delle città intelligenti può creare attività generatrici di valore in grado di aumentare notevolmente la dinamicità e la reattività delle decisioni nell'ambito di questi contesti.

L'articolo contribuisce alla letteratura esistente sugli ecosistemi innovativi e alla capacità di generare nuovi modelli di business per le città intelligenti. I risultati preliminari dello studio dimostrano che il modello del circolo tecnologico dell'ecosistema di innovazione si sofferma sulla complessità e l'eterogeneità degli attori e dei processi che irrimediabilmente influisce sull'assorbimento e l'interpretazione di dati e informazioni. Il nostro modello ha cercato di ampliare la comprensione di come avviene l'innovazione durante il processo di digitalizzazione della piattaforma e di come reagisce l'ecosistema urbano digitale in termini di adattamento o innovazione del modello di business.

I risultati preliminari del presente studio evidenziano anche alcune interessanti implicazioni di marketing per coloro che desiderano implementare processi di trasformazione digitale adottando le tecnologie dell'industria 4.0. Innanzitutto, queste organizzazioni devono comprendere attentamente quali sono le combinazioni più adatte per la gestione dei servizi B2B all'interno dell'ecosistema di innovazione delle città intelligenti. Difatti, le aziende dovrebbero anche tenere conto della questione della complessità tecnologica quando co-creano e progettano le loro soluzioni industriali basate sulle nuove tecnologie (es. internet of things). Il motivo riguarda i responsabili politici che potrebbero essere disposti a promuovere l'adozione e l'implementazione di soluzioni tecnologiche ad esempio nel settore sanitario, ma potrebbero non essere utili per il settore del turismo. Per questi motivi, gli attori coinvolti in questi ecosistemi devono comprendere al meglio le opportunità e le criticità che potrebbero emergere nei mercati in cui operano. Dimostriamo inoltre che per comprendere il ruolo delle piattaforme digitali nelle città intelligenti, può essere utile considerare i processi aziendali degli stakeholder come unità di analisi piuttosto che adottare la prospettiva del fornitore della piattaforma che è comunemente adottato nella letteratura esistente. Infatti, in un ecosistema innovativo di attori eterogenei, i miglioramenti dei processi aziendali ottenuti dall'utilizzo di una piattaforma digitale sono sia un prerequisito che un risultato dell'implementazione. Sfruttando la nostra analisi preliminare, i responsabili delle politiche e i managers di imprese potrebbero identificare percorsi di miglioramento per focalizzare la loro attenzione sugli aspetti più critici della qualità del sistema, del servizio e della circolarità di dati e informazioni.

Infine, il presente documento cerca di cogliere una comprensione generale fondendo diversi campi di ricerca e fornendo una base affidabile per avviare ulteriori ricerche accademiche quantitative. Inoltre, la nostra simulazione matematica, sebbene influenzata da diversi presupposti semplicistici, cerca di svelare la scatola nera del valore della rete digitale e il diverso ruolo degli attori dell'ecosistema.

Originalità del lavoro. *Sebbene la letteratura abbia studiato le "smart city" da diverse prospettive, il presente studio rappresenta un tentativo per reinterpretare il fenomeno in ottica ecosistemica, contribuendo alla definizione del concetto di ecosistema di innovazione delle città intelligente. In particolare, abbiamo fornito una rappresentazione dei processi che sottendono la creazione di una piattaforma digitale per le città intelligenti illustrando come ognuno di essi dia vita allo sviluppo di ecosistemi paralleli e convergenti che a loro volta definiscono l'ecosistema innovativo delle "smart city". Inoltre, per comprendere il valore generato dalla piattaforma e dai modelli innovativi ad essa connessi abbiamo applicato la prospettiva dei sistemi dinamici che ci ha consentito di ridurre la complessità dei sistemi urbani - quali le "smart city" - caratterizzati da un numero elevato di attori e relazioni e da una complita comprensione delle relazioni causa-effetto.*

Parole chiave: *smart city, innovation ecosystem, simulation, system dynamics*

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Il ruolo delle strategie di marketing internazionale nello sviluppo delle smart cities: analisi tematica e indicazioni per gli sviluppi futuri

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Obiettivi. *Le Smart Cities hanno assunto negli ultimi anni un ruolo centrale nel dibattito internazionale sulla crescita economica e sullo sviluppo locale (Herrschel, 2013; Lytras and Visvizi, 2018). Sebbene sia gli studiosi che i tecnici ritengano che le Smart Cities abbiano il potenziale per plasmare il futuro urbano (Vanolo, 2014; de Falco, Angelidou and Addie, 2019; Leitheiser and Follmann, 2020), c'è ancora un'ambiguità generale sulla loro corretta concezione. Nel corso degli anni sono state proposte diverse definizioni di "Smart City" concepite come città della conoscenza, città intelligenti, città digitali, città creative, città verdi, città imprenditoriali e città della scienza (Vanolo, 2014; Goodspeed, 2015; El-Haddadeh et al., 2019). Tuttavia, nonostante le diverse prospettive nella concettualizzazione delle Smart Cities, accademici e tecnici concordano sul fatto che queste sono in grado di integrare le tecnologie dell'informazione e della comunicazione (ICT) e altri vari dispositivi fisici connessi all'Internet delle cose (IoT) per ottimizzare l'efficienza della città sviluppando nuovi servizi e prodotti offerti ed aumentando i collegamenti e le interazioni con i cittadini (Albino, Berardi and Dangelico, 2015; Valdez, Cook and Potter, 2018).*

Questo sviluppo ha portato le città ad evolversi nel corso degli anni, spostandosi sempre più dal contesto locale e nazionale ad un contesto globale. Per fare questo, le loro strategie di sviluppo internazionale si basano sull'adozione di IoT e ICT in diversi campi come economia, ambiente, mobilità, sostenibilità, partecipazione dei cittadini e governance per trasformare le infrastrutture ed i servizi della città (Hollands, 2015; Lamberton and Stephen, 2016; Gagliardi et al., 2017). In questo scenario, le strategie di sviluppo della città e l'apertura internazionale rappresentano elementi chiave per lo sviluppo delle Smart Cities che si sono evolute negli ultimi dieci anni per supportare il processo di innovazione e internazionalizzazione (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2007; Taylor Buck and While, 2017)

Professionisti ed accademici hanno analizzato vari aspetti dell'apertura internazionale della città, con un focus particolare sulle attività di promozione globale come i processi manageriali di espansione nei mercati internazionali (Wu and Zhou, 2018), la pianificazione e l'implementazione delle strategie di internazionalizzazione (Albino, Berardi and Dangelico, 2015; Chatterjee and Kar, 2015) ed il modo in cui il tessuto economico locale influenza l'adozione di strategie di sviluppo nazionale ed internazionale ed il successivo impatto sulla sua apertura internazionale (Elango and Pangarkar, 2020).

In questo documento, esaminiamo l'impatto delle strategie di marketing internazionale nel processo di internazionalizzazione delle Smart Cities nell'ultimo decennio (2009-2020) con l'obiettivo di fornire una comprensione olistica del ruolo svolto dalle strategie di marketing internazionale nello sviluppo urbano per la crescita delle Smart Cities per rispondere alla seguente domanda di ricerca: "Come si relazionano l'internazionalizzazione e le strategie di marketing internazionale delle città con lo sviluppo delle Smart Cities?

Per rispondere a questa domanda, nel seguente elaborato andiamo a sviluppare una revisione sistematica volta a (i) rivedere la ricerca esistente; (ii) generare nuove conoscenze sullo stato dell'arte per le politiche, i professionisti e gli accademici; (iii) individuare il divario di conoscenze per la ricerca futura. In particolare, questa revisione della letteratura ha l'obiettivo di colmare le lacune presenti nella letteratura esistente e di discutere le implicazioni per la ricerca e le implicazioni teoriche e politiche con suggerimenti concreti per professionisti e ricercatori di questo campo.

Metodologia. *Abbiamo scelto di utilizzare il metodo della revisione sistematica della letteratura (SLR) perché ci fornisce un metodo per identificare, selezionare, analizzare e sintetizzare la letteratura esistente in modo rigoroso, trasparente e replicabile (basato su un protocollo chiaro e ripetibile) e ci consente di fornire risultati e conclusioni basati su una profonda analisi dell'area esaminata. (Atewologun et al., 2017; Christofi et al., 2019a). Per offrire una panoramica oggettiva della letteratura esistente sulle intersezioni tra Smart Cities e strategie di marketing internazionale abbiamo stabilito dei chiari criteri concettuali per definire meglio il nostro contesto di analisi (Denyer*

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and Tranfield, 2009; Littell, Corcoran and Pillai, 2009). Per effettuare questa analisi, ci siamo affidati al database Business Source Premier di EBSCOhost come principale fonte di ricerca per questo in quanto ci fornisce un solido livello di copertura dei principali giornali di riferimento (Dike and Rose, 2017; Pisani et al., 2017). Come da prassi nelle revisioni della letteratura, abbiamo eseguito una ricerca per parole chiave su titoli, abstract e le intestazioni dello studio (Christofi, Leonidou and Vrontis, 2017; Leonidou et al., 2018). La nostra selezione di parole chiave si basa su una analisi delle precedenti revisioni della letteratura pubblicate nei principali giornali di riferimento aventi per oggetto le "strategie di marketing internazionale" (Yang and Gabrielsson, 2018; İpek, 2020) ed il concetto di "Smart Cities" (Cocchia, 2014; Ismagilova et al., 2019). Una volta identificato i due campi di ricerca rilevanti per l'analisi: "Strategie di marketing internazionale" AND "smart city", con le rispettive e comprensive parole chiave abbiamo avviato la nostra analisi.

Da questa ricerca sono emersi 1608 studi potenzialmente rilevanti. Per avere una comprensione più precisa del ruolo delle strategie di marketing internazionale nello sviluppo delle Smart Cities, abbiamo deciso di escludere gli studi nazionali concentrandoci solo sulla dimensione internazionale. La nostra ricerca è stata così ridisegnata per includere studi che si sono concentrati sulla visione internazionale della città intelligente, ma anche sul processo di internazionalizzazione della città stessa, acquisendo una migliore comprensione delle diverse dimensioni delle strategie di sviluppo delle Smart Cities nel panorama internazionale.

Infine, abbiamo determinato i criteri di esclusione e inclusione facendo riferimento alle principali pratiche utilizzate nelle revisioni sistematiche (Pisani, 2009; Pisani et al., 2017; Vrontis and Christofi, 2019; Tan and Taeihagh, 2020). Pertanto, abbiamo escluso articoli non accademici e non sottoposti a revisione paritaria, articoli scritti in una lingua differente dall'inglese, ed articoli non inerenti al contesto economico e manageriale. Per quanto riguarda il periodo sotto esame, abbiamo basato la nostra ricerca a partire dal 2009. Sebbene l'utilizzo del termine "Smart City" sia apparso per la prima volta in uno studio di Tan (1999) solo nell'ultimo decennio (a partire dal 2009), un numero crescente di studi ha iniziato a utilizzare la terminologia delle città intelligenti nel contesto urbano non solo da un punto di vista tecnologico ma anche in una prospettiva di apertura internazionale (Paskaleva, 2019). L'applicazione di questi criteri di esclusione ha ristretto i risultati del nostro campione che si è ridotto a 630 studi selezionati.

Sulla base di questi 630 studi, abbiamo utilizzato un criterio di qualità per identificare al meglio il nostro campione (Gaur and Kumar, 2018). I manoscritti sono stati identificati dalle principali riviste internazionali al fine di catturare le componenti principali della nostra domanda di ricerca (Christofi, Leonidou and Vrontis, 2017; Vrontis and Christofi, 2019). In particolare, abbiamo preso in considerazione solo gli studi pubblicati su riviste di grado 3, 4 e 4 in tutte le categorie dalla guida accademica 2018 dell'Association of Business Schools (www.charteredabs.org) per valutarne sistematicamente il rigore metodologico (Gaur and Kumar, 2018). Questo criterio di qualità è una pratica ordinaria nelle revisioni sistematiche all'avanguardia in quanto: a) la pubblicazione su queste riviste garantisce che il livello di qualità per gli studi inclusi nella revisione sia del più alto standard possibile (Baldacchino et al., 2015); b) la selezione di articoli da riviste di alto livello è un metodo frequentemente utilizzato per catturare dibattiti accademici e tendenze di ricerca in un dominio mentre si effettuano revisioni della letteratura (Atewologun et al., 2017; Christofi et al., 2019). Utilizzando il criterio di qualità, sono stati identificati 53 articoli con classificazione 3, 4 e 4 *.*

Un ulteriore analisi è stata fatta leggendo gli abstract, l'introduzione e la conclusione degli studi identificati, utilizzando un'esecuzione rigorosa della revisione stessa che comprende l'identificazione della letteratura pertinente utilizzando criteri di inclusione ed esclusione espliciti e riproducibili supportati da una valutazione della qualità degli studi esaminati (Christofi et al., 2019). In molti casi, per avere una migliore comprensione di questi articoli e per valutare se corrispondevano ai nostri criteri, li abbiamo inclusi nel passaggio successivo per la lettura e l'elaborazione del testo completo (Vrontis and Christofi, 2019). Questo processo ha prodotto un totale di 42 studi. Di questi documenti, 10 sono stati quindi esclusi sulla base della lettura del testo completo, lasciandoci con 32 articoli pertinenti. Inoltre, per assicurarci di non perdere nessun articolo, abbiamo condotto un ulteriore passaggio: abbiamo impiegato un il metodo "backward and forward snowballing" utilizzato anche in altre revisioni sistematiche della letteratura (Geissdoerfer et al., 2017; Nofal et al., 2018) andando a controllare manualmente ogni singola referenza degli studi selezionati. Questa procedura aggiuntiva ha aumentato il nostro campione di 9 articoli. Gli articoli identificati sono stati esaminati e l'ammissibilità per l'inclusione è stata determinata sulla base dello stesso procedimento effettuato precedentemente. Dopo questo passaggio, tutti i 9 articoli sono stati ritenuti conformi al nostro processo di ricerca evidenziando un campione finale di 41 articoli.

Risultati. *L'obbiettivo di questo elaborato è stato quello di cogliere l'evoluzione della produzione scientifica nell'intersezione tra Smart Cities e strategie di marketing internazionale, tracciando sistematicamente le tendenze dei documenti selezionati. Dopo una crescita iniziale moderata nel periodo iniziale preso in esame (2009-2014), possiamo registrare un aumento significativo della produzione accademica con il 70% degli studi concentrati nella seconda metà del periodo preso in considerazione (2015-2020). Questa è la conseguenza di una confluenza di due aspetti: a) il crescente sviluppo e consolidamento del concetto di Smart City sia nel panorama nazionale che in quello internazionale; b) il crescente interesse della ricerca sulle strategie di sviluppo delle città oltre supportate da driver tecnologici e digitali che hanno un forte impatto sul processo di internazionalizzazione della città* (Kitchin, 2015; Valdez, Cook and Potter, 2018; Hollands, 2020). *Notiamo inoltre che i principali giornali di riferimento sull'argomento sono rappresentati da "Government Information Quarterly" che è la principale rivista emersa nel nostro campione con 12 articoli (29%), seguita dal "Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy and Society" e "Urban studies" con 5 articoli ciascuno (12%). "Public Management Review", "European Urban and Regional Studies" e "California Management*

Review" ospitano rispettivamente 3 articoli (7%), "Technovation" con 2 articoli (4%) mentre il resto delle riviste presenta un solo articolo.

Dal punto di vista dello sviluppo e dell'implementazione del concetto di Smart Cities, la ricerca è in una fase relativamente iniziale sia per quanto riguarda il suo sviluppo concettuale che per la sua comprensione empirica. Mentre il concetto di Smart City ha aumentato la sua popolarità tra accademici, imprese, governo e media, il concetto stesso tende ad essere più teorico che pratico e necessita di prove empiriche future nei prossimi anni (Hollands, 2020; Jindal, Kumar and Singh, 2020; Löfgren and Webster, 2020). *Considerata la rapidità con cui il concetto Smart City ha preso piede e si è tradotto in diverse forme di urbanistica* (Valdez, Cook and Potter, 2018) *rimodellando l'amministrazione cittadina* (Linders, 2012; Gil-Garcia, Dawes and Pardo, 2018) *e lo sviluppo economico urbano* (Herrschel, 2013; Shelton, Zook and Wiig, 2015) *è importante spingere il flusso di ricerca nello studio delle Smart Cities aumentando il numero di studi quantitativi. Analizziamo le principali metodologie adottate nel nostro campione, gli articoli teorici rappresentano il 30% del campione, mentre la maggior parte degli articoli sono empirici (63%). Nello specifico, la ricerca utilizza principalmente metodi qualitativi come interviste, case study e focus group (48%), seguiti da metodi misti (13%) e metodi quantitativi (7%). Sono presenti nel nostro campione anche due revisioni della letteratura pubblicate rispettivamente in "Government Information Quarterly" e "Public Management Review". Inoltre, nel nostro studio ci focalizziamo anche su come queste metodologie sono state distribuite negli anni. I primi anni presi in considerazione comprendono solo studi qualitativi e pubblicazioni teoriche con un picco nel biennio 2014-2015 di 10 studi. A seguito del grande sviluppo del concetto di Smart City, negli anni successivi il numero di studi quantitativi in quest'area di ricerca è notevolmente aumentato evidenziando un picco proprio nell'ultimo quadriennio 2017-2020, dove sono presenti studi che adottano una metodologia di tipo quantitativo (N = 3) e mista (N = 4). Questo risultato è determinato da un numero crescente di studi empirici volti a supportare o criticare i precedenti quadri teorici sulle Smart Cities* (Vanolo, 2014; Hollands, 2015; Berrone, Ricart and Carrasco, 2016).

Analizzando i risultati dal punto di vista accademico, sono stati identificati 119 autori affiliati ad università e istituzioni di 15 paesi. Analizzando l'origine del primo autore, il nostro campione ha evidenziato una prevalenza di autori dal Regno Unito (19%, N = 8 autori), Spagna (17%, N = 7 autori), Stati Uniti (17%, N = 7 autori) e Italia (12%, N = 5 autori). Altri contributi provengono da Cina, Irlanda e Paesi Bassi che forniscono 2 contributi ciascuno (5%). Mentre i restanti paesi come Australia, Cile, Danimarca, Kuwait, Korea, India, e Qatar e Svizzera forniscono un unico contributo ciascuno (2,5%). Inoltre, nonostante l'eterogeneità dei paesi rispetto al numero di studi nel nostro campione, il 63% degli studi selezionati è scritto da un ricercatore o da un gruppo di ricerca con sede in un singolo paese. Il restante 21% è scritto da ricercatori che lavorano in due paesi e il 14% in tre o più paesi. È sorprendente che solo una piccola parte della ricerca esistente sia stata condotta da team di ricerca globali vista la natura internazionale del fenomeno e le tecnologie disponibili per stimolare la collaborazione tra città e paesi diversi.

Completando l'analisi geografica del nostro campione, abbiamo analizzato gli studi selezionati sviluppando la ricerca su due livelli: un livello nazionale ed un livello locale analizzando le città prese in considerazione. Per fare questo abbiamo codificato ogni nazione ed ogni città trattata all'interno degli studi presenti nel nostro campione utilizzando una classificazione a tre gruppi che distingue tra paesi in via di sviluppo, paesi emergenti e paesi sviluppati in base alla classificazione della Banca mondiale (www.worldbank.org). Questo ci dà una profonda consapevolezza delle caratteristiche economiche del setting empirico del nostro campione (Dreher, Sturm and Vreeland, 2009; Pisani *et al.*, 2017). *A livello geografico, la maggior parte degli studi analizzati si focalizza sull'Europa e l'Asia centrale (64%, N = 20) seguite dal Nord America (19%, N = 6). La restante parte è distribuita equamente tra l'Asia occidentale ed il Sud America. A seguito di questa analisi, i nostri risultati confermano la prevalenza delle città intelligenti nei paesi sviluppati (86%, N = 27) rispetto ai paesi in via di sviluppo (7%, N = 2) ed i paesi emergenti (7%, N = 2). Questi risultati rappresentano la crescita delle Smart Cities in termini di attrattività, cambiamento tecnologico e impatto sociale negli ultimi anni* (Bakici, Almirall and Wareham, 2013; Carvalho, 2015) *ma mostrano anche che la crescita non è equamente distribuita tra i paesi in via di sviluppo, emergenti e sviluppati. È interessante evidenziare che negli studi analizzati emerge una crescita degli investimenti diretti, sia esteri che locali, avviati da multinazionali dei mercati emergenti nelle economie sviluppate che hanno un impatto sullo sviluppo delle Smart Cities sia nel contesto locale che in quello internazionale (Gibbs, Krueger e MacLeod, 2013; Chatterjee e Kar , 2015). Concludendo l'analisi a livello geografico, gli studi presenti nel nostro campione hanno preso in considerazione 18 città, coprendo diverse nazioni e focalizzandosi principalmente sulle città europee più sviluppate in termini di Smart Cities quali Barcellona, Milano e Londra. Queste città, insieme ad altre importanti città europee, hanno introdotto politiche e progetti di sviluppo delle Smart Cities promuovendo progetti come il Living Lab di Europe Union o la British Smart Bay* (Almirall *et al.*, 2016; Zhang, Zhao and He, 2020).

Infine, per cogliere la relazione tra le strategie di marketing internazionale e le Smart Cities ci siamo basati sulla nozione di gestione internazionale (Boddewyn, Toyne and Martinez, 2004), *adottando una prospettiva transnazionale considerando le minacce e le opportunità globali e locali. Di conseguenza, abbiamo considerato una categorizzazione proposta da Pisani* (Pisani, 2009; Pisani and Ricart, 2016; Pisani *et al.*, 2017), *ampiamente accettata della ricerca, sulla gestione internazionale. Questa categorizzazione rappresenta un framework ben organizzato per categorizzare articoli nel campo della ricerca manageriale internazionale ed è utilizzata in numerose ricerche sulle principali riviste internazionali* (Werner, 2002; Pisani *et al.*, 2017). *Va a considerare diversi elementi della gestione internazionale per un totale di dieci categorie che considerano diversi livelli come ad esempio l'ambiente aziendale globale, il trasferimento della conoscenza, l'internazionalizzazione, le modalità di ingresso, le reti strategiche e gli investimenti diretti esteri.*

La principale categoria di gestione internazionale osservata è "l'ambiente economico globale" (51% N = 21) che valuta l'economia globale, i mercati globali, l'ambiente politico e normativo ed il rischio internazionale (Pisani *et al.*, 2017) *e quindi rappresenta una delle aree più importanti per collegare la gestione internazionale e la governance della Smart City in un'ottica di sviluppo globale* (March and Ribera-Fumaz, 2016; Sancino and Hudson, 2020). *Le altre categorie esplorate sono "trasferimento della conoscenza" e "internazionalizzazione" che coprono rispettivamente il 22% (N = 9) e il 19% (N = 8) del nostro campione. In particolare, Stock* (2011) *analizza il ruolo della conoscenza informativa nell'era digitale, mentre Nicholds* (2017) *afferma che ci stiamo spostando verso economie orientate alla conoscenza dando la priorità a modalità di produzione e fornitura di servizi maggiormente abilitate digitalmente. Inoltre, l'internazionalizzazione rappresenta un elemento chiave della crescita e dello sviluppo del concetto di Smart City in un'ottica di competitività internazionale. Le città hanno iniziato a competere con altre nell'attrazione di capitali globali, utilizzando strategie di marketing internazionale per elevarsi a città dal forte impatto culturale, creativo o tecnologico imponendo la propria leadership a livello mondiale* (Hollands, 2015). *Il resto degli studi si basa sulle "decisione e modalità di ingresso" (5%) e su "alleanze e reti strategiche" (3%). Nessun articolo è stato raggruppato nelle altre categorie, sebbene queste prospettive possano essere rilevanti anche per la ricerca sulle città intelligenti. Ad esempio, lo scambio internazionale potrebbe essere un interessante campo di ricerca nella connessione tra le città e le strategie di promozione internazionale per le Smart Cities* (Nicholds *et al.*, 2017).

A conclusione di questo lavoro, il prossimo step sarà quello di identificare e sintetizzare gli articoli campionati al fine di mappare la connessione tra Smart Cities e la loro promozione a livello internazionale. Per fare questo, intendiamo adottare una logica "Antecedente-Fenomeno-Conseguenze" utilizzata anche in altre revisioni della letteratura (Dike and Rose, 2017; Pisani *et al.*, 2017). *L'utilizzo di questo metodo ci permetterà di analizzare sistematicamente gli studi campionati e mapparli metodicamente in modo da avere un quadro teorico completo sull'evoluzione e sullo sviluppo di questa relazione* (Pisani *et al.*, 2017).

Limiti della ricerca. *Questa ricerca, come qualsiasi altra revisione sistematica, soffre di alcuni limiti strutturali. In primo luogo, a causa della diversità e della natura multidisciplinare dell'argomento esaminato, in questo studio abbiamo privilegiato la lettura in chiave internazionale escludendo alcuni articoli validi ma che non rientravano nel concetto di sviluppo internazionale. In secondo luogo, l'utilizzo delle parole chiave nella formula di ricerca e l'uso di database specifici potrebbero aver comportato la mancanza di letteratura potenzialmente rilevante. Tuttavia, crediamo fermamente che le pubblicazioni identificate siano rappresentative dell'attuale corpus di letteratura esistente sull'argomento.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Il presente studio costituisce una panoramica utile nello sviluppo e nell'implementazione di strategie di promozione internazionale delle Smart Cities. Strategie che possono essere un motore di questa nuova ondata di cambiamento e nella ridefinizione del rapporto tra la città ed i suoi stakeholder sia a livello nazionale che internazionale* (Lee and Lee, 2014; Kitchin, 2015). *Per aumentate questa sinergia e spingere verso uno sviluppo sempre più rivolto all'apertura internazionale, i responsabili delle politiche ed i professionisti del settore devono migliorare il coordinamento tra i decisori politici ed i vari attori coinvolti utilizzando strumenti tecnologici ed innovativi sempre più presenti nelle Smart Cities* (Gagliardi *et al.*, 2017; Fortino *et al.*, 2018; Alruwaie, El-Haddadeh and Weerakkody, 2020). *Il quadro che emerge mostra sempre più una visione aziendalistica della città e come tale ha bisogno di essere sviluppata, supportata e promossa sia a livello locale che nel panorama internazionale* (Chatterjee and Kar, 2015)

Originalità del lavoro. *Negli ultimi decenni, abbiamo assistito ad una grande quantità di studi che hanno contribuito a una migliore comprensione del ruolo delle strategie di promozione delle Smart Cities su scala nazionale e internazionale. Tuttavia, questa evoluzione è ancora in una fase preliminare ed abbiamo bisogno di una comprensione più completa per migliorare sia la funzionalità che lo sviluppo di questo concetto. Questa revisione sistematica della letteratura mostra che, nonostante la grande attenzione di tecnici ed accademici verso le strategie di sviluppo ed il processo di promozione internazionale, c'è un notevole spazio per ulteriori ricerche su questo fenomeno. In particolare, con questa revisione della letteratura offriamo numerosi contributi teorici e pratici fornendo sia approfondimenti su ciò che è già stato studiato rispetto alle strategie di marketing internazionale delle Smart Cities sia fornendo una guida ed una mappa per la ricerca futura.*

Parole chiave: *Smart Cities, Smart City, Internazionalizzazione, Revisione sistematica della letteratura, Marketing, Città Intelligenti*

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Contesto istituzionale, donne e imprese familiari: una verifica empirica sull'Italia

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Obiettivi. *Il lavoro indaga l'influsso del contesto istituzionale sulla partecipazione delle donne nei consigli di amministrazione delle imprese familiari in Italia. Il contesto in cui gli individui e le organizzazioni agiscono è definito dalle istituzioni che creano "le regole del gioco" (North, 1990). Le istituzioni sono create con lo scopo di facilitare le transazioni economiche e accrescere l'efficacia stessa dei sistemi economici (North, 1990). Tuttavia, esiste una ulteriore interazione che si crea tra istituzioni informali (cultura, tradizioni, valori e credenze) e istituzioni formali e che contribuisce a creare altre regole accettate dal contesto. Un aspetto da cogliere con riferimento a questa parte di interazione è l'esistenza di un effetto di genere. Di conseguenza, il lavoro propone l'opportunità di assumere la prospettiva teorica della teoria istituzionale al fine di indagare la partecipazione delle donne nel contesto dell'impresa familiare. In letteratura, l'effetto di genere sulle istituzioni è riconosciuto soprattutto negli studi sull'imprenditorialità femminile (Aidis et al, 2007; Jennings e Brush, 2013). In particolare, gli studiosi hanno evidenziato che esistono restrizioni di genere che influenzano le donne ad avviare la propria attività e ad adottare strategie di espansione nei loro business (Aidis e Schillo et al., 2017). Tali restrizioni possono essere considerate il risultato di istituzioni informali, socialmente prescrittive ma non legalmente enunciate (North, 1991). Quindi, se da un lato, le istituzioni formali sono la parte visibile delle "regole del gioco" (di solito la legge costituzionale), c'è un altro lato della storia rappresentato dalla parte invisibile, ovvero dall'insieme di quelle "regole del gioco" basate sui comportamenti accettati dalla comunità e alimentati dalla storia, dalle tradizioni e dalle credenze. Le istituzioni informali (cioè ruoli di genere, credenze, norme e valori) creano, inoltre, stereotipi che possono influire sui comportamenti, talenti e abilità individuali (Rouse et al., 2013). A tal proposito, esiste una parte della letteratura che ha mostra quanto le "istituzioni stereotipate" finiscano per considerare le donne meno capaci degli uomini di svolgere una particolare funzione, come ad esempio quella di ricoprire ruoli di comando nelle imprese (Roomi et al., 2018).*

Dal punto di vista teorico, la teoria istituzionale introduce l'effetto genere con lo sviluppo della teoria della "congruità del ruolo di genere" (Eagly e Karau, 2002). La teoria della congruità dei ruoli mette in luce le norme informali di genere che ostacolano il percorso egualitario delle donne, in generale, all'interno della società e, in particolare, come imprenditori o in ruoli di comando all'interno del consiglio di amministrazione (Eagly e Karau, 2002). In questo articolo, consideriamo la teoria della congruità del ruolo di genere nel contesto specifico delle imprese familiari. Si ritiene che il contesto delle imprese familiari, subendo l'influsso delle istituzioni formali e informali, produca ulteriori ostacoli per la presenza delle donne nei consigli di amministrazione. Ispirandosi alla teoria del ruolo sociale, la teoria della congruità del ruolo di genere pone l'accento su due tipi di norme istituzionali informali: norme descrittive e norme ingiuntive (Eagly e Karau, 2002). Le norme descrittive sono riferite agli stereotipi di genere; le norme ingiuntive creano stereotipi prescrittivi o ideologia di genere. Entrambe potrebbero ridurre la presenza di donne nella proprietà o nella gestione a causa del conflitto che si crea tra lavoro e famiglia (Vera & Dean, 2005). Nello specifico, in un contesto familiare alle donne può essere richieste in modo prescrittivo il prendersi cura della famiglia e quindi a loro è riservato un ruolo marginale nell'impresa (Cadieux et al., 2002). E' il modo in cui nell'impresa familiare si tutela il ruolo primario di cura della famiglia a scapito della presenza della donna in azienda. Inoltre, la teoria della congruità dei ruoli dei ruoli di genere crea un pregiudizio nei confronti delle donne leader che assume due forme. La prima è una valutazione meno favorevole del potenziale di leadership delle donne (rispetto agli uomini) perché la capacità di leadership è più riconducibile all'uomo. La seconda è una valutazione meno favorevole dell'effettivo comportamento di leadership delle donne perché si ritiene che le donne desiderino meno degli uomini assumere tale ruolo. Entrambi questi pregiudizi sono, a nostro avviso, un impedimento alla presenza (il primo pregiudizio) e all'azione (il secondo pregiudizio) delle donne all'interno dell'impresa familiare soprattutto in quei contesti che non sono egualitari nella valutazione tra uomo e donna (es. contesti patriarcali).

Metodologia. *Il campione di riferimento, rilevato in modo casuale, risulta composto da 3.756 imprese italiane, familiari e non familiari. I dati utilizzati per la costruzione delle variabili, aggiornati al 2018, sono stati reperiti da tre diversi database. Le informazioni relative all'anagrafica delle imprese (i.e. nome società, anno fondazione, membri del*

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CdA, quote di proprietà, dipendenti), quelle di tipo economico-finanziario e commerciale (i.e. reddittività, vincoli finanziari) provengono dalla banca dati AIDA (Analisi Informatizzata delle Aziende Italiane) di Bureau Van Dijk e quelle relative alla capacità innovativa (i.e. numero di brevetti) da Espacenet.

Tab. 1: Descrizione e fonte delle variabili impiegate nell'analisi empirica

Variabile	Definizione	Fonte
Variabili di impresa familiare e contesto istituzionale		
Proprietà Familiare	*Variabile dummy uguale a 1 se l'impresa non è quotata e la proprietà familiare supera la soglia del 50% o se l'impresa è quotata e la proprietà familiare supera il 20%, 0 altrimenti.*	*AIDA*
Esponenti Familiari	*Numero di esponenti familiari sul totale dei facenti parte del CdA.*	*AIDA*
CEO Familiare	*Dummy che assume valore 1 se il CEO è un membro della famiglia, 0 altrimenti*	*AIDA*
Successore	*Variabile dummy uguale a 1 se nella gestione dell'impresa è coinvolto almeno un giovane successore, sia esso uomo o donna, 0 altrimenti.*	*AIDA*
Contesto istituzionale	*Variabile dummy che indica la localizzazione geografica per regione delle sedi in Italia*	*AIDA*
Variabili di genere		
Esponenti Donne	*Numero di donne facenti parte del CdA sul totale dei componenti del CdA*	*AIDA*
CEO Donna	*Dummy che assume valore 1 se la CEO è donna, 0 altrimenti*	*AIDA*
Esponenti Donne di Famiglia	*Numero di donne della famiglia facenti parte del CdA sul totale dei componenti del CdA*	*AIDA*
CEO Donna di famiglia	*Dummy che assume valore 1 se la CEO è donna della famiglia, 0 altrimenti*	*AIDA*
Successore Donna	*Dummy che assume valore 1 se nel CdA è presente almeno un successore donna della famiglia, 0 altrimenti*	*AIDA*
Variabili di controllo		
Dimensione	*Fatturato dalle vendite in migliaia di euro*	*AIDA*
Quotata	*Variabile dummy uguale a 1 se l'impresa è quotata in borsa italiana, 0 altrimenti.*	*BORSA ITALIANA*
Età	*Età dell'impresa.*	*AIDA*
Settori	*Variabile dummy uguale a 1 se l'impresa opera in un determinato settore: supplier dominated. scale intensive, specialised supplier e science based, 0 altrimenti.*	*AIDA*
Redditività	*Redditività del capitale proprio, misurato come il rapporto tra utile netto e Patrimonio Netto*	*AIDA*
Rendimento	*Misura di rendimento calcolata come il rapporto tra fatturato e costo del lavoro*	*AIDA*
Vincoli Finanziari	*Indice di liquidità, calcolato come rapporto tra l'attivo circolante diminuito delle rimanenze di magazzino e i debiti a breve.*	*AIDA*
Innovazione	*Numero di brevetti depositati presso EPO*	*ESPACENET*

Le variabili oggetto di analisi si suddividono in tre gruppi: quelle volte a caratterizzare la natura dell'impresa familiare o non familiare e del contesto istituzionale (i.e. variabili di impresa familiare e contesto istituzionale); quelle atte a rappresentare il contributo femminile nell'impresa, sia essa familiare o non familiare (i.e. variabili di genere); quelle volte a caratterizzare l'impresa (i.e. variabili di controllo).

Nel primo gruppo di variabili riconduciamo la tipologia proprietaria e l'assetto manageriale che contraddistinguono le imprese in questione e il contesto istituzionale. La letteratura accademica in materia di family business afferma come la prima caratteristica eserciti un'influenza significativa sulle scelte strategiche intraprese (George, Wiklund, Zahra, 2005). È introdotta quindi la variabile Proprietà Familiare¸ una dummy uguale a 1 se l'impresa non è quotata e la proprietà familiare supera la soglia del 50% oppure se essa è quotata è la percentuale in possesso alla famiglia è superiore al 20%, altrimenti pari a 0. A completamento della descrizione di impresa familiare sono introdotte le variabili Esponenti Familiari, CEO Familiare e Successore per la cui definizione puntuale si rimanda alla Tabella 1. Il contesto istituzionale è identificato da variabili dummy che assumono valore 1 in base alla collocazione geografica dell'impresa.

Nel secondo gruppo, quello delle variabili di genere, vi è una variabile (Esponenti Donne) atta a rappresentare la composizione di genere femminile all'interno del CdA, al fine di verificare gli effetti dell'incremento di donne in ruoli decisionali e una dummy che identifica l'esistenza di un CEO Donna (CEO Donna). Entrambe le variabili sono quindi calcolate anche in riferimento alla presenza delle sole donne di famiglia. Si rilevano quindi una variabile atta a rappresentare la composizione di genere femminile di famiglia all'interno del CdA (Esponenti Donne di Famiglia), e una dummy che identifica l'esistenza di un CEO Donna di famiglia e della presenza di un successore donna (CEO Donna di Famiglia e Successore Donna).

Nel terzo gruppo sono state incluse, tra le altre, variabili in grado di approssimare la dimensione. Queste vengono rappresentate attraverso tre proxy: il fatturato (Fatturato) e la quotazione in borsa (Quotata).

Per rappresentare la capacità manageriale ed organizzativa dell'impresa (Dunning e Lundan, 2008) nonché l'esperienza posseduta delle imprese è stata inserita una variabile relativa agli anni trascorsi dal momento della fondazione dell'impresa stessa (Età). Tenuto conto del considerevole impatto che l'industria di riferimento può apportare nelle imprese, si è ritenuto necessario inserire una variabile che indicasse il settore di appartenenza *dell'impresa (Settore). A tale proposito si è scelto di adottare la tassonomia di Pavitt (Pavitt, 1984), una classificazione dei settori merceologici compiuta sulla base delle fonti e della natura delle opportunità tecnologiche, delle innovazioni, dell'intensità di R&S e della tipologia dei flussi di conoscenza. Pavitt individua quattro grandi raggruppamenti settoriali: supplier dominated (e.g. tessile, calzature, alimentari e bevande, carta e stampa, legname), scale intensive (e.g. metalli di base, autoveicoli e motori), specialised suppliers (e.g. macchine agricole e industriali, macchine per ufficio, strumenti ottici, medici e di precisione) e science based (e.g. chimica, farmaceutica, elettronica). Ai fini statistici sono state inserite le rispettive dummy che assumono valore 1 quando l'impresa si trova nel settore in questione, 0 diversamente.*

Per descrivere i risultati delle imprese si è scelto di utilizzare la redditività (Redditività) e il profitto per dipendente (Rendimento). Un ulteriore aspetto da tenere in considerazione sono le restrizioni finanziarie cui le realtà imprenditoriali sono sottoposte e che necessariamente comportano un'influenza sulle possibilità di crescita e performance, sebbene in letteratura siano emersi risultati contrastanti (Becchetti e Trovato, 2002; Wiklund, Patzelt and Shepherd, 2007). Per questo motivo si inserisce una variabile che vada a misurare proprio questo aspetto tramite l'indice di liquidità (Vincoli Finanziari), calcolato come rapporto tra attività correnti (al netto delle scorte in magazzino) e passività correnti. E' infine inclusa una variabile in grado di rilevare la capacità innovatitiva delle imprese ed è misurata tramite il numero di brevetti depositati (Innovazione).

Le variabili utilizzate per l'analisi vengono elencate e descritte nella Tabella 1, con indicazione della fonte da cui sono stati reperiti i dati.

Data la natura della variabile dipendente (i.e. numero di donne nel board), il modello proposto è un Count Data Model.

Risultati. *Il 70% delle imprese del nostro campione sono imprese familiari e nel 32% dei casi sono soggette a un passaggio generazionale in atto. I risultati confermano le ipotesi di base del nostro lavoro con una generale prevalenza di percentuali di donne nel CdA delle imprese familiari pari a circa il 18% contro circa il 14% delle non familiari. In aggiunta, nel 40% dei casi di imprese familiari è presente almeno una donna nel board contro il 36% delle imprese non familiari. Con riferimento alle donne che ricoprono il ruolo di CEO, si registra una presenza percentuale di donne più alta nelle imprese familiari, pari a più del 9%.*

Questi dati confermano la maggiore facilità per le donne a ricoprire posizioni di vertice nelle imprese familiari. Una possibile spiegazione deriva dal fatto che all'interno di queste realtà il processo di selezione dei componenti dell'organo decisionale segue dinamiche diverse rispetto alle altre imprese. Si ritiene che la presenza delle donne sia giustificata dall'esigenza di favorire nelle posizioni di comando figure appartenenti alla famiglia. Tuttavia, la maggiore presenza non è da collegare direttamente a un ruolo attivo. La famiglia, infatti potrebbe essere semplicemente mossa alla maggiore inclusione dalla sola volontà di avere rappresentanti della famiglia. In letteratura questo aspetto è descritto con la casistica delle donne invisibili poiché presenti ma non ascoltate. Nello specifico, i dati confermano che le donne dell'impresa di famiglia assumono spesso ruoli informali, riconducibili alle regole informali di un dato contesto. La creazione degli stereotipi finisce per considerare gli uomini e le donne più adatti a certi ruoli piuttosto che ad altri. Nei contesti patriarcali, quali quello italiano, le donne sono considerate le uniche incaricate della cura della famiglia, con la sottile richiesta a rinunciare alle loro carriere lavorative, o comunque obbligate a scegliere tra le due. Questo spiegherebbe l'esclusione delle donne dalla presenza nei board soprattutto delle imprese di famiglia dovuto a un insieme di stereotipi ascrivibili alla riluttanza, da parte delle stesse, a sacrificare la famiglia, nella quale il ruolo femminile risulta sicuramente centrale. Pertanto, in questi contesti istituzionali, l'impresa di famiglia rappresenta, più un vincolo che un'opportunità per la donna in quanto considerata come "meno legittimata" rispetto ai maschi a gestire il business. Sulla base di tale idea di fondo, le donne della famiglia non pianificano una vera e propria carriera all'interno dell'impresa, ma vi partecipano in caso di crisi o bisogno. I nostri dati presentano una correlazione positiva tra dimensione dell'impresa e presenza delle donne. Nello specifico, si registra una maggiore presenza delle donne in ruoli decisionali nelle imprese di grandi dimensioni. Un'ulteriore riflessione riguarda le imprese quotate in borsa. L'obbligo dettato dalla legge Golfo-Mosca approvata a fine 2011 impone alle società quotate di riservare al genere meno rappresentato almeno un terzo dei posti negli organi di governo. Coerentemente nel nostro campione, oltre il 25% delle imprese con donne, è quotato in Borsa, indipendentemente che siano familiari o meno. Altro aspetto verificato nella nostra indagine empirica è quello relativo alla massa critica. La letteratura ci indica che la maggiore efficacia della presenza femminile è data dall'aumentare del numero di donne ad almeno (Erkut et al., 2008). Dalle analisi emerge, ancora una volta, come la presenza di almeno una donna nel board (i.e. token) sia significativamente maggiore nelle imprese familiari. Per contro però la massa critica, cioè la presenza di almeno tre donne nel board, è sostanzialmente simile nei due casi. Andando infine ad analizzare la correlazione tra la composizione femminile del board e i principali indicatori di performance, emerge come ad un aumento della percentuale di donne nel CdA corrisponde un aumento più marcato della redditività nelle imprese familiari rispetto alle non familiari. I valori degli indici di redditività e rendimento avvallano il filone di letteratura e studi che vedono la presenza femminile ai vertici dell'impresa come un beneficio che rende più redditizie le imprese. Infine, anche la performance finanziaria sembra essere sensibilmente migliore nelle imprese di famiglia dove sono presenti le donne nel gruppo di comando: la liquidità risulta superiore così come l'indipendenza finanziaria.

Limiti della ricerca. *In questo lavoro abbiamo studiato l'effetto del contesto istituzionale sulla presenza delle donne nei consigli di amministrazione delle imprese familiari. Da un punto di vista teorico, abbiamo utilizzato le lenti della teoria istituzionale per costruire le nostre ipotesi. Da un punto di vista empirico, abbiamo testato le nostre ipotesi su un campione di 3.756 imprese italiane, familiari e non familiari. I nostri risultati supportano l'idea che il rapporto* *tra contesto istituzionale influisce sulla presenza delle donne di famiglia nel Consiglio. In particolare, date le barriere sociali che le donne familiari devono affrontare nei consigli di amministrazione, devono raggiungere una massa critica e / o ricoprire posizioni di potere per essere influenti. Solo al raggiungimento di una massa critica perdono la loro condizione di invisibilità.*

L'invisibilità della donna è un fenomeno ben noto in letteratura: le donne sono raramente considerate come candidate alla gestione per la successione alla guida dell'impresa. Tuttavia, nelle imprese familiari, la presenza delle donne nei consigli di amministrazione e nelle posizioni di controllo (presidente o vicepresidente del CdA) è maggiore rispetto alle imprese non familiari; questa può essere una scelta obbligatoria per mancanza di successori maschi o per una crisi che incombe (Curimbaba, 2002; Dumas, 1992, 1998; Haberman e Danes, 2007). I nostri risultati confermano l'idea che il contesto istituzionale è alla base della creazione di un pregiudizio nei confronti delle donne presente sia nelle imprese familiari sia nelle imprese non familiari. Il lavoro non è scevro da limitazioni. Innanzitutto, il campione seppur quantitativamente rilevante resta limitato alle sole imprese italiane. Lo stesso studio può essere replicato in paesi caratterizzati da contesti istituzionali e socio-culturali differenti e potrebbe fornire risultati differenti. Nello specifico, una cultura più incline alla figura femminile nei ruoli di leadership può influenzare il contributo dato dalle donne alle imprese. Altro aspetto che meriterebbe di essere approfondito è lo studio delle condizioni della famiglia nel tempo che portano alle scelte di inclusione delle donne (D'Allura, 2019a).

Implicazioni pratiche. *I risultati del nostro lavoro hanno implicazioni sia per le imprese che di policy. La nostra indagine mira produrre evidenze empiriche utili ai proprietari e ai manager delle imprese familiari in merito all'inclusione delle donne nel consiglio di amministrazione. Riteniamo che una maggiore comprensione del ruolo delle donne di famiglia nel consiglio di amministrazione contribuire a rimuovere il pregiudizio delle competenze e abilità delle donne e ad aumentare il numero di donne in questi ruoli importanti. Proprietari e manager attraverso i risultati della nostra indagine empirica possono apprezzare quanto la diversità di genere nel consiglio di amministrazione, in generale, e la presenza femminile, in particolare, abbiano un impatto positivo sulla strategia di impresa, quali l'innovazione e l'internazionalizzazione. In questa direzione, auspichiamo che i nostri risultati ispirino un nuovo percorso per le donne all'interno dell'impresa familiare, con un aumento del numero di donne in ruoli importanti. Sono ancora necessarie ulteriori ricerche per migliorare la comprensione della relazione tra la diversità di genere nel consiglio di amministrazione e le strategie di impresa, ma la strada sembra ormai essere aperta (Bannò e D'Allura, 2018; Gallucci et al., 2015; Campopiano et al., 2017) Per quanto riguarda gli aspetti di policy le indicazioni che emergono suggeriscono di pensare a strumenti atti a considerare in modo specifico le imprese familiari. Esistono e sono implementate azioni positive ormai da oltre dieci anni, ma ad oggi nessuna tiene in considerazione la peculiarità del contesto familiare.*

Originalità del lavoro. *Questo lavoro si propone di contribuire sia a livello teorico che empirico all'avanzamento della conoscenza ai temi di equalità, diversità e inclusività delle donne nelle imprese, con specifico riferimento ai ruoli di comando nelle imprese familiari. Si tratta del primo lavoro che analizza il pregiudizio nei confronti delle donne di famiglia spiegato dal contesto istituzionale. Un approccio originale volto a spiegare la presenza delle donne nel board adottando il punto di vista istituzionale sul rapporto tra famiglia e impresa (D'Allura, 2019b). La letteratura ha di recente iniziato a valutare quanto e come la presenza delle imprese familiari influisce sul contesto istituzionale in cui esse operano. Seguendo D'Allura, 2019b si ritiene che, adottando una prospettiva istituzionale, l'impresa familiare rappresenta un punto di vista privilegiato di osservazione per quanto attiene alla relazione impresa-contesto istituzionale poiché in essa convivono due istituzioni che evolvono sotto l'influsso dello stesso contesto istituzionale: la famiglia e l'impresa. Coerentemente, il lavoro punta ad analizzare il caso unico e specifico del pregiudizio delle donne di famiglia come proxy per analizzarne la presenza nei ruoli decisionali. Nelle imprese familiari, la presenza delle donne dovrebbe essere solida a causa della successione, delle nuove generazioni (con la presenza di figlie) o matrimoni che coinvolgono terze parti. Tuttavia, il contesto istituzionale interno definito dalla famiglia può fornire, grazie all'applicazione originale della teoria della congruità dei ruoli di genere, ulteriori elementi di interpretazione della relazione tra contesto istituzionale, donne e imprese di famiglia.*

Parole chiave: *famiglia; donne; impresa familiare; contesto istituzionale; consiglio di amministrazione; board*

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Il Sustainable Supply Chain Management in letteratura: un approccio settoriale

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Obiettivi. *Il presente articolo propone un'analisi sistematica della letteratura incentrata sul tema dei modelli di gestione della sostenibilità, con particolare attenzione all'evoluzione nei diversi settori.*

L'approccio proposto, sviluppato a partire dai contributi pubblicati nel decennio 2010-2020, consente una visione evolutiva delle problematiche riconducibili al Sustainable Supply Chain Management (di seguito, SSCM), che appaiono sempre più rilevanti e tanto sia in ambito scientifico che in quello manageriale. La focalizzazione su questo arco temporale consente di disporre di una panoramica privilegiata rispetto ad un ampio spettro di tematiche studiate in letteratura proprio a partire dal 2010.

In questi stessi anni, il Green Supply Chain Management (di seguito, GrSCM) - paradigma alternativo prevalentemente incentrato sulla sostenibilità ambientale sviluppato a partire dai primi anni '90 - raggiunge la sua piena maturità (Fahimnia et al., 2015), ma, contrariamente alle attese di diversi studiosi (Seuring e Muller, 2008; Ashby et al., 2012), che ritenevano potesse essere sostituito dall'approccio emergente della SSCM, rimane uno dei capisaldi proposti dalla letteratura in tema di sostenibilità.

Il confronto tra i modelli appare pertanto interessante soprattutto in considerazione della longevità dimostrata dal primo. Sebbene il SSCM sia, di fatto, l'ambito di ricerca che ha caratterizzato l'ultimo decennio, il GrSCM rimane ampiamente considerato sia in ambito di ricerca scientifica che di pratica manageriale. Se è vero che il SSCM ha come obiettivo principale l'integrazione delle tre dimensioni di sostenibilità nella progettualità e nella gestione di modelli di business sostenibili (Ahi e Searcy, 2013), non sono pochi, ad esempio, gli autori che propongono quale alternativa un paradigma GrSCM esteso fondato anche alcuni aspetti e fattori di ambito sociale (Singh e Trivedi, 2015).

Entrambi i modelli, inoltre, hanno dimostrato un'influenza notevole non solo sulla singola impresa o filiera, quanto sulla società nel suo complesso. Numerosi studi hanno evidenziato l'impatto dei modelli di sostenibilità sulla consapevolezza dei consumatori (Sheth et al., 2011; Beske, Land e Seuring, 2014), degli imprenditori (De Giovanni e Vinzi, 2012; Hoejmose et al., 2012) e degli organismi nazionali e sovranazionali (Wolf, 2014; Vie et al., 2019).

L'ampiezza del tema, le numerose direzioni di ricerca affrontate, la presenza di un approccio "alternativo", seppur affine, quale il GrSCM, e il contributo apportato dalle diverse discipline suggeriscono la necessità di una classificazione rigorosa della letteratura, che faciliti l'individuazione di future opportunità di studio. A questo fine, si è scelto di adottare il processo di ricerca, selezione e codifica proposto da Rajeev et al. (2017), che include la riconducibilità di ciascun articolo al contesto-Paese e al mercato di riferimento, nonché al paradigma TBL (Elkington, 1994) quale framework consolidato e omnicomprensivo (Engert e Baumgartner, 2016). I tre pilastri - economico, ambientale e sociale - costituiscono infatti, da un lato, le fondamenta teoretiche di entrambi gli approcci GrSCM e SSCM, e, dall'altro, una base oggettiva di confronto per poter valutare domande e direzioni di ricerca.

Si evidenzia, inoltre, come la letteratura metta in luce un'ampia varietà di contributi, accomunati da alcune tendenze emergenti nel periodo di riferimento (2010-2020). Una di queste, ormai ampiamente esplorata, è legata al ruolo del contesto-Paese in cui gli studi vengono condotti e, in particolare, al suo grado di sviluppo economico. Sono stati, infatti, pubblicati studi che fanno esplicito riferimento a economie avanzate, in via di sviluppo o sottosviluppate (Fritz e Silva, 2018; Jia et al., 2018), oppure che propongono confronti tra le stesse (Rajeev et al, 2017; Wang et al., 2019). Il tema delle peculiarità legate alle diverse legislazioni o culture è stato ulteriormente arricchito negli ultimi anni (2017-2020) dall'analisi delle imprese multinazionali e delle filiere globali (Koksal et al., 2018; Koberg e Longoni, 2019).

Contestualmente, si moltiplicano gli studi incentrati sull'analisi dei singoli settori industriali e sulla loro graduale adozione delle pratiche di sostenibilità (e.g. Gold et al., 2017, sull'agroalimentare; Shoggl et al., 2016, sui comparti automotive ed elettronico; Sauer e Seuring, 2017, sull'industria delle risorse minerarie; Bromer et a.l, 2019, sulle imprese chimiche).

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A nostro parere, lo studio dei diversi contesti industriali e produttivi ha pari dignità rispetto all'analisi dei contesti economico-sociali, e può anzi costituirne una valida integrazione. Il legislatore, infatti, nel predisporre incentivi e strumenti di governance, monitoraggio e controllo, deve tenere conto anche delle peculiarità manifestate dalla singola filiera produttiva, soprattutto se questa è rilevante nell'ambito del sistema economico nazionale. Allo stesso modo, è innegabile che queste stesse informazioni guidino le azioni intraprese dagli stessi attori che operano all'interno della filiera. È sufficiente pensare all'affermazione del Socially Responsible Buying (SRB), in cui il processo di acquisto diventa un driver fondamentale nel regolare e monitorare il conseguimento degli obiettivi di responsabilità sociale. L'azienda che riveste il ruolo di acquirente lungo la filiera si trova, infatti, a dover selezionare i propri fornitori, promuovere le best practices di sostenibilità presso di loro nonché ~~a~~ monitorarne ed eventualmente ~~a~~ sanzionarne il comportamento (Maignan, Hillebrand e McAlister, 2002). A questo proposito citiamo, a titolo di esempio, il settore agroalimentare, nel quale, oltre ai più generici obiettivi di sostenibilità e interessi perseguiti dai principali stakeholder, si aggiungono problematiche specifiche quali il benessere degli animali all'interno della filiera e il mantenimento della genuinità degli alimenti e delle loro proprietà organolettiche (Van der Vorst e Beulen, 2002; Maloni e Brown, 2006).

Alla luce dell'analisi della letteratura prodotta, ad oggi, pochi studi hanno effettuato confronti diretti tra settori ed attività diverse, con l'obiettivo di individuare le eventuali specificità ~~la~~ gestione sostenibile delle ~~a~~ filiere produttive e delle catene di fornitura, prospettiva sicuramente utile se si considera la già richiamata proiezione internazionale di queste ultime.

Lo studio intende, pertanto, perseguire i seguenti obiettivi:

1. Analizzare l'evoluzione della letteratura in tema di SSCM sviluppatasi tra il 2010 e il 2020, con l'obiettivo di individuare le principali distintività rispetto al paradigma GrSCM.
2. Identificare la presenza di eventuali differenze riconducibili al contesto settoriale (o spaziale) ai quali gli studi fanno riferimento nella prospettiva di verificare la presenza di determinate specificità e di valutare il grado di maturità nell'applicazione dell'approccio sostenibile.

Metodologia. Si è scelto di adottare il processo di ricerca e selezione dei contributi proposto da Rajeev et al. (2017) e Seuring e Müller (2008). Si tratta di una procedura sequenziale articolata per fasi, che permette di selezionare i contributi più rilevanti rispetto agli obiettivi del lavoro, a fronte di un corpus letterario estremamente ampio e multidisciplinare.

La fase di ricerca è stata effettuata sui database SCOPUS e WebOfScience, entrambi tanto diffusi quanto affermati (Harzing e Alakangas, 2016), nei campi dedicati al titolo, all'abstract e alle keywords, utilizzando le seguenti parole chiave: "sustainable supply chain management", "green supply chain management", "green purchasing", "green marketing", "green design", "green logistics", "reverse logistics", "closed loop supply chain", "environmental purchasing", "green manufacturing", "green supplier selection", "environmental supplier selection", "sustainable supplier selection".

L'universo campionario individuato grazie all'utilizzo congiunto dei database consiste di oltre 2.000 articoli nel solo periodo 2010-2020; questa scelta temporale è riconducibile alla convenzione secondo la quale il SSCM si afferma come ambito di ricerca riconosciuto a partire dal 2010 (Ahi e Searcy, 2013).

Si è successivamente proceduto ad una prima selezione, escludendo i working papers, i conference proceedings e i contributi di grey literature, e gli articoli in lingue diverse dall'inglese. Il dataset così composto include 1.502 articoli pubblicati in riviste accademiche peer-reviewed; questa fase ha, inoltre, portato all'armonizzazione interna dei dati raccolti, al fine di procedere con la selezione tematica ai fini dell'analisi.

In secondo luogo, data la multidisciplinarietà delle tematiche e delle prospettive adottate dagli autori, si è provveduto ad eliminare gli articoli non pertinenti e non orientati al contesto manageriale. A titolo di esempio, citiamo i contributi delle discipline ingegneristiche volti alla progettazione di tecnologie sostenibili, o lo studio di pratiche di sustainable investing. Questa seconda selezione, di taglio qualitativo, ha consentito di individuare 1.027 articoli incentrati sulla sostenibilità economica, ambientale e/o sociale applicata al contesto delle supply chain o a singole fasi del processo.

La terza, ed ultima, fase di selezione è stata effettuata su base reputazionale, individuando le riviste appartenenti alla categoria A o B secondo il ranking ABDC/ABS e attraverso i ranking H-index e SCImago ove necessario.

Il database finale, sul quale è stata effettuata la successiva analisi e codifica, include un totale di 858 articoli così individuati.

La codifica è stata effettuata con il supporto del software di analisi qualitativa MAXQDA Analytics, che ha facilitato la classificazione dei paper e le successive analisi longitudinali.

In particolare, ogni articolo è stato codificato secondo le seguenti dimensioni:

a. Anno di pubblicazione: 2010-2020;
b. Metodologia utilizzata: studio concettuale, literature review, survey o analisi quantitativa dei dati secondari, case study, sviluppo di modelli matematici, mixed method study;
c. Paese di applicazione dello studio: individuazione della macro-area geografica in cui è stato sviluppato lo studio (i.e. Europa, America Latina, USA, etc.). Si è provveduto a segnalare esplicitamente i confronti tra Paesi o aree geografiche (come nel caso delle filiere globali) e sono stati isolati i lavori, teorici o empirici, che non hanno indicato il Paese di riferimento poiché non influente ai fini della ricerca;
d. Industria, settore, mercato o comparto di riferimento: Sono stati individuati i seguenti ambiti, coerentemente con i Global Industry Classification Standards - GICS (Hassini et al., 2012): agroalimentare, automotive, chimico, elettronica, fashion e lusso, food & grocery retail, governativo-ONG, healthcare e farmaceutico, hospitality,

housing e costruzioni, minerario e produzione di materiali, trasporti e logistica, utilities e comunicazioni. Si segnala, con il codice "multiple industries", la presenza di studi che utilizzano dati provenienti da imprese operanti in settori diversi e con "other theoretical" gli studi non empirici che non si focalizzano sul settore di appartenenza.

e. *Tematiche affrontate secondo il TBL: Le domande di ricerca e gli obiettivi degli studi sono stati riclassificati secondo i tre pilastri dell'approccio TBL (Environmental, Social, Economic) e loro possibili combinazioni (Socio-Economic; Socio-Environmental; Environmental & Economic - corrispondente al modello GrSCM - ed Environmental, Economic & Social - corrispondente al modello SSCM).*

Risultati emergenti. *I primi risultati ottenuti sembrano confermare che la sostenibilità ambientale rimane la tematica centrale dell'ultimo decennio: non a caso 402 articoli sono dedicati al GrSCM, mentre 292 al SSCM. Quest'ultimo filone di analisi, in particolare, mostra un reale incremento nelle pubblicazioni solo a partire dal 2016.*

La tematica sociale appare ancora in relativo sviluppo e c'è da attendersi un maggiore concorso da parte dei diversi gruppi di ricerca nel prossimo futuro, alla definizione puntuale di obiettivi e di indicatori di misurazione della sostenibilità sociale attraverso metodologie quantitative, (Winter et al., 2013; Ecer e Pamucar, 2020) nonché sulla conciliazione con la dimensione ambientale (Mitra, 2014). Fornire un contributo informativo su questi aspetti sarà essenziale anche ai fini di una maggiore affermazione del paradigma SSCM stesso.

Per quanto riguarda l'analisi settoriale, in Tabella 1 è riportata la distribuzione dei paper secondo i due modelli in precedenza richiamati.

Tab. 1: Classificazione degli studi per settore industriale di appartenenza

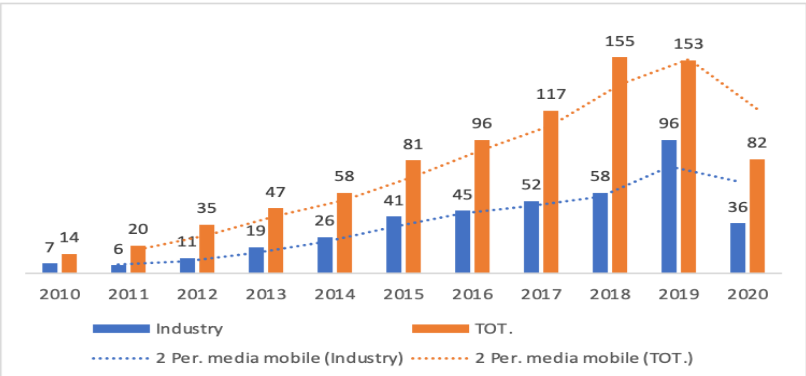
	SCM	**SSCM**	**TOT.**
Agrifood-wine	31	21	52
Automotive	41	11	52
Materials-mining	29	19	48
Transport-logistics	28	12	40
Electronics	29	9	38
Luxury-fashion-textile	20	17	37
Chemical	9	8	17
Food retail	7	8	15
Government-NGO	7	4	11
Utilities-communications	8	3	11
Hospitality-tourism	5	5	10
Housing-constructions	7	1	8
Healthcare-pharmaceutical	4	2	6
Multiple industries	177	69	246
Other theoretical	164	103	267
	566	*291*	*858*

Fonte: nostra elaborazione

È possibile notare come il settore predominante per numero di studi sia quello agroalimentare, che si estende ulteriormente se si considera il food retail come parte del Food System. Seguono il comparto automotive, in cui sono presenti sia contributi riconducibili all'area Indiana, sia ai Paesi dell'area Centro europea, il comparto legato alle estrazioni minerarie, e la gestione della logistica e dei trasporti.

A livello cumulativo, si conferma un incremento degli studi specificamente rivolti a un'industria e alle sue esigenze e problematiche in tema di sostenibilità, come evidenziato in Figura 1. Questo dato emerge anche dalle literature review: su 94 paper individuati tra il 2010 e il 2020, 12 sono dedicati all'approfondimento di specifici settori, ciò che segnal~~a~~ la presenza di un solido corpus di studi specifici.

Fig. 1: Evoluzione degli studi dedicati ad un'industria sul totale degli studi (2010-2020)



Fonte: nostra elaborazione

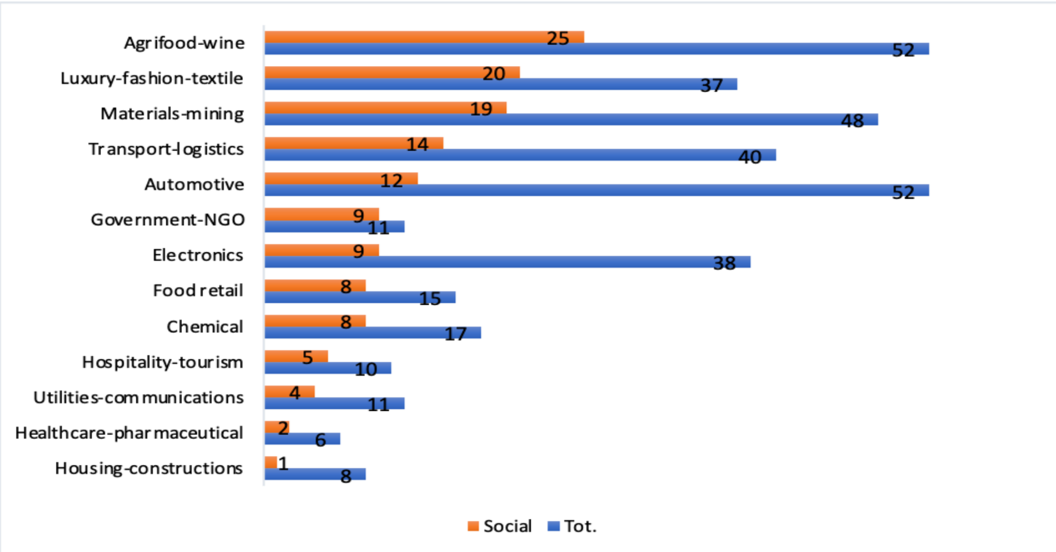
Attualmente lo studio è ancora in fase di svolgimento e, in particolare, si intende proporre un'analisi specifica circa le tematiche principali ed innovative dai diversi studi, per poter così realizzare comparazioni tra le diverse industrie considerate.

Al fine di sistematizzare la presente ricerca, si intende operare un secondo livello di codifica, per accorpare i settori individuati sulla base di due criteri: se si tratta di mercati BtoB o BtoC. In questo ultimo caso, si è deciso di ulteriormente suddividere il campione in ragione alle tipologie di beni trattati nelle filiere ovvero se si tratta di shopping goods oppure di prodotti di largo consumo.

Infine, si sta valutando, in ragione della menzionata difficoltà di circoscrizione delle problematiche sociali, di proporre uno stato dell'arte relativo al pilastro della sostenibilità sociale attraverso i vari settori. A questo proposito, è stata effettuata un'analisi preliminare a partire dal database individuato, accorpando i paper riconducibili alla dimensione sociale del TBL (incentrati sulla tematica sociale, socio-economica, socio-ambientale, oppure invece più strettamente riconducibili al modello SSCM). Su 359 paper "social-oriented", 136 sono riferiti a specifici settori industriali (si veda ripartizione come da Figura 2), 98 sono riferiti ad una pluralità di settori, mentre 125 sono lavori di stampo teorico.

Appare utile constatare come, se si considera lo sviluppo del tema sociale, l'agroalimentare rimane il settore dominante, mentre emergono nuovi settori che mostrano un interesse in materia. A titolo di esempio, citiamo il settore abbigliamento - che affronta l'emergente tema del sustainable luxury e, per il fast fashion, la gestione di filiere globali in cui la produzione è delocalizzata e affidata ad imprese terze. Interessante anche la presenza di una serie di studi dedicati ad approfondire il ruolo degli apparati governativi e delle ONG nella diffusione della sostenibilità sociale: Stekelorum et al. (2020), propongono, ad esempio, un nuovo ruolo delle ONG quali controllori dei fornitori localizzati nei paesi esteri e delle loro pratiche di CSR. La numerosità dei paper "social-oriented" rispetto al totale, come verificato, ci permetterebbe pertanto di effettuare un approfondimento applicando una metodologia di content analysis, sul modello di Seuring e Gold (2012).

Fig. 2: Numero di studi incentrati su tematiche sociali, sul totale degli studi per ciascun settore industriale



Fonte: nostra elaborazione

Limiti della ricerca. Poiché *lo studio è ancora in corso, il principale limite del presente lavoro è riconducibile all'assenza di riscontri solidi e misurati.*

Un secondo limite può essere ricondotto alla metodologia adottata nella selezione della letteratura incentrata unicamente sulle sole pubblicazioni in inglese presenti all'interno dei top ranked journals. In questo senso ampliare ad un maggior numero di contributi potrebbe permettere di individuare situazioni e problematiche specifiche che fanno riferimento a contesti nazionali o locali, oppure a settori o distretti specifici.

Implicazioni pratiche. *La proposta di un framework identificativo che inquadri lo stato dell'arte della ricerca in ambito SSCM risponde all'esigenza di classificare e interpretare la letteratura esistente con l'obiettivo di offrire a ricercatori, manager e policy maker - ai quali è demandato il compito di traghettare la società e le imprese in un mondo decisamente più sostenibile - un contributo conoscitivo fondamentale. I policy maker, in particolare, sono chiamati all'incentivazione di pratiche di sostenibilità estesa in grado di associare la sfera economica e la sfera ambientale con quella sociale, attraverso l'utilizzo di modelli condivisibili e trasversali, frutto dell'esperienza accumulata nei diversi Paesi e settori industriali.*

Originalità del lavoro. *Il lavoro si propone di aggiornare, in modo sintetico, l'analisi delle tematiche e dei research gap presenti in letteratura relativamente alle filiere sostenibili offrendo un contributo conoscitivo sui diversi contesti industriali, utile ad alimentare per un dibattito tra accademici e practitioner sul disegno dei modelli di* *eccellenza. L'interesse manifestato per la tematica sociale appare coerente alla luce delle sopracitate difficoltà di applicazione nonché di integrazione nei modelli manageriali.*

In questo quadro la scelta di utilizzare la metodologia della Systematic Literature Review ha consentito di mantenere un criterio di oggettività nella selezione dei paper, in quanto l'adozione del modello multi-fase ha limitato l'intervento soggettivo dei ricercatori nella predisposizione del dataset di riferimento (Denyer, Tranfield e Van Aken, 2003).

Parole chiave: *Sustainable Supply Chain Management; analisi della letteratura; sostenibilità; Triple Bottom Line*

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L'impatto del "Green Manufacturing" sulla performance economica

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Obiettivi: *È ormai opinione condivisa che le attività umane sono la causa principale del deterioramento dell'ambiente e delle risorse naturali, che hanno una capacità di adattamento limitata e sono soggette a danni irreversibili, e l'interesse verso il problema è cresciuto a tal punto che la questione ambientale è diventata una priorità per governi, organizzazioni (Ardito e Dangelico, 2018; Buysse e Verbeke, 2003; Cappa, Rosso, e Capaldo, 2020; Michelino, Cammarano, Celone, e Caputo, 2019). L'impegno per l'ambiente è inoltre diventato prioritario anche per le aziende, che si stanno muovendo oltre che verso approcci come la Responsabilità Sociale d'Impresa (CSR) (Fortunati, Martiniello, e Morea, 2020; Liu e Xiao, 2020; Saha, Shashi, Cerchione, Singh, e Dahiya, 2020), anche verso l'adozione di pratiche di "produzione green" (green production) per diverse ragioni: apportare beneficio all'ambiente e quindi all'intera società; migliorare l'immagine del marchio dell'impresa e quindi la loro reputazione tra i consumatori (Bird, Hall, Momentè, e Reggiani, 2007) e attrarre clienti più sensibili nei confronti dei temi ambientali e quindi migliorare le loro prestazioni economiche (Bai e Sarkis, 2017; Böhringer, Moslener, Oberndorfer, e Ziegler, 2012; Singal, 2014).*

Le attività di green manufacturing possono essere definite come un insieme di azioni intraprese da un'azienda con l'obiettivo di minimizzare gli effetti ambientali negativi associati al ciclo di vita dei prodotti e dei servizi a partire dalla progettazione, produzione e smaltimento finale del prodotto (Nicholls e Kang, 2012; Rusinko, 2007). Sebbene la letteratura concordi sull'effetto positivo delle attività di green manufacturing sulla competitività dell'impresa (Ambec e Lanoie, 2008; King e Lenox, 2002; Lin, Tan, e Geng, 2013; Melnyk, Sroufe, e Calantone, 2003; Singal, 2014) il loro effetto sulla performance economica delle imprese è un tema ancora ancora dibattuto (Molina-Azorín, Claver-Cortés, López-Gamero, e Tarí, 2009). Il paradigma convenzionale che sosteneva che l'adozione di pratiche "green" erode la competitività delle imprese (Jaffe, Peterson, Portney, e Stavins, 1995; Walley e Whitehead, 1994) è stato infatti messo in discussione da Porter prima (Porter e Van Der Linde, 1995), e poi da opinioni successive come Green New Deal, che afferma che una regolamentazione ambientale più rigorosa promuove la crescita economica, rispetto alle preoccupazioni dei responsabili politici che sostengono che la regolamentazione ambientale causa perdite di produzione (Barbier, 2010).

In generale, la letteratura concorda sul fatto che gli investimenti ambientali e "green" hanno un effetto positivo sulla crescita della produzione dell'impresa e che la gestione ambientale influenza positivamente le prestazioni economiche nel lungo periodo (Böhringer et al., 2012; Gotschol, De Giovanni, e Esposito Vinzi, 2014; Li, Ngniatedema, e Chen, 2017). Tuttavia gli effetti dell'attenzione ambientale sulle prestazioni delle imprese sono state a lungo dibattute dagli studiosi (Molina-Azorín et al., 2009). In effetti, il paradigma convenzionale, che sosteneva che le azioni verdi erodono la competitività delle imprese (Jaffe et al., 1995; Walley e Whitehead, 1994) è stato sfidato da Porter prima (Porter e Van Der Linde, 1995) e poi da opinioni successive come Green New Deal, che afferma che una regolamentazione ambientale più rigorosa promuove la crescita economica, rispetto alle preoccupazioni dei responsabili politici che la regolamentazione ambientale causa perdite di produzione (Barbier, 2010). Questo lavoro si propone di comprendere l'effetto delle pratiche green sui ricavi secondo una logica della stakeholder theory.

In questo studio, adottiamo la stakeholder theory (Donaldson e Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984) l'adozione di pratiche di produzione verdi esercita un effetto positivo sulla percezione degli stakeholder, in particolare dei consumatori, in quanto apprezzano le caratteristiche ecologiche dei prodotti e ricompensano l'orientamento green dell'azienda (Grimmer e Woolley, 2014; Miles e Covin, 2000; Thøgersen, Haugaard, e Olesen, 2010), premiando così le prestazioni economiche misurati attraverso la variazione del fatturato dell'azienda (Menguc e Ozanne, 2005).

I contributi del documento sono i seguenti: 1) evidenziamo che la teoria degli stakeholder è la lente giusta da considerare quando si esaminano pratiche che possono avere effetti su questioni economiche e ambientali. 2) Riconciliamo risultati e opinioni contrastanti sull'effetto delle pratiche verdi sulla performance operativa, evidenziando che il numero di attività verdi intraprese ha un effetto positivo sul fatturato.

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Metodologia. *Ai fini della nostra analisi, i dati sono stati ottenuti dal portale open data dell'Unione (European Union, 2012) del 2017 condotta in 28 Stati dell'Unione europea e pubblicata come "Flash Eurobarometer 456: efficienza delle risorse delle PMI e mercati verdi". L'indagine fa parte della serie Flash Eurobarometer, che sono interviste telefoniche tematiche ad hoc condotte su richiesta di qualsiasi servizio della Commissione europea. L'indagine è stata condotta tra le piccole e medie imprese europee con un'occupazione compresa tra uno e 250 dipendenti, campionare da una banca dati internazionale delle imprese (se necessario, sono stati aggiunti ulteriori campioni provenienti da fonti locali). Un totale di10.618 persone sono stati intervistate telefonicamente a settembre 2017, avendo 2016 come anno di riferimento. Gli intervistati sono stati selezionati in base alla loro posizione manageriale nell'azienda.*

La nostra analisi si è focalizzata sul settore manifatturiero, con un numero di osservazioni pari a 2335. La variabile dipendente (performance economica) è misurata come variazione del fatturato totale (Aumento Fatturato) rispetto all'anno precedente. La variazione totale del fatturato è definita come una variabile ordinata categorica in cui con tre possibili risultati: "Aumento", "Invariato" e "Diminuito" (rispettivamente 1, 0 e -1 nell'indagine). Il fatturato totale è un indicatore della performance economica in quanto fornisce informazioni sugli utili derivanti dalle attività commerciali e consente quindi di valutare il rendimento di un'azienda (Thomsen e Pedersen, 2000; Wagenhofer, 2014).

La variabile indipendente viene misurata attraverso il numero di attività green (Attività Green), che misura l'ampiezza delle attività green intraprese dall'azienda. È stato creato come somma delle singolari attività intraprese: risparmio idrico; risparmio energetico; utilizzo di energia rinnovabile; risparmio di materiali; riduzione al minimo dei rifiuti; vendita di materiale di scarto; riciclaggio dei rifiuti; progettazione di prodotti di facile mantenimento, attività di riparazione o riutilizzo. Diverse variabili di controllo sono state aggiunte per migliorare l'affidabilità dell'analisi; la dimensione dell'impresa in termini di numero di dipendenti (Numero Dipendenti); età dell'azienda (Età); impatto delle attività verdi sui costi di produzione (Impatto Attività Green); la percentuale di fatturato investita in attività green (Investimenti Attività Green); una variabile che controlla il fatto che l'azienda abbia utilizzato risorse interne per le attività green (Supporto Risorse Interne), una variabile per considerare se l'azienda abbia utilizzato competenze tecniche per le attività green (Supporto Competenze Tecniche), una variabile che controlla il fatto che l'azienda abbia utilizzato risorse esterne per le attività green (Supporto Esterno) e una variabile dicotomica che controlla se l'azienda vende prodotti "green" (Vendita Prodotti Green). Infine, la variabile wex corregge il fatto che la maggior parte dei paesi ha dimensioni del campione quasi identiche (n = 1000), non importa quanto grandi o piccole siano le loro popolazioni.

Risultati. *L'analisi è stata condotto eseguendo una regressione logistica ordinata (Agresti, 2006), data la natura categorica della variabile dipendente. I valori di correlazione tra le variabili sono tutti inferiori a 0.7, limitando così il problema della multicollinearità (Cohen, Cohen, West, e Aiken, 2003; Franco, Caroli, Cappa, e Del Chiappa, 2020). La tabella 1 mostra i risultati dell'analisi. Il modello 1 include le variabili di controllo. Il modello 2 comprende sia la variabile indipendente che i controlli.*

Secondo il modello di base (Model 1), la performance economica è positivamente correlata al numero di dipendenti ($\beta = .00035$, p<0,10) e agli investimenti in attività green ($\beta = .226$ p<0,01), pur essendo negativamente correlato all'età dell'azienda ($\beta = -.00003$ p<0,01). Il modello 2 aggiunge la variabile indipendente che misura il numero di attività green intraprese: il coefficiente della variabile indipendente Attività Green è positivo e significativo ($\beta = .03580$, p<0,10), quindi a supporto della nostra ipotesi circa l'effetto positivo delle attività green sulla probabilità che aumento che i ricavi aumentino.

*Tab. 1: Regressione logistica ordinata con errori robusti; "Aumento Fatturato" è la variabile dipendente. Numero di osservazioni = 2335. *, ** e *** indicano p<0.10, p<0.05 e p<0.01 rispettivamente*

	Modello 1	s.e.	Modello 2	s.e.
Attività Green			.03*	.02
Numero dipendenti	.00*	.00	.00*	.00
Età	-.00*	.00	-.00*	.00
Impatto Attività Green	-.03	.03	-.02	.03
Investimenti Attività Green	.22***	.04	.22***	.04
Supporto Risorse Interne	-.07	.13	-.06	.13
Supporto Competenze Tecniche	-.02	.13	-.02	.13
Supporto Esterno	.09	.13	.09	.13
Vendita Prodotti Green	-.09	.13	-.09	.13
Wex	-.00	.00	-.00	00
Pseudo - R2	0.0124		0.0130	

Limiti della ricerca. *Lo studio non è esente da limitazioni che tuttavia offrono spunti interessanti per le ricerche future. In primo luogo, i dati si concentrano sui paesi dell'Unione europea, mentre altri studi futuri possono esplorare ciò che accade in altre paesi. Inoltre, il dataset non consente di avere informazioni temporali sul momento di attuazione delle azioni green: future ricerche potrebbero colmare questo gap mentre. In terzo luogo, il nostro dataset fornisce un set di osservazione di un anno, limitando così l'analisi dell'effetto della produzione green sul fatturato nel tempo.*

Incoraggiamo gli studi futuri ad affrontare questi temi, poiché riteniamo che l'effetto congiunto di manager e accademici possa essere cruciale per affrontare le grandi sfide del nostro tempo.

Implicazioni Pratiche. *Oltre a contribuire a una migliore conoscenza scientifica del fenomeno, il nostro studio offre anche contributi manageriali. In primo luogo, consigliamo alle aziende di diversificare le azioni green nelle loro operazioni e processi. In secondo luogo, i nostri risultati sono interessanti anche per i policy maker alla costante ricerca di nuovi modi per affrontare le sfide ambientali. Poiché il degrado ambientale e la sostenibilità sono diventati uno degli obiettivi più importanti per l'intera società, come dimostrano gli obiettivi di sviluppo sostenibile (Elia e Margherita, 2018; Elia, Margherita, e Petti, 2020; Secundo, Ndou, Vecchio, e De Pascale, 2020; UN, 2015) un'adozione più pervasiva delle attività verdi nel processo di produzione, promossa dall'accoglienza positiva degli stakeholder e dall'impatto positivo sulle prestazioni economiche e sulle vendite, può contribuire a ridurre l'impatto del massiccio uso consumistico delle risorse. In effetti, come una delle grandi sfide sociali che affliggono la nostra epoca (George, Howard-Grenville, Joshi, e Tihanyi, 2016) i problemi ambientali devono essere gestiti dai grandi attori che operano nella società, nelle istituzioni e nelle organizzazioni. Le imprese dovrebbero aggiungere valore alla società, pertanto è necessario promuovere l'adozione di attività e investimenti green.*

Originalità del lavoro *Basandoci sulla Stakeholder Theory (Freeman, 1984), evidenziamo come un numero crescente di azioni green intraprese dall'azienda influisce sulla probabilità che il fatturato aumenti. In questo modo avanziamo l'applicazione della Stakeholder Theory nel green manufacturing, evidenziando come gli stakeholder e i clienti in particolare ricompensano le aziende impegnate in azioni "green".*

Parole chiave: *produzione green; pratiche green; investimenti green; risultati economici*

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Riutilizzo efficace di rifiuti casalinghi: sinergie per rinnovare edifici in contesti sociali svantaggiati

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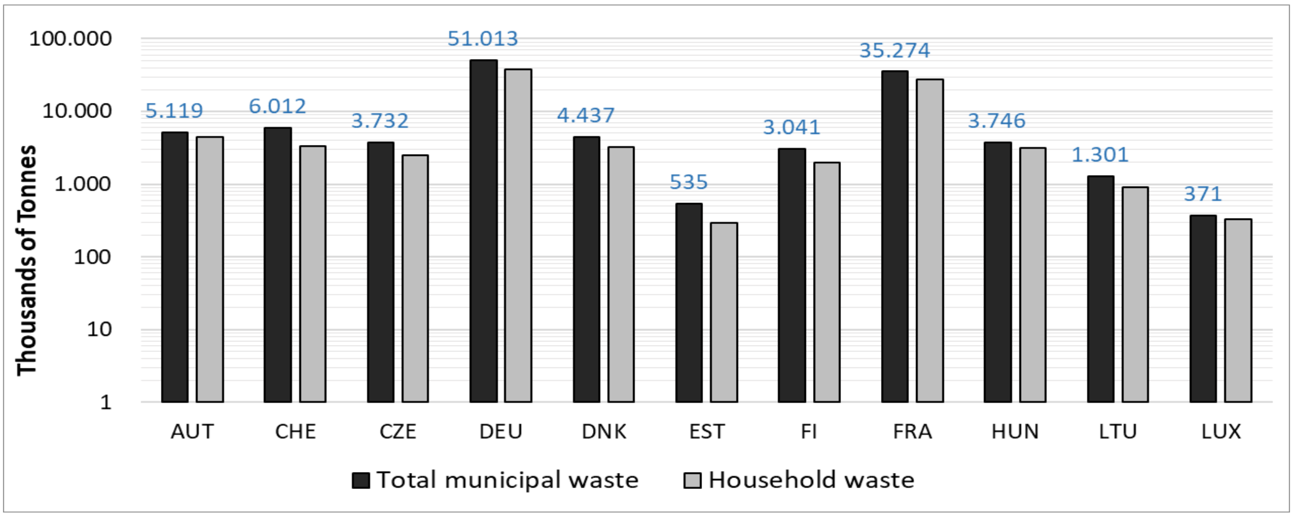
Obiettivi. *L'impronta ecologica globale oggi cresce ad un ritmo maggiore del PIL (ASVIS, 2020) ed il consumo massivo di materiali rappresenta una delle cause principali di questa continua crescita. È necessario agire con determinazione per fermare questo pericoloso trend. Le Nazioni Unite impongono importanti cambiamenti negli stili di vita di persone e imprese. Per raggiungere una produzione e un consumo responsabili, Goal 12 dell'Agenda 2030, sono necessari modelli di business sostenibili ed efficaci, in grado di essere replicabili ed adattabili a diversi contesti. Le risorse nel nostro mondo sono infatti limitate e il paradigma classico dell'economia lineare non è più sostenibile. Non possiamo più permettere che le materie prime utilizzate, terminato il ciclo di vita del prodotto, diventino rifiuti senza futuro. Bisogna chiudere il cerchio e completare la transizione verso l'Economia Circolare, rendendo il rifiuto la materia prima seconda di un nuovo ciclo di produzione e consumo.*

Questo studio, parte di un progetto di ricerca di Community Building, ha l'obiettivo di favorire questa transizione e un modello di sviluppo sostenibile nelle tre dimensioni: ambientale, economico e sociale. Focalizzandosi sulla categoria dei rifiuti casalinghi, che rappresentano una quota sostanziosa dei rifiuti municipali (Figura 1), e su contesti sociali svantaggiati, popolati da famiglie con possibilità economiche limitate, il progetto vuole proporre una soluzione efficace ed efficiente per rinnovare le abitazioni migliorando la performance energetica.

In particolare, si vuole analizzare lo sviluppo di modelli di business innovativi con cui le piccole aziende private provano a coniugare la crescita economica con la tutela dell'ambiente, delle risorse e degli ecosistemi naturali. Per il modello proposto si evidenzieranno esempi, punti di forza e debolezza, fornendo, in conclusione, una valutazione che comprenda tutte e tre le dimensioni ambientale, economico e sociale.

Fig. 1: Rifiuti casalinghi prodotti nel 2018



Per raggiungere l'obiettivo 17 dell'Agenda 2030 è necessario creare una partnership forte tra i diversi attori dello stesso territorio. Per questo, riuscire a collegare imprese operanti nel settore della raccolta dei rifiuti, imprese

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commercianti prodotti casalinghi con famiglie di contesti svantaggiati, includendo il possibile ruolo mediatore delle istituzioni, rappresenterebbe un passo avanti verso il traguardo.

Metodologia. *Negli ultimi 5 anni, la ricerca sui modelli di business è stata un'area di discussione nonostante la mancanza di una definizione condivisa (Massa et al., 2017). Il modello di business mostra come il management dell'impresa progetta e ipotizza cosa vogliano i clienti (i.e. offerta di valore), come l'impresa possa organizzarsi per soddisfare al meglio queste esigenze (i.e. creazione di valore), farsi pagare per farlo e realizzare un profitto (i.e. cattura del valore) (Baden-Fuller e Haefliger, 2013; Teece, 2010). Il modello di business è fatto di diverse componenti (es. ricavi, costi, partnership) (Osterwalder et al., 2005) ma il cuore è la value proposition che descrive i driver del valore del cliente così come le caratteristiche uniche che le aziende offrono per catturare quel valore (Bouncken e Fredrich, 2016; Pironti et al., 2015; Rieple e Pisano, 2015). Dalla prospettiva della gestione strategica, il concetto di modello di business permette di comprendere come le PMI possono concepire i propri prodotti perché diventati scarto forniscano opportunità di valore. Considerando che il concetto di modello di business è intrinsecamente legato allo sfruttamento delle opportunità (DaSilva e Trkman, 2014), riteniamo che sia fondamentale valutare il suo adattamento alla nuova prospettiva dell'economia circolare. Il potenziale di questo nuovo paradigma va sfruttato e il modello di business può generare nuove soluzioni, riconducibili ad uno dei seguenti tre elementi: creazione di valore, offerta di valore e cattura di valore. Dall'analisi di queste dimensioni del modello di business, fortemente interconnesse, emerge inoltre come l'innovazione in un elemento porta a cambiamenti di vario grado negli altri due (Zott e Amit, 2010).*

Questo studio vuole analizzare il potenziale della partecipazione delle imprese in un progetto di Community Building che prevede la realizzazione di soluzioni per il miglioramento delle performance energetiche di abitazioni in contesti sociali svantaggiati, riutilizzando rifiuti casalinghi. Le soluzioni ideate nel progetto sono pannelli costruiti con rifiuti casalinghi come bottiglie, vestiti, carta e cartone, che migliorano le prestazioni energetiche delle abitazioni.

Sarà proposto un confronto tra un modello di business tradizionale di un'impresa e il modello di business dell'impresa stessa nel caso in cui partecipasse al progetto. Per realizzare il confronto saranno utilizzati gli strumenti del Business Model Canvas (Osterwalder et al., 2010) e del Sustainable Business Model Canvas. Questi due modelli permetteranno di evidenziare i contributi alla sostenibilità che le imprese aggiungeranno al business tradizionale e i valori aggiunti nelle sezioni già presenti. Dall'analisi dei risultati ottenuti sarà stimato l'impatto sulle tre dimensioni della sostenibilità: sociale, economico e ambientale.

Data la grande varietà che contraddistingue i prodotti casalinghi, allo stato attuale dello studio è ipotizzato il confronto dei Business Model di imprese di operanti in settori specifici, come potrebbe essere quello delle bottiglie di plastica per bibite.

Risultati. *Sulla base degli studi esistenti, la nostra ricerca proverà ad analizzare l'efficacia della transizione ad un modello di business sostenibile per le imprese partecipanti al progetto.*

Sul piano sociale, il coinvolgimento di un'impresa in un progetto di questo tipo potrebbe generare importanti risultati: il progetto nasce con l'obiettivo di aiutare famiglie svantaggiate, in contesti difficili e con possibilità economiche limitate. Un segnale forte contro l'esclusione sociale. Povertà zero rappresenta uno degli obiettivi dell'Agenda 2030.

A livello economico ed ambientale i risultati potrebbero essere molteplici.

L'impresa potrebbe adattare le caratteristiche del proprio prodotto a quelle del pannello migliorando l'impronta ecologica e favorendo una produzione e un consumo responsabile.

Un'altra possibile modalità di partecipazione al progetto sarebbe la collaborazione senza modifiche al proprio prodotto. In questo caso l'impresa potrebbe coinvolgere il proprio prodotto in un'iniziativa che favorisce la transizione ecologica, mostrando come poter riutilizzare il proprio prodotto, aggiungendo valore potenziale nel proprio modello di business.

Grazie alla metodologia scelta, ovvero il confronto di due strumenti di analisi del modello di business, il Business Model Canvas e il Sustainable Business Model Canvas, sarà possibile individuare un modello di business innovativo e sostenibile, contribuendo alla letteratura relativa all'innovazione nei modelli di business.

Limiti della ricerca. *All'attuale stato del progetto sono emersi i seguenti limiti:*

1) *La varietà dei rifiuti casalinghi è molto ampia. Cercare di costruire un confronto tra un modello di business tradizionale e uno ipotetico che si adatti a business molto diversi tra loro rischierebbe di risultare troppo generico. Inoltre, se l'obiettivo è quello di permettere a famiglie di avere soluzioni self-made la soluzione non deve prevedere trattamenti specifici dei rifiuti. Questo restringe il campo dei rifiuti casalinghi candidati per queste soluzioni.*
2) *Un ulteriore limite, legato al progetto nel suo complesso è dovuto alla soluzione ipotizzata. Per realizzare pareti che migliorano le prestazioni energetiche delle abitazioni sono necessari molti pannelli. Conseguenza diretta è che la quantità di rifiuti necessari non è esigua. Da qui il problema dello stoccaggio di questi rifiuti. Trattandosi di contesti sociali svantaggiati spesso si parla di piccole abitazioni. Questo implica mancanza di luoghi in cui stoccare i rifiuti. Una possibile soluzione è individuare imprese che si occupino della fase di raccolta dei rifiuti casalinghi designati o che le istituzioni pubbliche mettano a disposizione dei cittadini aree dedicate allo stoccaggio.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Questo studio è parte di un progetto più ampio di Community Building. Le implicazioni pratiche che emergono da questo studio sono diverse. Primo, il coinvolgimento della comunità, inteso come insieme degli attori che partecipano al progetto (imprese, istituzioni, cittadini), permette di lavorare secondo i principi sociali dell'inclusione e della cooperazione. Secondo, una corretta gestione dei rifiuti permette di contrastare la crescita dell'impronta ecologica. Il riutilizzo dei rifiuti diminuisce la necessità di materia prima. Inoltre, queste soluzioni permetteranno di migliorare le prestazioni energetiche degli edifici. Terzo, famiglie con possibilità economiche* *limitate possono sfruttare questa opportunità per migliorare le condizioni di vita. Inoltre, se i risultati di questo progetto confermassero l'impatto positivo di queste soluzioni, imprese produttrici dei materiali casalinghi individuati potrebbero decidere di ripensare i propri prodotti, progettandoli perché siano facilmente convertibili nelle soluzioni proposte alla fine della loro vita utile.*

Un progetto di questo tipo si inserirebbe nel Sustainable Business Model delle imprese partecipanti, favorendo l'innovazione strategica dell'impresa stessa. L'integrazione sociale e la creazione di valore di lungo periodo condiviso sono principi chiave per lo sviluppo sostenibile. Inoltre, in vista delle imminenti misurazioni della circolarità UNI, le imprese potrebbero guadagnare punti nei futuri sistemi di rating. Mostrare come con piccoli accorgimenti si possano ottenere risultati su più livelli, economico, ambientale e sociale contribuirebbe a stimolare le aziende ad una produzione responsabile.

Dal confronto tra la condizione AS-IS dei modelli di business e il modello di business TO-BE proposto potrebbero emergere modelli innovativi sostenibili. Questi potrebbero diventare un esempio virtuoso per imprese che attualmente sarebbero disposte ad una transizione del proprio business verso modelli circolari ma che faticano a trovare il modo di realizzare questo passaggio.

Infine, analizzando il progetto dalla prospettiva del rifiuto, riuscire a costruire un modello di gestione dei rifiuti casalinghi efficace permetterebbe di ridurre le enormi quantità che oggi vengono smaltite degli stessi, con conseguenti danni economici ed ambientali.

Originalità del lavoro. *Il tema dello sviluppo sostenibile e della transizione ecologica è estremamente attuale. Riteniamo opportuno sottolineare l'importanza del progetto in due punti, fortemente collegati rispettivamente al Goal 12 e al Goal 17 dell'Agenda 2030:*

1) *Consumo e Produzione responsabile. Istruire famiglie ad un consumo sostenibile, individuando prodotti che possano avere una duplice vita. Stimolare imprese alla circolarità, pensando prodotti che possano essere riutilizzati.*
2) *Partnership territoriale. La collaborazione tra diversi attori dello stesso territorio, con l'obiettivo ultimo di raggiungere uno sviluppo sostenibile.*

Questo progetto prova a proporre una soluzione nuova e diversa per un'importante categoria di rifiuti, quelli casalinghi.

L'originalità dello studio deriva inoltre dalla metodologia proposta in relazione al progetto descritto. Analizzare il modello di business delle imprese in relazione al tema della sostenibilità, valutando la situazione AS-IS e la situazione TO-BE sfruttando gli strumenti del Business Model Canvas e del Sustainable Business Model Canvas. Individuare opportunità per le imprese, proporre una direzione di innovazione del proprio business che sposi i principi dettati dalle Nazioni Unite dello sviluppo sostenibile.

Parole chiave: *Sostenibilità; Economia Circolare; Business Model Canvas; Community Building.*

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Innovazione nel mondo del caffè monoporzionato

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Obiettivi. *Scopo della ricerca è stato accompagnare l'Azienda Caffè Aiello, leader nella produzione di caffè in Calabria, verso lo sviluppo di un nuovo prodotto completamente packaging free afferente al comparto del caffè monoporzionato.*

Sulla base dei dati analizzati durante la ricerca, il caffè porzionato assorbe il 7,8% dei volumi totali del caffè macinato nella GDO ma il 27% del totale valore [Coffitalia, 2018]. All'interno del macinato porzionato ha ormai preso il sopravvento il segmento delle capsule che, da solo, vale 267 Milioni di Euro e mostra una crescita più marcata rispetto alle cialde [Competitive Data, 2018]. Questa porzione di mercato è infatti caratterizzata da un trend in continua ascesa. Studiando i dati in Italia, la preferenza dei consumatori verso le bevande calde è concentrata soprattutto sul caffè, che rappresenta il 70% del volume totale del mercato; il 63% è legato al consumo di caffè tostato e solo il 7% al consumo di caffè istantaneo [International Coffee Organization, 2018]. Il caffè macinato ha il netto predominio rispetto alle altre tipologie, con il 90% delle quantità, il caffè in grani detiene il 6,6%, infine, segue il caffè solubile che conta il 3,3% [Coffitalia,2018].

All'interno del comparto del macinato prosegue l'incremento continuo dei volumi e delle quantità verso il macinato porzionato in cialde e capsule, mentre sono in flessione gli altri segmenti: questo dato rappresenta un sostanziale cambiamento nelle abitudini di consumo.

I principali vantaggi associati a questi sistemi per il caffè espresso sono rappresentati da:

- *Praticità d'uso, comodità e velocità di preparazione;*
- *Assenza di residui;*
- *Dosaggio standard;*
- *Versatilità nella tipologia di miscele;*
- *Alta capacità di conservazione del caffè e delle sue caratteristiche di aroma e sapore;*
- *Contenuto di innovazione.*

L'emergenza sanitaria COVID-19 che ha investito l'intero pianeta ha inciso in maniera consistente su stili di vita e comportamenti di acquisto e consumo. In particolar modo il primo lockdown, che per due mesi ha confinato gli italiani tra le mura domestiche senza alcuna possibilità di consumi fuori casa, ha modificato notevolmente le abitudini. Nello specifico sulle quantità e modalità di consumo del caffè ha inciso fortemente la chiusura dei bar, lo smart working e la gestione casalinga dei pasti, in primis la colazione. I dati a supporto di queste considerazioni esprimono un ulteriore aumento delle vendite anche verso canali più moderni, come quello on line, non solo per il monoporzionato ma anche per quei segmenti come moka e caffè in grani che risultavano da tempo in flessione. Il valore della categoria cresce di un +10,7% nel primo trimestre del 2020 rispetto allo stesso periodo dell'anno precedente; crescita che raggiunge il +18,7% considerando il solo mese di marzo 2020 [IRI,2020].

I consumi premiano tutti i segmenti di mercato e, anche se capsule e cialde continuano ad essere predilette (+24,6% e +16,7% solo nel mese di marzo), il segmento moka cresce del +3,4% nel primo trimestre 2020 e del +10,9% nel mese di marzo [IRI,2020].

Confrontando l'attuale livello di maturità del caffè porzionato con quello del caffè macinato si evidenzia una situazione completamente opposta anche in termini di livello di maturità e di innovazione: il caffè macinato attualmente si trova nella fase specifica (stadio sistemico) dove l'impegno verso l'innovazione risulta completamente inesistente per effetto di un settore consolidato e uniforme; invece, per il caffè monoporzionato si assiste ad una intensa fase di sviluppo e di innovazione che, nonostante sia partita oltre 30 anni fa, deve ancora definire la configurazione ritenuta ottimale [Rullani, 2016].

L'aumento del settore monoporzionato di caffè genera forte preoccupazione dal punto di vista dell'impatto ambientale che cialde e, soprattutto, capsule generano in fase di smaltimento. Molte aziende e grandi marchi del settore, sia in Italia che all'estero, sensibili verso l'aspetto ambientale ed invogliate dalla continua attenzione "green" che anche il cliente riserva, si stanno muovendo verso lo zero waste e l'economia circolare.

In quest'ottica, l'Azienda Caffè Aiello ha tentato in una prima fase di modificare la propria produzione verso involucri compostabili già presenti sul mercato, i quali però non hanno permesso di raggiungere un optimum tra gusto,

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aroma, conservazione delle caratteristiche organolettiche del caffè e sostenibilità ambientale. Pertanto, l'azienda utilizza cialde in carta filtro racchiuse in un packaging secondario di plastica e alluminio e capsule realizzate con un mix di alluminio e plastica, che necessitano di essere smaltite nella frazione residua oppure svuotate prima di poter essere riposte nella frazione differenziata. L'obiettivo dell'azienda resta comunque quello di intraprendere un percorso verso un modello di business sostenibile (SBM) in grado di definire gli obiettivi aziendali anche in termini ambientali. La transizione verso un SBM passa inevitabilmente dall'innovazione, intesa non solo come mero rinnovamento tecnologico, ma come processo responsabile attraverso l'utilizzo di materie prime sostenibili e il rispetto dell'ambiente nel quale l'azienda opera secondo un approccio di economia circolare.. Per tale motivo lo scopo della ricerca è stato quello di realizzare una compressa di caffè totalmente priva di involucro, da conservare nel tempo all'interno di un sacchetto completamente bio-based ottenuto da materie prime provenienti da scarti di lavorazione della filiera agroalimentare calabrese.

Metodologia. *Nella costruzione dei business model attuali stanno raggiungendo sempre maggiore importanza fattori apparentemente intangibili, ma che hanno un appeal rilevante per i clienti: la sostenibilità è uno di questi e deve rappresentare uno strumento chiave per rafforzare la competitività e la reputazione di un'impresa, quindi, la sua redditività. Non deve essere qualcosa di aggiuntivo alle attività ordinarie, ma un fattore integrante che deve guidare tutte le scelte. Inserire l'elemento sostenibilità nel modello di business significa affrontare un cambiamento che ridefinisca strategia e processi operativi per rispondere ai bisogni e alle aspettative del mercato e della società. L'obiettivo ultimo è quello di accrescere la competitività sul mercato grazie all'instaurarsi di relazioni forti e durature con clienti e consumatori, che rappresentano i principali stakeholders. Per la definizione del nuovo prodotto, dunque, rilevante importanza hanno assunto le analisi sui dati caratterizzanti il mercato di riferimento e lo studio dei fabbisogni dei clienti. Conoscere meglio il cliente permette di stabilire dove orientare la strategia di progettazione e sviluppo; soddisfare un bisogno del cliente attraverso un prodotto permette di accrescere il proprio vantaggio competitivo aumentando la percezione del valore creato. Occorre progettare il nuovo prodotto focalizzandolo sui bisogni del cliente: identificare i bisogni nascosti e latenti, così come quelli espliciti; fornire una base di fatto per giustificare le specifiche del prodotto; verificare che un bisogno critico del cliente non sia ignorato o dimenticato. In tal senso, l'analisi è stata svolta su 3 ambiti specifici:*

- *Formato;*
- *Prezzo;*
- *Sostenibilità.*

La metodologia utilizzata ha previsto 5 fasi. Nella prima fase si è provveduto alla raccolta dei dati. Al fine di determinare i bisogni e le aspettative dei clienti è stata predisposta, sulla base delle indicazioni fornite dalla letteratura e dalle analisi di mercato, un'indagine locale che ha permesso di individuare tre aspetti fondamentali:

1. *la diffusione del monoporzionato e le caratteristiche che lo rendono un prodotto da preferire al caffè macinato;*
2. *la conoscenza delle problematiche ambientali legate alle monoporzioni di caffè;*
3. *la propensione dei potenziali clienti all'acquisto di prodotti ecosostenibili, in grado di salvaguardare l'ambiente senza rinunciare alla praticità di un prodotto già porzionato.*

Sulla base delle informazioni reperite sono stati individuati una serie di bisogni espressi come osservazioni o dichiarazioni soggettive; al fine di rappresentare una specifica di prodotto occorre rendere il dato oggettivo. Nella seconda fase, dunque, si è provveduto a interpretare il dato e tradurlo in un bisogno definito. La terza fase di analisi ha permesso di raggruppare e sintetizzare i bisogni per poter ottenere un numero di informazioni più facilmente valutabile; detti bisogni sono stati inoltre classificati secondo un elenco gerarchico. Nella quarta fase ad ogni bisogno è stata associata una metrica/specifica tecnica di prodotto in grado di poterlo soddisfare. L'ultima fase ha permesso di individuare il legame esistente tra il bisogno espresso dai potenziali clienti e la metrica che potrebbe soddisfare quel determinato bisogno. Le relazioni più forti hanno portato all'identificazione delle specifiche tecniche e quindi all'attività di ingegnerizzazione della soluzione innovativa: un prodotto composto da solo caffè senza packaging primario ma che possa essere correttamente conservato in un packaging secondario completamente eco-friendly.

Per arrivare alla definizione del nuovo prodotto sono state indagate:

1. *metodologie di compattazione del caffè, in assenza di packaging e con aggiunta di legante;*
2. *materie prime naturali per la realizzazione di un biofilm da porre a protezione della compressa per la conservazione.*

Sono stati studiati dei possibili materiali da utilizzare come legante per ottenere la compressa di caffè e come materia prima per ottenere l'involucro sostenibile. Per i leganti ci si è concentrati sugli amidi, elementi capaci di aggregare senza rilasciare sapore o particelle estranee nel prodotto finito. Con riferimento all'involucro eco-sostenibile, sono state analizzate materie prime naturali per la creazione delle bioplastiche. La bioplastica è un tipo di plastica prodotta da materiale organico (bio-based) disponibile su base rinnovabile senza l'utilizzo di derivati dal petrolio. Secondo l'European Bioplastic, un materiale plastico è definito bioplastica se è bio-based, biodegradabile o se presenta entrambe le proprietà [Gisotti, 2012].

Per la realizzazione di bioplastiche si utilizzano biopolimeri. La biodegradabilità di un polimero dipende dalla sua struttura chimica; sulla base di questa si possono classificare [Petersen, 1999]:

1. *Biopolimeri direttamente estratti da materiale naturale (principalmente piante come mais, patata, orzo, frumento, riso e sorgo). In questo gruppo rientrano polisaccaridi (amido e cellulosa) e proteine (caseina e glutine);*
2. *Biopolimeri prodotti tramite sintesi chimica, che a differenza delle classiche plastiche utilizzano monomeri biologici e rinnovabili. Un esempio è l'acido polilattico, polimerizzato a partire da monomeri di acido lattico.*

3. *Biopolimeri prodotti da microrganismi o batteri geneticamente modificati, ad esempio poliidrossialcanoati.*

È possibile, inoltre, avere miscele o composti di biopolimeri; l'attenzione si è focalizzata su un mix di amidi e pectine. I primi possono essere facilmente ricavati da mais o patata; le pectine si ricavano dalla lavorazione degli agrumi. A guidare la scelta è stata, non solo la particolare predisposizione di questi elementi a creare biofilm dalle caratteristiche promettenti, ma soprattutto la possibilità di reperirli direttamente nella zona in cui opera l'azienda. La filiera agrumicola calabrese, che vanta numerosi prodotti IGP, e quella della patata, con la produzione della patata della Sila IGP, possono garantire l'approvvigionamento di materie prime a basso costo e basso impatto. Sia gli amidi che le pectine possono essere ricavati dai sottoprodotti delle filiere sopracitate, garantendo così il rispetto del modello di circular economy verso il quale l'azienda Caffè Aiello sta muovendo i suoi passi.

Risultati. *Il risultato delle ricerche è stata la progettazione e definizione di una compressa di caffè, ancora in fase prototipale, che potrà essere utilizzata tanto nella classica moka casalinga quanto nelle macchine da caffè espresso. Le specifiche tecniche del prodotto sono state stabilite attraverso la conversione dei bisogni del cliente secondo la metodologia precedentemente indicata.*

Fase 1 – Analisi dei dati

Il campione analizzato è caratterizzato da una percentuale che può ritenersi equa tra uomini e donne; si registra una leggera prevalenza di uomini (56,7% a fronte del 43,3% delle donne). La maggioranza del campione è coniugato (52,9%), il ché permette di affermare che il rito del caffè possa essere condiviso all'interno dell'ambiente familiare. Allo stesso tempo è presente una rilevante percentuale di nubile/celibe (41,4%). Tali dati sono, dunque, rappresentativi di diverse tipologie di potenziali clienti che, sulla base dei primi dati di letteratura, rappresentano la prevalenza della clientela di mercato.

Tra le varie modalità di preparazione del caffè, il gusto preferito dagli intervistati è quello preparato con la moka casalinga (43,9%) mentre la percentuale di monoporzionato in cialda (15,3%) e capsula (19,7%) raggiunge insieme il 35%. A casa la maggioranza del campione intervistato predilige preparare il caffè in moka, 54,8%. Le modalità che invece prevedono l'utilizzo di monoporzioni di caffè, raggruppando i dati di cialde e capsule, raggiungono il 45,2%.

Per coloro che utilizzano una macchina espresso sicuramente il motivo risiede nella velocità di erogazione (39,4%) seguito dal gusto (19,1%), e dalla possibilità di avere un caffè già porzionato e pronto all'uso (16%).

Per l'analisi legata alla conoscenza delle problematiche ambientali delle monoporzioni di caffè si rileva che il 94,9 % del campione dichiara di svolgere la raccolta differenziata, gettando correttamente il caffè esausto proveniente dalla Moka nell'umido (95,7%). Per quanto riguarda le monoporzioni di caffè la maggioranza del campione utilizza cialde compostabili (42,2%), dato che conforta in riferimento all'attenzione che i clienti stanno maturando nei confronti dell'ambiente. A questo valore si affianca il dato relativo alle capsule (32,2%), la maggioranza degli intervistati utilizza capsule in materiale composito che deve necessariamente gettare nella frazione residua. Solo l'8,9% sceglie di separare l'involucro esterno dal caffè esausto, segno che questa pratica risulta poco gradita ai clienti e non può ritenersi un metodo risolutivo per limitare il danno ambientale imposto dalle capsule.

Dato rilevante ed incoraggiante in questo contesto è quello legato alla propensione degli intervistati ad acquistare e provare nuovi prodotti alimentari e nuovi formati di caffè, anche in vista di poter limitare l'impatto ambientale. Il 46,5% dichiara di voler acquistare prodotti ecosostenibili da gettare direttamente nell'umido per limitare le conseguenze ambientali del caffè monoporzionato.

Altro dato rilevante è che la maggioranza degli intervistati (87,9%) sarebbe disposto a spendere di più per acquistare un nuovo prodotto ecosostenibile ed attento all'ambiente pagando in media dai 3 ai 5 €cent in più (37,6%) rispetto all'attuale prezzo medio di una capsula, stimato sulla base delle analisi di mercato svolte e pari a 0,30 €/unità.

L'aroma è sicuramente l'aspetto che è stato considerato fondamentale, pertanto il nuovo prodotto dovrà essere conservato in modo da preservare al massimo questo fattore. Segue la velocità di preparazione ed infine il prezzo. La qualità del caffè ed il gusto rimangono gli aspetti che maggiormente interessano al cliente in fase di acquisto e, dunque, occorre creare un prodotto che preservi tali caratteristiche ed una modalità di conservazione che possa lasciare intatta la qualità del prodotto nel tempo. Considerando nello specifico le monoporzioni di caffè, i risultati sono prevalentemente legati alla rapidità di erogazione del caffè (40,8%) ed alla comodità di avere un prodotto già pronto all'uso senza dover sporcare/sprecare caffè per realizzare la propria bevanda (38,2%).

Fase 2 – Traduzione del linguaggio del cliente

Le dichiarazioni espresse come indicazioni soggettive dai clienti sono state catalogate in bisogni.

Tab. 1: Traduzione dei bisogni espressi dai clienti

Dichiarazione	Bisogno	Cluster
>Bevo due o più caffè al giorno	>prodotto in confezioni da poter essere consumato in pochi giorni; al massimo una settimana	Formato
>Consumo il caffè principalmente a casa o in ufficio	>avere un prodotto comodo per la preparazione del caffè in casa >avere un prodotto pratico per la preparazione del caffè in ufficio, senza sporcare	Formato
>Preferisco il caffè preparato con la moka >Preferisco il gusto del caffè espresso del bar	>prodotto che si possa utilizzare nella moka, ma che possa ricondurre al gusto del bar	Formato
>Acquisto il caffè soprattutto al supermercato	>possibilità di trovare il prodotto nella grande distribuzione	Prezzo
>Acquisto il caffè in polvere perché a casa utilizzo la moka	>prodotto che si possa utilizzare nella moka	Formato
>Utilizzo una macchina da caffè espresso perché mi garantisce una maggiore velocità di preparazione ed erogazione >Utilizzo una macchina da caffè espresso perché il caffè è già porzionato >Utilizzo una macchina da caffè espresso perché il caffè è già porzionato e limito spreco	>prodotto che possa preparare il caffè velocemente, senza sporcare >prodotto che sia comodo, già pronto all'uso >prodotto che utilizza la corretta quantità di caffè per ottenere un gusto ottimale, senza sprecare	Formato
>Faccio la differenziata e getto il caffè nell'umido se utilizzo la moka	>prodotto facile da gettare nella frazione umido	Sostenibilità
>Non separo il caffè esausto dalle capsule, mi piacerebbe poter gettare direttamente il prodotto finito nell'umido	>prodotto di facile allocazione nella frazione umido	Sostenibilità
>Seguo le questioni ambientali principalmente per interesse personale	>zero waste >circular economy	Sostenibilità
>Utilizzo le monoporzioni di caffè ma non conosco le problematiche legate alle monoporzioni di caffè	>prodotto che faccia riflettere sulle problematiche ambientali legate alle monoporzioni	Sostenibilità
>Vorrei provare nuovi formati di caffè che mi incuriosiscono	>prodotto in un nuovo formato accattivante	Formato
>Per ridurre l'impatto sull'ambiente vorrei dei prodotti ecosostenibili	>prodotto in confezione compostabile	Sostenibilità
>Per un prodotto ecosostenibile potrei pagare da 3 a 5 eurocent in più rispetto all'attuale prezzo dei prodotti tradizionali	>spendere di più per salvaguardare l'ambiente >mantenere il prezzo non eccessivamente distante da quelle dei prodotti concorrenti	Prezzo
>Scelgo il caffè in base al prezzo >Scelgo il caffè in base alla velocità di preparazione >Scelgo il caffè in base al dosaggio >Scelgo il caffè in base alla qualità venduta >Scelgo il caffè in base alla quantità venduta >Scelgo il caffè in base all'aroma	>prezzo concorrenziale >prodotto veloce da preparare >dosaggio prestabilito, senza spreco >qualità del caffè del nuovo prodotto >ampia gamma di gusti >conservazione dell'aroma	Prezzo Formato
>Preferisco un caffè piuttosto che un altro in base al gusto >Preferisco un caffè piuttosto che un altro in base alla qualità >Preferisco un caffè piuttosto che un altro in base al prezzo	>prodotto che conserva il gusto e la qualità del caffè >prezzo concorrenziale	Prezzo Formato
>Del caffè monoporzionato apprezzo la rapidità >Del caffè monoporzionato apprezzo la comodità >Del caffè monoporzionato apprezzo la semplicità Del caffè monoporzionato apprezzo l'innovazione >Del caffè monoporzionato apprezzo l'igiene	>prodotto che garantisce erogazione del caffè rapida >prodotto comodo e semplice che non sporca e non spreca caffè >prodotto innovativo che garantisce igiene e sicurezza	Formato

Fase 3 – Classificazione dei bisogni

I bisogni tradotti a partire dal linguaggio del cliente sono stati opportunamente raggruppati e sintetizzati. Ad ogni bisogno è stata assegnata una valutazione sulla base dell'importanza relativa che si è registrata dalle interviste.

Tab. 2: Sintesi e valutazione dei bisogni

N°	Bisogno	Valutazione
1	prodotto monodose, non sporca e non spreca	*****
2	prodotto comodo e veloce nella preparazione	*****
3	prodotto da non separare	****
4	prodotto packaging free	****
5	prezzo concorrenziale	****
6	prodotto da utilizzare anche nella moka	***
7	prodotto di qualità, che conserva gusto e aroma	***
8	prodotto reperibile su diversi canali di distribuzione	**
9	prodotto monodose in confezione	**
10	prodotto in formato accattivante	**
11	prodotto che garantisce igiene	**

Fase 4 – Selezione delle metriche

Per ogni cluster sono state individuate le metriche/specifiche di realizzazione del prodotto in grado di soddisfare uno o più bisogni.

Tab.3: Selezione delle metriche correlate al bisogno

N° Metrica	Bisogno	Metrica/Specifica tecnica	Importanza
Formato			
1	9, 1, 8, 2, 11	confezione con max 10 monoporzioni	5
2	7, 1, 2, 9	qualità del caffè	5
3	7, 1, 2, 9	conservazione dell'aroma	5
4	8, 1, 2	ampia gamma di gusti	4
5	10, 8, 1, 2, 4	formato diverso da quelli convenzionali	5
6	6, 1, 2, 5, 8, 9	ampia gamma di utilizzo (moka, macchine espresso)	5
Prezzo			
1	5, 1, 4	da 3 a 5 €cent in più	5
2	5, 1, 4	da 1 a 3 €cent in più	5
3	4	da 8 a 10 €cent in più	1
4	8, 5, 9	disponibile on line	4
5	8, 5, 9	disponibile direttamente in azienda	2
6	8, 5, 9	disponibile nella GDO	5
Sostenibilità			
1	1,2, 5, 8, 9, 11	involucro biodegradabile, da separare	3
2	1,2,3, 5, 8, 9, 11	involucro compostabile	4
3	1,2,3,5,7,8,9,11	involucro bio-based da materie prime a filiera corta	5
4	4, 3, 10, 1, 2, 6,7,11	prodotto senza involucro	4

Da questo primo studio emergono le caratteristiche del prodotto sulle quali occorre focalizzarsi per soddisfare il maggior numero di bisogni. Con riferimento al cluster "Formato" sicuramente le necessità risultano quelle di avere un'ampia gamma di utilizzo, includendo così nelle macchine che utilizzano monoporzioni di caffè anche la classica moka casalinga. Per attrarre il cliente il formato del nuovo prodotto dovrà essere accattivante ed innovativo; inoltre si rende necessario predisporre una confezione contenente al massimo 10 monoporzioni. Il calcolo è stato eseguito considerando le necessità espresse dai clienti di consumare almeno due caffè o più al giorno; con una confezione da 10 pezzi si riesce a soddisfare il cliente per più giorni senza necessità di approvvigionamento giornaliero. Il nuovo prodotto dovrà opportunamente garantire qualità e conservazione dell'aroma del caffè. Per il cluster "Prezzo" le valutazioni riguardano soprattutto la necessità di essere disponibile su più canali, principalmente nella Grande Distribuzione e online. Questo permetterebbe di mantenere un prezzo concorrenziale. Con riferimento al cluster "Sostenibilità" è fondamentale lavorare su involucri bio-based e prodotti che garantiscano il rispetto del paradigma zero waste.

Fase 5 – Correlazioni tra bisogni e metriche

Nella matrice di relazione si indica il tipo di legame esistente tra il bisogno espresso dai potenziali clienti e la specifica tecnica che potrebbe soddisfare quel determinato bisogno; nella tabella verranno utilizzati i seguenti valori per indicare il legame tra il bisogno e la metrica:
1 per indicare un legame debole;
2 per indicare un legame medio;
3 per indicare un legame forte;

Tab. 4: Matrice delle relazioni e correlazioni

	prodotto monodose, non sporca e non spreca	prodotto comodo e veloce nella preparazione	prodotto da non separare	prodotto packaging free	prezzo concorrenziale	prodotto da utilizzare anche nella moka	prodotto di qualità, che conserva gusto e aroma	prodotto reperibile su diversi canali di distribuzione	prodotto monodose in confezione	prodotto in formato accattivante	prodotto che garantisce igiene
confezione con max 10 monoporzioni	3	3			3	1	2	3	3		2
qualità del caffè	3	2			2	2	3	2	3		
conservazione dell'aroma	3	2			1	1	3		3		3
ampia gamma di gusti	2	2			2	3	2	2	3		1
formato diverso da quelli convenzionali	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2
ampia gamma di utilizzo (moka, macchine espresso)	3	3			2	3	3	3	3		
da 1 a 3 eurocent in più	2	2			3	2		3	2		
da 3 a 5 eurocent in più	2	2			3	2		3	2		
da 8 a 10 eurocent in più	2	2			1	2		1	2		
disponibile online	2	1			3		2	3	2		
disponibile direttamente in azienda	2	1			2		3	3	2		
disponibile nella GDO	2	1			3		3	3	2		
involucro biodegradabile, da separare	3	3	1	1	2		2	3	3		3
involucro compostabile	3	3	2		3	1	2	3	3		3
involucro bio-based a filiera corta	3	3	3		3		3	3	3	3	3
prodotto senza involucro	3	3	3	3	2	3		3	3	3	

Appare chiaro dai risultati ottenuti che un prodotto packaging free soddisfa il maggior numero di bisogni mantenendo più forte il legame tra metrica e bisogni espressi. Il semplice prodotto packaging free però non può da solo soddisfare la necessità di un prodotto in confezione, tale da garantire igiene e conservazione di qualità, gusto e aroma nel tempo. Per la commercializzazione occorre inserire un involucro; la scelta vincente in termini di soddisfazione del bisogno espresso dal cliente ricade sull'involucro bio-based prodotto a partire da materie prime naturali ottenute da filiere di lavorazione agroalimentare locali e quindi reperibili a basso costo.

Il prodotto ottenuto è una compressa di caffè derivante dalla miscela di caffè macinato ed amido, opportunamente dosati, successivamente pressata e stampata. Il formato è dunque inedito rispetto a quelli attualmente presenti sul mercato ed il caffè, non coperto da involucro primario, risulta subito visibile all'occhio del cliente. La conservazione di gusto, aroma e l'igiene di ogni singola monodose è garantita dalla presenza del biofim di amido e pectine, che risponde alla specifica della sostenibilità in quanto elemento bio-based che può dunque essere collocato nell'umido insieme al caffè esausto. Dalle prime evidenze di laboratorio appare anche promettente in termini di conservazione; questo permette di impostare la vendita in confezione da 10 pezzi, così da poter essere presente nella GDO. Il prodotto dovrà avere un prezzo concorrenziale, mantenendosi al di sotto di 3-5 eurocent in più rispetto al prezzo di una cialda/capsula tradizionale. L'approvvigionamento di materie prime come amido e pectine, reperibili a livello locale dalle lavorazioni delle filiere agroalimentari, garantisce la realizzazione a costi contenuti.

Limiti della ricerca. *Le ricerche hanno portato alla realizzazione di un primo prototipo: una compressa di caffè utilizzabile all'interno della classica moka casalinga e delle macchine espresso con polvere di caffè o a cialde. Il prototipo, però, non è ancora pronto per uno scale-up dalla fase di laboratorio a quella industriale, in quanto non sono state ben definite tutte le sue caratteristiche. Al fine di avviare in azienda una vera e propria produzione della compressa è necessario individuare i macchinari e le nuove linee di produzione da seguire. Con riferimento al packaging secondario nel quale confezionare la compressa, promettenti sono i test di conservazione all'interno del film bio-based; ma le funzioni alle quali un imballaggio secondario deve rispondere sono sia tecniche che di marketing. Il caffè, ma in generale tutti i prodotti alimentari, è un sistema dinamico che ha una shelf-life limitata e richiede un packaging specifico. Il primo compito è quello di garantire la qualità del prodotto, concetto che varia a seconda del soggetto della filiera che si considera. Per l'azienda rappresenta la qualità tecnologica e commerciale; per il consumatore è un insieme di caratteristiche organolettiche, igienico-sanitarie, nutrizionali ed etiche. Ma il packaging ha anche un grande impatto sul marketing; insieme a prezzo, prodotto, punto di vendita e promozione la confezione rappresenta un fattore fondamentale del marketing-mix. Quindi il film bio-based oltre a proteggere il nuovo prodotto dovrà essere in grado di vendere ciò che protegge. Occorre dunque lavorare per rendere accattivante la nuova confezione e riconoscibile il brand. Affinché si possa avviare una produzione su larga scala, anche per il biofilm* *occorre individuare una nuova linea di produzione. Prima di procedere all'implementazione di una nuova linea di produzione per il biofilm occorrerà un'attenta analisi make or buy per capire se risulterà conveniente* realizzare il *packaging direttamente in azienda o sarà preferibile commissionare la realizzazione del biofilm all'esterno.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *La transizione verso un modello di business sostenibile è lenta e graduale. Le sfide ambientali e sociali devono rappresentare per gli imprenditori un input nel procedere al cambiamento graduale verso un modello di produzione sostenibile, che possa generare un impatto positivo sulle prospettive di successo nel lungo periodo. Ma questo passaggio non può avvenire in maniera immediata perché riguarda tutti gli aspetti di contesto e di processo dell'organizzazione. La sostenibilità dell'azienda è associata a comportamenti, iniziative e progetti sostenibili atti a promuovere nel processo di valorizzazione economica effetti e/o esternalità sociali-ambientali positivi e/o a mitigare, o eliminare definitivamente, effetti e/o esternalità sociali-ambientali negativi. Per arrivare a raggiungere la completa transizione occorre effettuare un passaggio culturale che porti ad una nuova definizione della creazione di valore. Un modo alternativo di pensare all'evoluzione del business model parte dalla concezione dello stesso come elemento di genesi di un vantaggio competitivo attraverso la creazione di valore più ampia per il cliente, poiché valorizza e contribuisce allo sviluppo sostenibile dell'azienda e della società [Lükede-Freund, 2010]. Un primo passo verso questa direzione per l'Azienda Caffè Aiello è stato quello di lavorare a progetti sostenibili concentrando gli sforzi su un nuovo prodotto eco-friendly. La sfida è ambiziosa, ma i primi risultati sono promettenti. Per poter realizzare il nuovo prodotto occorre predisporre una nuova linea di impianto. Tale aspetto richiede un investimento cospicuo che al momento non è possibile contabilizzare con esattezza. Da una prima analisi per la creazione della nuova compressa di caffè sarebbe possibile lavorare con opportuni upgrade ed improvement su macchinari già adoperati in altri ambiti di produzione alimentare, come ad esempio il comparto della pasta. Laddove si decidesse di realizzare anche il film bio-based internamente, sarebbe necessario realizzare una linea di produzione ex-novo, procedendo così ad un processo di integrazione verticale che mantenga al proprio interno l'intera supply chain. Tale aspetto rimane ancora da valutare opportunamente sulla base dei costi e delle strategie aziendali.*

Originalità del lavoro. *Il lavoro si inserisce in un ambito particolarmente innovativo perché accompagna una azienda caratterizzata da un modello di business legato alla produzione verso un modello di business sostenibile. Produzione e sostenibilità si fondono insieme per creare un prodotto capace di soddisfare le esigenze ed i bisogni del cliente e conquistare un mercato sempre più in evoluzione. Non esistono attualmente sul mercato compresse di caffè totalmente packaging free, ma solo prodotti con involucri biodegradabili o compostabili. I prodotti biodegradabili si decompongono entro sei mesi in molecole inorganiche semplici (acqua, CO_2, metano) attraverso la trasformazione operata da microorganismi. In tal caso l'involucro non può essere smaltito nella frazione umida. Un materiale organico viene definito compostabile se, mediante il processo di compostaggio, è in grado di trasformarsi in "compost" ricco di sostanze umiche e microorganismi da utilizzare come fertilizzante. Per poter essere definito compostabile il materiale deve essere biodegradabile, ridursi in frammenti inferiore ai 2 mm entro tre mesi, non rilasciare metalli pesanti o effetti negativi sul composto finale. Quando il consumatore si approccia ad un prodotto di questo tipo deve essere molto attento nell'individuazione della corretta collocazione a fine vita. Solo cialde e capsule compostabili possono essere gettate direttamente nell'umido, se si tratta di altri prodotti è necessario che vengano svuotati prima di poter essere riposti nell'apposito contenitore. Questo aspetto ha due problematiche fondamentali:*

1. *demanda al cliente finale la responsabilità e la verifica della corretta allocazione;*
2. *obbliga il produttore ad una chiara specifica sul packaging del prodotto per evitare che si verifichino situazioni fuorvianti per l'utente finale.*

*Un prodotto totalmente packaging free è già alla vista composto da soli alimenti e non lascia nessun dubbio sulla sua destinazione finale. Aggiunge, quindi, alla necessità espressa dal cliente in termini di "praticità" e "velocità di utilizzo" anche la "praticità di smaltimento". Inoltre, il prodotto proposto è più versatile perché destinato n*on solo alle *macchine espresso a cialde o capsule, ma anche alle macchine espresso che lavorano con il caffè macinato o alla classica moka casalinga. Questo aspetto rappresenta la vera innovazione ed originalità della ricerca, perché consente al prodotto di inserirsi in tutti i settori di mercato del caffè, assorbendo così le richieste di una più ampia platea di consumatori.*

Parole chiave: *sostenibilità, green economy, circular economy, caffè monoporzionato*.

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Il territorio di origine come elemento differenziante la qualità del prodotto biologico: il caso Fileni

GIULIA BORIONI[*]

Obiettivi. *Nella letteratura relativa al food marketing, la regione di origine del prodotto alimentare intesa come indicatore estrinseco di qualità, è stato oggetto di interesse, ma, sono ancora pochi gli studi che tengono in considerazione l'immagine della regione di origine (o territorio) come costrutto separato (Kuznesof, Tregear & Moxey,1997; Philippidis & Sanjuan, 2002; Van Ittersum et al. 2003; Dekhili,2010; Trigui & Giraud 2013; Zhang & Merunka 2014; 2015). Questi studi hanno esplorato cosa il consumatore intenda per prodotto regionale e, a cosa esso venga associato; nonché, come l'immagine di un territorio o regione possa impattare sulle preferenze e sul giudizio di autenticità e di qualità del prodotto alimentare tipico.*

L'effetto delle componenti della regione di origine è stato indagato sulla percezione degli attributi intrinseci e sulla qualità percepita del prodotto alimentare tipico (Dekhili,2010) ma, non ancora, su un prodotto alimentare biologico a carattere regionale.

Alcuni risultati mostrano che la comprensione del cibo regionale è "una dinamica complessa di concetti correlati'' (Kuznesof, Tregear, & Moxey, 1997), sarebbe quindi interessante, comprendere quali componenti impattino sulla qualità percepita di un prodotto biologico a carattere regionale nella prospettiva del consumatore.

Sebbene, sia stato studiato l'impatto generato dal territorio sulla qualità percepita degli alimenti, rimane ancora poco chiaro, se le caratteristiche di dato territorio possano costituire l'elemento differenziate della qualità del prodotto biologico. Inoltre, non è chiaro in che cosa la percezione della qualità del prodotto biologico differisca da quella del prodotto locale.

Il presente studio dà evidenza di come l'immagine del territorio di origine possa impattare sulla qualità percepita dai consumatori verso un prodotto alimentare biologico.

Comunicare la qualità intrinseca del prodotto alimentare ad un consumatore sempre più consapevole ed esigente, è una sfida molto complessa per le imprese. In particolare, per quanto riguarda l'universo degli alimenti biologici, le imprese devono far fronte ad una elevata concorrenza e rispondere ad una domanda sempre più orientata alla ricerca di sicurezza, qualità e autenticità.

In particolare, in Italia, è aumentato il numero degli operatori e della domanda sia nazionale che estera dei prodotti alimentari biologici e, il consumo negli ultimi dieci anni è in rapida crescita, per via della ricerca di salute e benessere imposta dall'emergenza sanitaria e a causa dell'attuale situazione pandemica (ISMEA-SINAB 2019). Pertanto, nella nostra regione, il 49% di piccole medie imprese alimentari ottimizzano la produzione migliorando la qualità delle materie prime o il 59% accresce l'interesse verso il biologico e la produzione integrata. Il 66% ricerca forme nuove di innovazione soprattutto in campo di nutrizione, salute e tracciabilità del prodotto per rispondere ad un consumatore post-moderno attento a ciò che consuma (Bentivoglio,2016).

Alla luce di tale evidenza, per far fronte ad un contesto di mercato biologico altamente competitivo e al fenomeno di consumo 'critico' (De Luca, 2006), le imprese necessitano attualmente di trovare nuove forme di differenziazione di natura oggettiva e soggettiva del prodotto biologico, sviluppando parametri qualitativi e aggiungendo valore all'offerta mediante segnali visibili di qualità che comunichino l'autenticità del prodotto.

A tal proposito, l'immagine del territorio diviene una leva strategica di comunicazione e ricopre un ruolo rilevante nelle strategie di differenziazione della qualità del prodotto.

Alla luce della letteratura di marketing analizzata, inoltre, il territorio di origine è riconosciuto come uno strumento efficace di branding che permette di comunicare le caratteristiche di una specifica area, esaltandone la qualità e l'autenticità del prodotto e del marchio. A tal proposito, si rimanda, ai contributi di Vescovi e Gazzola (2007); Zhang e Merunka (2014, 2015). Tuttavia, deve esserci una congruenza tra categoria di prodotto e il territorio di origine, al fine di generare un impatto positivo sulla percezione dell'autenticità del prodotto (Zhang e Merunka, 2013). In questo quadro, ciò che permette di distinguere la qualità di una determinata categoria prodotto sono le proprietà di un determinato territorio. Fonte e Agostino (2006), affermano che "nell' ambito dei sistemi locali si distinguono due principali categorie di "qualità". La prima è quella che sottolinea le caratteristiche specifiche del luogo di produzione (condizioni naturali, tradizioni culturali e gastronomiche…) o del processo di produzione (a carattere artigianale, legato ad aziende familiari e a tecniche agricole tradizionali), in quanto conferiscono al prodotto gusto e proprietà

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distintive (è questa la qualità che deriva dall'origine dei prodotti). La seconda è quella legata a specifiche condizioni del processo produttivo o dello scambio (l'agricoltura biologica o la produzione integrata, l'insieme di prodotti vicini ad una condizione di "naturalità", come i prodotti selvatici, o i prodotti del commercio equo e solidale)".

Dunque, l'immagine del territorio può giocare un ruolo fondamentale nel comunicare la qualità e l'autenticità dei prodotti alimentari che posseggono valori di: tradizione, cultura, nonché di difesa dell'ambiente.

Alla luce di tale evidenza, il presente studio, secondo la prospettiva del consumatore locale, esplora i tratti distintivi e caratterizzanti la qualità del territorio della regione Marche, che a loro volta, possono essere utilizzati nelle strategie di marketing al fine di differenziare e valorizzare un prodotto biologico di qualità.

In sintesi, la principale research question del presente contributo può essere sintetizzata nel modo che segue:

***RQ**: quali aspetti del territorio costituiscono l'elemento differenziante della qualità del prodotto biologico nella prospettiva del consumatore locale?*

Metodologia. *Per rispondere alla domanda di ricerca formulata, lo studio utilizza il metodo della ricerca qualitativa, a causa della mancanza di casi studio in letteratura sull'argomento affrontato. Nello specifico, questo lavoro intende dimostrare, attraverso il metodo del caso studio (Yin, 1994; Eisenhardt, 1989), che l'immagine di un territorio può essere un attributo estrinseco che consente di giudicare la qualità del prodotto biologico.*

Abbiamo pensato che, adottando un approccio qualitativo alla raccolta dei dati, permetterà di indagare sulle percezioni dei consumatori marchigiani sulla qualità del prodotto biologico, nel nostro caso: il pollo biologico prodotto dall'azienda Fileni; e ciò, avverrà, attraverso la comprensione delle associazioni legate al territorio locale.

La ragione di scelta della metodologia qualitativa deriva dal fatto che consente di esplorare in modo più dettagliato un fenomeno di cui c'è poca comprensione. Attraverso il metodo qualitativo, si cerca di approfondire il ruolo che svolge il territorio marchigiano nella scelta di acquisto di un prodotto di carne biologica. Nello specifico, basandoci sull'immagine del territorio Marche, si cerca di comprendere la percezione della qualità del prodotto di carne biologica, e si intende esplorare così, gli aspetti correlati a questo territorio, reputati fondamentali dal consumatore per giudicare la qualità di questo prodotto.

Risultati. *Lo studio mette in evidenza gli elementi associati all'immagine del territorio di origine, che il consumatore reputa di qualità e che gli permettono di distinguere la vera genuinità di un prodotto biologico da un altro sul mercato.*

Nella letteratura di marketing, il territorio di origine si configura come un indicatore estrinseco di qualità, che può essere utilizzato per differenziare il vero contenuto genuino di un prodotto (Zhang e Merunka, 2014).

Il territorio è stato definito, come: "the holistic combination in an environment of soil, climate, topography, and the 'soul' of the producer" (Iversen & Hem, 2008, p. 615). Il territorio si configura, cioè, come un'interazione di elementi, quali: il terreno, il clima, le tradizioni etc., ovvero, la compresenza di identità correlate all'ambiente naturale e alla cultura, le quali contraddistinguono, a loro volta, la qualità del prodotto. In questo senso, la qualità di un territorio caratterizzata dalla varietà di risorse materiali rispecchia la qualità del prodotto finale donandogli peculiarità organolettiche.

In alcuni studi, infatti, si rileva che la qualità verso prodotti originari da due regioni è percepita differentemente per via delle diverse condizioni climatiche (Van Ittersum et al., 2003). Dunque, secondo l'autore un prodotto di qualità è riconosciuto proprio in base alle caratteristiche fisiche del territorio (o regione), come il tipo di terreno o di clima, che differenziano la varietà e la qualità delle materie prime di cui si compone il prodotto.

Allo stesso modo, altri autori lo definiscono come 'la combinazione di risorse materiali e simboliche' carico di vari significati (Philippidis e Sanjuan A. 2002; Zhang e Merunka, 2015), definendolo: "a topographic metric space, characterised by continuity and contiguity. It generates meanings pertaining to the geographical and climatic environment (e.g., soil, sunshine, temperature) and ingredients (e.g. plants) linked to this natural environment. In addition, TOO activates meanings related to history, tradition, manufacturing methods or expertise, which all involve human factors" (Zhang e Merunka, 2015, p. 387). Secondo questi autori, queste associazioni al territorio generano un impatto positivo nella percezione del consumatore, portandolo a giudicare il prodotto 'autentico' e, a sua volta, a generare anche forti connessioni al marchio.

In questo senso, il territorio non solo partecipa nella costruzione dell'identità del prodotto ma anche della marca stessa. Per tale motivo, viene incorporato nelle strategie di comunicazione come strumento di connessione al patrimonio culturale o naturale di un determinato luogo. Ad esempio, i marchi dei parchi nazionali, esplicano l'attributo di naturalezza mediante il logo e il nome, incorporano i valori etici e, creano un collegamento del prodotto alimentare al luogo di origine o alla qualità delle materie prime (Temperini et al., 2017). Il marchio territoriale è definito come "un nome e/o un simbolo (logo o marchio) caratterizzante, che identifica un'area e la differenzia dai territori concorrenti, rappresentando la sintesi degli elementi oggettivi, cognitivi, valoriali, emozionali dell'offerta" (Pastore e Bonetti, 2006). Dunque, l'immagine territoriale da una lettura completa del marchio, ma anche il marchio stesso può offrire una sintesi delle qualità del prodotto legate al territorio.

Tuttavia, l'autenticità di un prodotto territoriale deriva anche dalla familiarità di un determinato luogo e dalla comprensione della cultura del posto. Infatti, da alcuni studi emerge che l'autenticità del prodotto territoriale sia correlata non solo a fattori legati al prodotto, quanto anche, a fattori personali e situazionali (Kuznesof et al., 1997). L'autenticità di un prodotto è un costrutto altamente soggettivo connesso alle caratteristiche del luogo di origine. Per i *prodotti tipici, ad esempio, la qualità è un costrutto soggettivo che si lega alla cultura del prodotto (Zhang e Merunka, 2015).*

La qualità di un prodotto tipico deriva essenzialmente dall'ambiente naturale, dal fattore umano e dalla produzione, dalla trasformazione e dalla preparazione che avvengono in una zona geografica delimitata (Bertozzi,1995). Tuttavia, per potersi generare una percezione di autenticità o di qualità, è necessaria, non solo familiarità con il luogo di origine, ma deve anche esserci una congruenza fra la categoria prodotto e l'ambiente naturale (Zhang e Merunka, 2015). Quest'ultimo aspetto è fondamentale nella valutazione del prodotto. In uno studio è stato rilevato che, se un paese che presenta un'immagine ecologica sfavorevole viene menzionato su un prodotto eco-certificato, ciò, genera una reputazione negativa del prodotto e, a maggior ragione, se il marchio non è dichiarato (Dekhili & Achabou, 2015).

Nella letteratura di marketing, il territorio di origine assume particolare rilevanza sia nella percezione della qualità verso il prodotto locale che, verso il prodotto biologico e, spesso queste due tipologie di prodotti assumono connotazioni similari proprio per via di associazioni legate al territorio di origine.

Nella letteratura analizzata, la qualità del prodotto biologico è valutata genuina e di maggiore qualità come il prodotto locale, per via di alcune proprietà legate al territorio in cui viene prodotto come l'ambiente naturale e il benessere animale (Roininen et al. 2006; Shafie & Rennie,2009).

Un altro aspetto che accomuna il prodotto regionale (o locale) al prodotto biologico è la distanza di trasporto. Uno studio rileva che le considerazioni etiche, relative alla salute, alla qualità e all'ambientalismo giocano un ruolo sempre più rilevante nell'acquisto dei prodotti alimentari biologici (Hjelmar, 2011). La distanza di trasporto breve è una ragione che induce a percepire il prodotto più sostenibile, per questo motivo, il consumatore acquista i prodotti biologici (Thøgersen et al. 2017; Hjelmar 2011). Allo stesso modo, i prodotti regionali sono percepiti più freschi, salutari e più sostenibili (Roininen et al. 2005; Darby et al. 2006), nonché, preferiti per il rispetto ambientale e animale e per la distanza di trasporto breve, in quanto conferiscono al consumatore una maggiore freschezza del prodotto e maggiore qualità e sicurezza alimentare (Roininen et al. 2005; Naspetti e Zanoli, 2009).

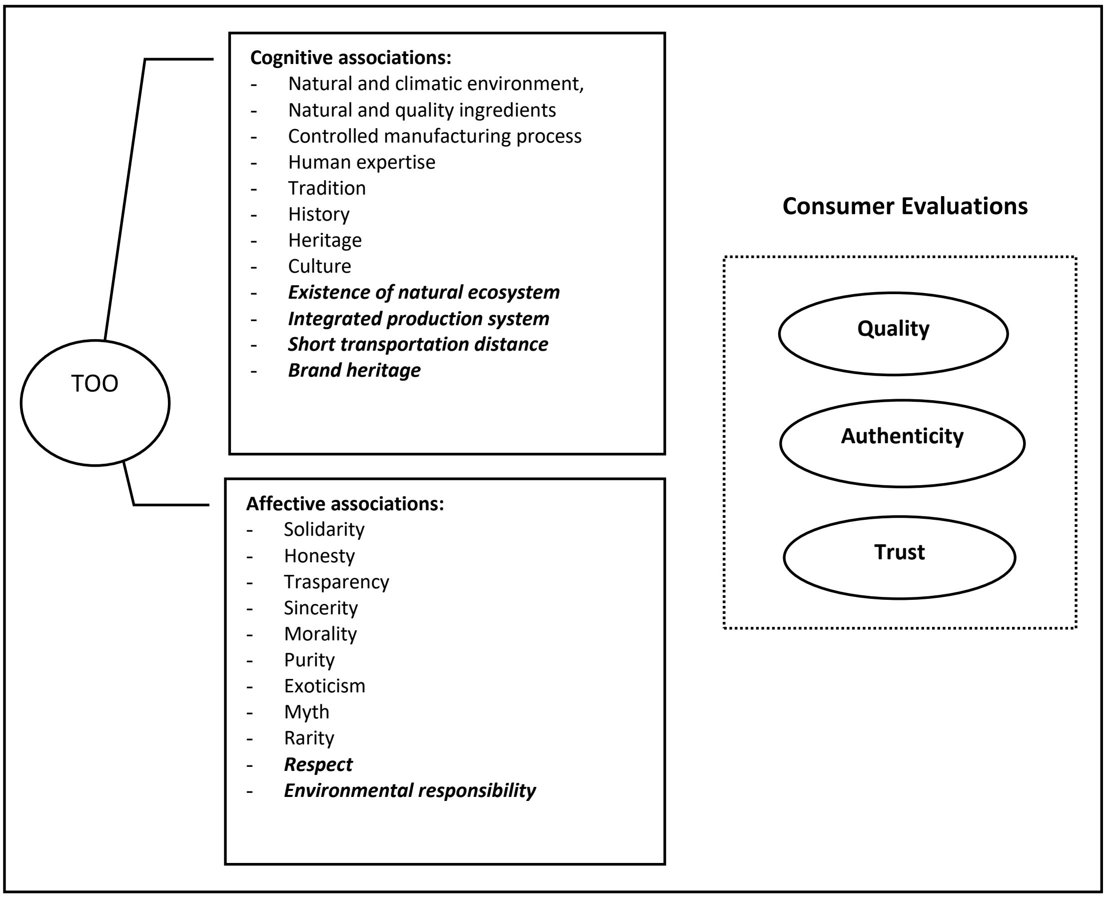
Alla luce di tale evidenza, dunque, anche in riferimento ad un prodotto biologico con forte connotazione regionale, potrebbero valere le stesse caratteristiche territoriali del quadro delle associazioni cognitive e affettive riportate da Zhang e Merunka (2014). La qualità organolettica di questo prodotto potrebbe essere percepita mediante sia caratteristiche dell'ambiente naturale, quanto anche attraverso il rispetto posto in essere dai produttori locali verso il territorio e i suoi ecosistemi mediante processi produttivi in linea con i principi ecosostenibili. Alcuni risultati dimostrano che, i fattori che incidono sulle percezioni di qualità e autenticità di un prodotto, sono non solo la zona di provenienza delle materie prime e la tradizione, quanto anche il processo produttivo 'handmade' e quello biologico (Bryla, 2017; Chousou e Mattas, 2019).

Come per i prodotti a carattere puramente territoriale teorizzato da Zhang e Merunka (2014), la dimostrazione di un approccio sostenibile di produzione di un prodotto biologico a carattere regionale, aggiungerebbe allo stesso modo valori di: onesta, sincerità e trasparenza.

Inoltre, il territorio si caratterizza anche di storiche realtà industriali, pertanto, tra le caratteristiche cognitive, dovrebbe rientrare anche 'brand heritage' in quanto, un territorio o regione può rimandare anche al ricordo di specifico marchio e alla sua storia o all'impegno per lo sviluppo sostenibile del territorio.

Rielaborando lo schema delle risorse simboliche e materiali connesse al territorio di origine fornito da Zhang e Merunka (2015), è stato possibile, aggiungere associazioni legate al territorio di origine anche in riferimento ad un prodotto biologico a carattere regionale. Nella rappresentazione rielaborata sottostante, sono stati aggiunti anche caratteristiche di sostenibilità legate al territorio, che possono differenziare la vera genuinità del prodotto biologico da un altro, come avviene generalmente anche per i prodotti a carattere territoriale.

Elaborazione di autore basata su Zhang e Merunka (2014)



Limiti della ricerca. *Considerando che il contributo si basa su un caso studio, i risultati non possono essere generalizzati. Pertanto, ulteriori ricerche empiriche dovrebbero essere sviluppate in un'altra regione per comprendere se vi sono differenze nelle percezioni della qualità del prodotto alimentare biologico.*

Inoltre, l'immagine del territorio potrebbe essere utilizzata in un altro studio anche per comprendere le differenze esistenti nella percezione della qualità del prodotto locale e di quello biologico; dal momento che, diversi studi, rilevano che questi due prodotti sono tra loro sia sostituti che complementari (Naspetti e Bodini, 2008; Meas et al. 2015).

Considerando il territorio un fattore che permette al consumatore di giudicare la qualità del prodotto alimentare, in questo studio, si è cercato di comprendere principalmente in che cosa il territorio permetta di differenziare la qualità del prodotto alimentare biologico. Per questo studio, si adotta un metodo qualitativo su un caso studio e lo scopo è volto principalmente ad esplorare il fenomeno in questione dal momento che "confini tra fenomeno e il contesto non sono stati chiaramente evidenti" (Yin,1994, p.13). Tuttavia, attraverso i risultati derivanti dall'analisi qualitativa sarà possibile sviluppare in seguito, una seconda fase di ricerca con una raccolta e analisi di dati quantitativi per offrire un contributo saliente (Creswell, 2009).

Implicazioni pratiche. *Dai risultati teorici del presente lavoro si rilevano implicazioni manageriali di interesse per le strategie di differenziazione del prodotto biologico.*

In questo contributo teorico le implicazioni pratiche risiedono nell'esplorare le complesse associazioni che esistono in merito al territorio percepito in riferimento ad un prodotto biologico e nel fornire evidenza, che dimostri che gli aspetti percepiti di qualità legati al territorio possano impattare sul giudizio di qualità, autenticità e sicurezza percepita anche verso i prodotti alimentare biologico a carattere regionale e non solo per quelli tipici.

I risultati teorici dimostrano che, i business per dare un valore aggiunto al prodotto biologico, devono tenere in considerazione non solo caratteristiche intrinseche di qualità, quanto anche aspetti estrinseci, che permettono di giudicare la vera genuinità di un prodotto biologico alimentare. Gli aspetti estrinseci da valorizzare sul prodotto biologico dovrebbero rimandare a caratteristiche di qualità del territorio di origine al fine di creare valutazioni positive sulla qualità organolettica del prodotto e sul marchio.

Originalità del lavoro. *La ricerca contribuisce all'avanzamento della conoscenza sul tema della qualità percepita del prodotto alimentare biologico con riferimento alle associazioni date dai consumatori al territorio sia sul fronte teorico, che professionale.*

Questo studio riconosce la rilevanza dell'immagine territoriale nelle strategie di differenziazione della qualità di un prodotto biologico, nonché concilia sia gli aspetti intrinseci di qualità del prodotto biologico quanto anche quelli estrinseci come il luogo di origine.

La letteratura di food marketing è corposa sul tema del territorio di origine, ma rimane ancora inesplorato il suo impatto sul percepito della qualità del prodotto alimentare biologico.

L'originalità di questo studio risiede proprio nel considerare l'immagine del territorio come un costrutto separato, al fine di comprendere il percepito della qualità del prodotto biologico. In questo modo, si cerca di risalire ai tratti distintivi del territorio che a loro volta, possono distinguerlo da un altro sul mercato. Pertanto, i risultati dello studio in oggetto, arricchiscono la letteratura e forniscono spunti di riflessione per il marketing management. Le associazioni dei consumatori in merito al territorio possono essere utili in futuro ai responsabili di marketing, in quanto permette loro di comprendere gli aspetti che qualificano il territorio e a sua volta di comunicarli sul prodotto. Valorizzare il proprio prodotto con una immagine specifica legata alla qualità del territorio in cui esse operano, permette, a sua volta, di differenziarlo da un altro sul mercato e di rafforzare l'immagine del marchio.

Parole chiave: *prodotto biologico, territorio di origine, qualità percepita, locale, prodotto regionale*.

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La gestione dei punti vendita di street food nel periodo COVID-19: un'analisi comparata

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Obiettivi. *Il presente lavoro si pone l'obiettivo di analizzare i principali cambiamenti avvenuti nella gestione dei punti vendita di street food, con specifico riferimento al "change management" generato nel corso dell'anno 2020 dalla pandemia da Coronavirus (COVID-19). In una società caratterizzata da ritmi sempre più frenetici, lo street food rappresenta un modello di consumo diffuso (Ukenna & Ayodele, 2019), in grado di creare valore per il cliente finale e per le imprese, trasferendo tramite i prodotti alimentari i valori culturali radicati nei territori (Lo Monaco & Bonetto, 2019). In accordo con la definizione della FAO (2011), lo street food può essere definito come quell'insieme di pratiche che portano gli individui al consumo di "cibo e bevande pronti da mangiare preparati e/o venduti da venditori ambulanti, principalmente posizionati in luoghi pubblici di passaggio o in strade particolarmente trafficate". Questa particolare formula di ristorazione, in cui il consumo dei prodotti avviene solitamente in strada o presso dei punti d'appoggio, prevede cibi economici e fortemente connessi con la tradizione culturale culinaria tipica del luogo in cui la specificità degli odori e dell'aspetto dei prodotti stimola l'acquisto da parte del consumatore (Coary, 2018).*

Negli ultimi anni, il consumo di cibo di strada è stato spesso direttamente connesso alla "proposta" di piatti tradizionali rivisitati in chiave moderna; ciò ha permesso il consumo sul luogo e il take-away di prodotti alimentari (Privitera & Nesci, 2015), assumendo un ruolo chiave anche nel processo decisionale del consumatore / turista. In quest'ottica che potremmo definire "place-specific", lo street food contribuisce notevolmente ad incentivare il turismo - data la sua natura di attrattore culturale - grazie alla forte attrattività che le pietanze tipiche del luogo (e.g. pizza napoletana, piadina romagnola, arancino siciliano, etc.) hanno sui consumatori residenti e turisti (stanziali e non). Il cibo da strada, in alcuni casi di successo, è risultato essere un "value driver" critico nell'offerta turistica, paragonabile all'efficienza dei trasporti o alla centralità e comodità di un alloggio (Bellia et al., 2016) ed è in grado di poter orientare i turisti verso l'apprezzamento della cultura locale (World Food Travel Association, 2018). Naturalmente, adottando una prospettiva puramente manageriale (company-specific), le imprese di street food sono a conoscenza del fatto che creano un'esperienza unica e distintiva fruibile da consumatori trend setter (residenti e non nei luoghi di vendita dei prodotti alimentari), sviluppando spesso forti relazioni di marca (consumer-brand relationship) che portano ad elevate customer loyalty determinate anche dalla qualità dei prodotti, dall'atmosfera e dai servizi offerti in tutto il processo di acquisto nelle fasi ante, in itinere e post acquisto (Jin et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2017). Nell'evidenza empirica, le formule di retail per la vendita di cibo da strada sono variegate e presenti spesso quali formule mobili rappresentate da venditori ambulanti con carretti e baracche (Manguiat & Fang, 2013), tipologie fisse con veri e propri piccoli negozi o ad esempio formule ibride come i cosiddetti "food truck", cioè grandi veicoli attrezzati alla vendita di cibo (Gupta et al., 2018). In letteratura molteplici sono gli studi che trattano l'innovazione e l'espansione eseguita dai punti di vendita dello street food, adottando processi simili a quelli dei franchising, una formula che attribuisce i benefici d'immagine e "know-how" interconnessi al franchisor, ottimizzando le possibilità di successo (Chong & Stephenson, 2020). Alcuni studi inerenti i tradizionali punti vendita di street food sottolineano la mancanza di conoscenza nella gestione del retailing e la scarsa propensione all'innovazione di prodotto (Khongtong et al., 2014), fattori critici di successo che spesso risultano essere importanti per sostenere il vantaggio competitivo nel tempo (Matzembacher et al., 2019).

Nel corso degli ultimi dodici mesi, peraltro, il settore dei servizi di ristorazione - in particolare i punti vendita di street food, in cui l'affluenza di persone "gioca" un ruolo chiave - è stato duramente colpito dagli effetti generati dall'epidemia COVID-19 arrivata in modo inaspettato in tutto il mondo, arrecando gravi danni a tutti i business che si basano sulla mobilità degli individui e generando notevoli perdite economiche per le imprese presenti in tali settori. In ambito europeo, a partire dal 9 marzo 2020, con il primo e improvviso "lockdown" in Italia, si sono modificate le

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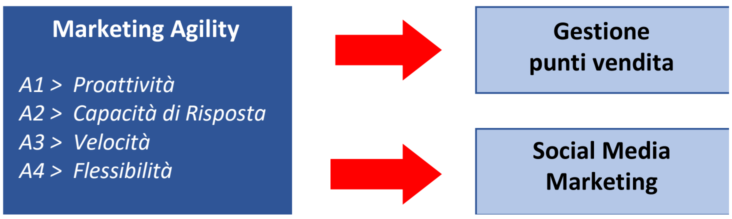
abitudini di consumo delle persone e anche il loro modo di fruire dei servizi di ristorazione. La chiusura dei ristoranti e le stringenti normative che portano alla limitazione della mobilità hanno spinto le persone a consumare i pasti all'esterno dei punti vendita, preferendo formule take-away o delivery (Goddard, 2020), generando un contestuale maggiore utilizzo dei servizi digitali e un più elevato numero di visualizzazioni delle pagine aziendali dei brand presenti sui principali social media - specialmente da parte delle giovani generazioni - nel settore dei servizi di ristorazione (Habes et al., 2020; Mason et al., 2021). Negli ultimi mesi, pertanto, il consumo di cibo da strada - come per tante formule di fast food - ha portato sempre più i clienti a vivere "esperienze ibride", in cui la dimensione di fruizione tradizionale dei cibi (ambiente offline) è stata accompagnata da una dimensione informativa, transattiva e valutativa dei cibi vissuta su piattaforme digitali (ambiente online). Il social media marketing, pertanto, è diventato negli ultimi mesi sempre più rilevante nella misura in cui fornisce alle imprese del settore alcune soluzioni per coinvolgere e comunicare con i clienti in modo diretto ed innovativo. Peraltro, contestualmente i clienti hanno assunto sempre più un ruolo chiave nel condividere informazioni e attrarre nuovi potenziali acquirenti sulle pagine social dei brand attraverso pratiche di passaparola digitale (eWOM - electronic word of mouth: Serra Cantallops & Salvi, 2014), che sottolineano il ruolo dell'atmosfera del punto di vendita, della bontà dei prodotti alimentari e/o della qualità del servizio di erogazione / delivery nel creare valore per il cliente di servizi di street food.

Questi cambiamenti, rilevanti sia nell'ambiente competitivo che nell'evoluzione dei comportamenti dei consumatori, dimostrano l'importanza per le imprese di successo di reagire rapidamente ai fattori critici di natura esogena, adottando un approccio proattivo di risposta basato su meccanismi reattivi, negli ultimi anni descritti in alcuni studi che approfondiscono caratteristiche e dimensioni distintive della cosiddetta "marketing agility". Nello specifico, per marketing agility si intende l'abilità dell'impresa di percepire i cambiamenti del mercato ed anticiparli proattivamente, rispondendo e reagendo ad essi cercando di trarne un vantaggio competitivo (Osei et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2019; Kalaignanam et al., 2021). Numerosi sono gli studi che identificano le dimensioni della marketing agility (Zhou et al., 2019; Moi & Cabiddu, 2020; Kalaignanam et al., 2021). Tra questi Zhou et al. (2019) identificano quattro principali abilità di marketing agile di cui imprese dovrebbero disporre per fornire risposte ai cambiamenti del mercato: 1. Proattività (Proactiveness - P), definita come la capacità di anticipare e stimolare la domanda dei consumatori; 2. Capacità di Risposta (Responsiveness - R), definita come l'abilità di un'impresa di indentificare cambiamenti nel mercato e trasformarle in opportunità; 3. Velocità (Speed - S), identificata come lo sforzo di marketing di anticipare e rispondere rapidamente ai bisogni del mercato; 4. Flessibilità (Flexibility - F), intesa come lo sforzo di marketing sviluppato da un'impresa al fine di produrre differenti combinazioni di prodotti e/o servizi in modo efficiente ed efficace.

Coerentemente a quanto fin qui affermato, per reagire ai cambiamenti indotti sul mercato dalla pandemia del COVID-19, l'approccio del marketing agility può diventare una determinante chiave nei modelli decisionali a supporto della gestione dei punti vendita e del social media marketing nel settore dello street food, ai fini del sostenimento del vantaggio competitivo. Tale assunto è posto alla base del disegno di ricerca adottato nel presente lavoro (Figura 1).

Fig. 1: L'approccio di marketing agility nell'erogazione di servizi di street food: il disegno di ricerca adottato.



Fonte: ns. elaborazione

Partendo da questi presupposti, pertanto, lo studio qui proposto cerca di rispondere alle seguenti domande di ricerca: RQ1. Nel business dello street food, qual è l'utilità e l'efficacia delle principali abilità di impresa che consentono di adottare un approccio di marketing agile in risposta ai cambiamenti del mercato? RQ2. Quali sono le principali strategie e pratiche manageriali che le imprese di street food possono sviluppare presso il punto vendita e/o in ambiente digitale, quale risposta ai cambiamenti generati dalla pandemia COVID-19?

Metodologia. *La metodologia di ricerca adottata nello sviluppo dello studio qui presentato si basa su un'analisi esplorativa di natura qualitativa, fondata sulla comparazione di tre casi di imprese italiane (multiple case study method: Yin, 2009) presenti nel business dello street food. La scelta delle imprese è stata effettuata adottando tre principali criteri di selezione: a. imprese italiane di settore con presenza di molteplici punti vendita in territorio nazionale e/o internazionale; b. imprese che offrono prodotti di street food tipici del loro territorio di origine (tali imprese, quindi, possiedono fattori critici di successo di natura place-specific); c. imprese che abbiamo sviluppato, già prima del manifestarsi del cambiamento esogeno COVID-19, pratiche di gestione delle relazioni marca-cliente (consumer-brand relationship) in ambiente digitale e non.*

La collazione dei dati si basa principalmente su fonti di natura secondaria, quali: (1) documenti ufficiali delle imprese selezionate; (2) dati e informazioni provenienti dai siti web ufficiali e dalle pagine social dei brand selezionati; (3) report di associazioni di categoria inerenti il settore dello street food; (4) articoli e report presenti in giornali economici e di settore. La ricerca si è avvalsa anche del metodo dell'osservazione partecipante (participant observation research methods: Lee, Broderick, 2007), mediante fruizione di esperienze di consumo e partecipazione attiva ad alcune attività sviluppate dalle imprese analizzati sui social media da parte di uno dei co-autori. Il periodo di osservazione oggetto del presente studio è stato pari a circa dodici mesi (9 marzo 2020 - 28 febbraio 2021).

Nello specifico, le tre imprese selezionate per lo sviluppo dello studio esplorativo sono state: "Capatoast", "Pescaria" e "All'antico Vinaio".

Capatoast è una catena di Toasterie nata a Napoli in Campania nel 2014 diventata oggi una importante realtà nel panorama della ristorazione veloce in Italia con 37 punti vendita aperti su tutto il territorio nazionale che, fin dal principio, ha puntato sulla qualità delle materie prime e sull'artigianalità dei processi (https://capatoast.it/).

Pescaria, nata a Polignano a Mare in Puglia nel 2015, è la prima realtà nel panorama della ristorazione veloce in Italia ad offrire prodotti ittici che rispettino la tradizione culinaria pugliese mantenendo contenuti i costi. Oggigiorno, Pescaria ha potuto espandere il proprio business investendo in altre quattro città: Milano, Torino, Bologna e Roma (https://www.pescaria.it/it/).

All'antico Vinaio apre nel 1989 a Firenze in Toscana, si trasforma in un punto vendita di street food nel 2006, offrendo come prodotto principale le "schiacciate" con tipici prodotti della regione Toscana. Oltre alla sede storica situata a Firenze all'antico vinaio si trova a Milano ed ha aperto due pop-up store rispettivamente New York e Los Angeles (https://www.allanticovinaio.com/).

Risultati. *L'analisi empirica sviluppata nel presente lavoro ha consentito di mettere in evidenza alcune delle principali strategie adottabili da parte delle imprese di street food per rispondere in modo agile ai cambiamenti nei comportamenti di consumo avvenuti a causa della pandemia COVID-19. In tale business, infatti, la risposta delle imprese al cambiamento può essere favorita da un approccio di marketing agility che si basa su quattro abilità fondamentali, utili ad ottenere e sostenere un vantaggio competitivo determinato: da un lato dalle capacità di proattività (A1) e propensione alla risposta (A2) delle imprese; dall'altro dagli sforzi di marketing compiuti dalle imprese, caratterizzati da velocità (A3) e flessibilità (A4) delle azioni da implementare "sul campo".*

In base alle analisi effettuate sulle imprese oggetto di studio, è possibile osservare che nello street food si possono utilizzare numerose pratiche di marketing che si basano sulla capacità proattiva di interpretare i bisogni della domanda: tale approccio è coerente con attività implementate dalle imprese analizzate, quali le pubblicità sponsorizzate indirizzate al target aziendale per creare nuovi bisogni nella mente del consumatore (A1). In questa prospettiva, peraltro, è importante per le imprese adottare contestualmente capacità dinamiche che sostengano la propensione alla risposta ai nuovi bisogni del mercato. Ciò è avvenuto nel caso delle imprese selezionate, pronte a monitorare le pagine dei social network per identificare e rispondere alle preferenze dei consumatori e allo stesso tempo intrattenerli creando una cosiddetta nuova "hybrid customer experience" (A2) basata su meccanismi di comunicazione e consumo dei prodotti food in ambito sia reale che digitale. Inoltre, per sostenere nel tempo il vantaggio competitivo, è stato importante per le imprese oggetto di studio rispondere velocemente ai cambiamenti ambientali e adattare le diverse di formule di distribuzione alle mutevoli esigenze dei consumatori (A3). Infine, nella propensione delle imprese è stato fondamentale considerare la capacità di essere flessibili nelle azioni di marketing proposte, cercando da un lato di innovare i prodotti già presenti in portafoglio, dall'altro di ampliare le offerte per soddisfare le richieste dei consumatori sempre più attenti ed esigenti (A4). Il modello di business (i.e. take-away & delivery) e le strategie di crescita adottate attraverso l'apertura di nuovi punti vendita in franchising, hanno permesso alle tre imprese di fronteggiare le difficoltà derivanti dalla pandemia del COVID-19. Inoltre, le strategie di marketing sui social media si stanno dimostrando uno strumento importante per creare brand awareness e attirare nuovi clienti verso l'offerta disponibile presso il punto vendita e/o mediante delivery attraverso l'uso di piattaforme digitali. Ciò ci consente di poter affermare che le principali capacità di impresa caratterizzanti un approccio di marketing agile è risultato essere utile ed efficace nella gestione dei servizi di street food erogati nel periodo di pandemia COVID-19 in risposta ai cambiamenti del mercato.

Nell'ambito della ricerca empirica, inoltre, sono state analizzate comparativamente le strategie adottate dalle tre imprese oggetto di indagine, sia per ciò che riguarda la gestione di punti di vendita, sia con riferimento alle pratiche di social media marketing (Tabella 1). Per ciascuna strategia e/o azione analizzata, è stata valutata la presenza di capacità dinamiche di marketing agility (i.e. P: Proactiveness; R: Responsiveness; S: Speed; F: Flexibility) a supporto della implementazione della suddetta pratica manageriale.

Tab. 1: Strategie e pratiche manageriali adottate dalle imprese di street food analizzate nella ricerca.

Impresa / Brand	Gestione dei punti di vendita	Capacità di marketing agile	Social media marketing	Capacità di marketing agile
Capatoast	– Apertura nuovi punti vendita	P-R-S	– Promozione digitale di nuove offerte	P-R-S-F
	– Erogazione servizio mediante Apecar (CAPATOAST On the Road)	P-R-F	– Azione di marketing virale (apertura nuovo punto di vendita)	P-R-S
	– Servizi di delivery & take-away prenotabile online	P-R-S-F	– Ricerche di mercato con i consumatori	P-R-S-F
	–Differenziazione dell'offerta	P-R-S-F	– Partnership strategiche (e.g. con prosciuttificio Tanara)	P-R-S-F
	–Configurazione servizio Healthy	P-R-S-F	– Marketing sociale (e.g. iniziativa "Veganuary")	P-R-S-F
Pescaria	– Apertura nuovi punti vendita	P-R-S	– Promozione digitale di nuove offerte	P-R-S-F
	– Strategie di outsourcing (e.g. cucina)	R-F	– Azione di marketing virale (apertura nuovo punto di vendita)	P-R-S
	– Localizzazione dei punti vendita	P-R-S	– Interattività con i consumatori	P-R-S-F
	– Digitalizzazione dei processi di erogazione servizi nel punto vendita	R-S-F	– Strategie di marketing sostenibile per la salvaguardia del mare (e.g. friend of the sea)	P-R-S
	– Servizi di delivery & take-away prenotabile online	P-R-S-F		
	– Differenziazione dell'offerta	P-R-S-F		
	– Configurazione servizio healthy	P-R-S-F		
All'Antico Vinaio	– Apertura nuovi punti di vendita	P-R-S	– Promozione digitale di nuove offerte	P-R-S-F
	– Servizi di delivery & take-away prenotabile online	P-R-S-F	– Azione di marketing virale (apertura nuovo punto di vendita)	P-R-S
	– Differenziazione dell'offerta	P-R-S-F	– Ricerche di mercato con i consumatori	P-R-S-F
			– Influencer marketing	P-R-S

Legenda. Valutazione della presenza di capacità di marketing agile alla base delle azioni/strategie adottate dalle imprese analizzate (P: Proactiveness; R: Responsiveness; S: Speed; F: Flexibility).

Fonte: Ns. Elaborazione.

In particolare, analizzando il brand Capatoast, le strategie adottate che sono risultate essere agili riguardo alla gestione dei punti vendita si sono rivelate utili a rispettare gli obiettivi a lungo termine prefissati prima della pandemia come ad esempio: a. l'apertura di nuovi punti vendita in grado di stimolare la domanda dei consumatori; b. la rapida risposta alle normative restringenti alla mobilità con l'introduzione di nuove formule di distribuzione. In quest'ottica, Capatoast per cercare di generare degli acquisti d'impulso nei consumatori ha introdotto una formula di distribuzione mobile, ovvero un'Apecar che viene utilizzato durante fiere e concerti (CAPATOAST On the Road); c. lo sforzo nel differenziare e nel produrre prodotti distanti dal core-product del business per rispondere alle mutevoli esigenze del mercato (e.g. Bowl) o cercare di soddisfare i consumatori sempre più esigenti e attenti a quello che è il cibo salutare con proposte "healthy". Invece, tra le pratiche di social media marketing che sono state attuate e si sono rivelate agili in risposta al cambiamento ambientale si ricordano: a. la capacità di utilizzare le pagine social del brand per proporre nuovi prodotti, sfruttando anche la viralità dei contenuti, in grado di generale un passaparola virtuale; b. le campagne di marketing sociale in grado di fare sentire il consumatore parte di iniziative volte al benessere sociale e/o fisico.

Le strategie messe in atto da Pescaria sono risultate essere simili a quelle adottate dal brand Capatoast. Infatti, per ciò che concerne la gestione dei punti di vendita sono stati rispettati anche in questo caso gli obiettivi di lungo termine, aprendo nuovi punti vendita e programmandone l'apertura di altri. Inoltre, sono state introdotte delle nuove formule di distribuzione - come il delivery o il takeaway - prenotabili dal sito ufficiale dell'impresa. Di particolare rilievo, inoltre, è risultata essere la differenziazione del prodotto che cerca di soddisfare le mutevoli domande dei consumatori scostandosi anche dal "core product" (ovvero i panini di pesce) proponendo prodotti anche per diversi target (e.g. crudi di pesce) e implementando anche cibi per cercare di andare incontro ad esigente "healthy". Data l'eccessiva domanda di prodotto da parte dei consumatori e per cercare di soddisfarla sono state adottate strategie di outsorcing utilizzando ad esempio cucine esterne. Appare interessante sottolineare che, in controtendenza rispetto a quanto sviluppato da altre imprese di street food, Pescaria nella localizzazione dei punti di vendita non posiziona gli store nelle strade di passaggio o nei centri città affollati, in quanto vi è la convinzione che è il consumatore che "deve" ricercare il punto vendita attratto dal brand. Pescaria puntando su una pubblicità avvenuta solo tramite i social media ha fatto di questo uno strumento per promuovere i propri prodotti con la consapevolezza che questi abbiano una forte componente virale e che quindi possono generare un passaparola positivo tra i consumatori creando brand awareness e customer engagement. Anche in questo caso il consumatore attraverso i commenti e le opinioni ai post delle pagine contribuisce a creare valore dando la possibilità di modificare e creare nuovi prodotti in grado di soddisfare il consumatore ripetitivo ed attrarre nuovi potenziali acquirenti. Infine, il rispetto e la salvaguardia dei mari sono elementi in grado di dare un plus alla brand image al fine di far sentire il consumatore partecipe nel salvaguardare l'ambiente. All'Antico Vinaio, invece, ha adottato un'altra strategia per quanto riguarda la differenziazione dei *prodotti, cercando di rispettare la sua tradizione e puntando quindi solo su una vasta scelta senza allontanarsi dal core-product rappresentato dalle "schiacciate". I social media sono lo strumento che permetta al suddetto brand di avere visibilità e attirare i consumatori allo store, proponendo i nuovi prodotti attraverso video ed immagini (si veda il concetto già enunciato di "hybrid customer experience"). Lanciando hashtag, in grado di diventare virali, come ad esempio "#badacomelafuma", i manager dell'impresa sono consapevoli del fatto che i consumatori, una volta concluso il processo d'acquisto, hanno la possibilità e l'intenzione di pubblicare contenuti ed attrare i propri amici e non allo store.*

Dall'analisi delle singole pratiche adottate da ciascuna impresa, pertanto, si è potuto vedere quali sono quelle che hanno contribuito in modo agile a sostenere il vantaggio competitivo nel periodo della pandemia COVID-19. Un'impresa operante nel settore dello street food, per adottare un approccio di marketing agility, dovrebbe cercare di rispondere in modo rapido ai cambiamenti dell'ambiente cercando di cogliere quelle che sono le esigenze dei consumatori proponendo sempre soluzioni innovative. Inoltre, un fattore determinante è risultato quello della differenziazione di prodotto, in cui in alcuni casi per rispondere alle esigenze di mercato e dei consumatori bisogna spingersi anche al di là del proprio core product (e.g. Capatoast con i bowl e Pescaria con i crudi di pesce). È da tenere in considerazione il ruolo che i social media hanno per le imprese operanti nel settore dello street food e quanto essi possano essere uno strumento utile per cogliere le nuove esigenze dei "consumatori digitali" spingendosi anche in pratiche di raccolta dati (e.g. questionario somministrato ai consumatori da Capatoast) e per diffondere / comunicare il valore delle offerte fruibili mediante formule utili a superare le limitazione della mobilità delle persone - delivery e take-away - dovute alla pandemia COVID-19.

Limiti della ricerca. *Il presente lavoro si basa su un disegno di ricerca di natura esplorativa, finalizzato a comprendere il fenomeno del change management - nella gestione dei punti vendita di street food - determinato dagli effetti della limitazione della mobilità delle persone e dall'evoluzione dei comportamenti di consumo generati dalla pandemia COVID-19. In questa prima fase del progetto di ricerca, i risultati presentati fanno riferimento ad un'analisi (qualitativa) comparata di tre casi d'impresa selezionati nel contesto italiano. Naturalmente, la ricerca allo stadio attuale presente alcuni limiti che peraltro evidenziano contestualmente opportunità di ricerca futura. Tra i principali limiti, in primis si evidenzia che la ricerca è stata effettuata utilizzando fonti di natura secondaria, senza l'utilizzo di interviste di profondità con i manager delle imprese selezionate. In secundis, la selezione delle imprese è stata effettuata individuando aziende originarie del contesto italiano, radicate in specifici territori dotati di tradizioni culinarie decennali; risulterebbe sicuramente interessante in un prossimo futuro selezionare imprese di altri contesti culturali che, rispondendo ai criteri di selezioni adottati, possano evidenziare approcci diversi al cambiamento manageriale (cross-cultural analysis). Infine, si evidenzia che nello studio del fenomeno - in questa fase analizzato, valutando le strategie e le pratiche adottate dalle imprese - potrebbe essere opportuno studiare il cambiamento e la risposta di marketing agility come percepita da parte dei consumatori: tale ulteriore step di ricerca, peraltro, consentirebbe di sviluppare una ricerca di campo mediante somministrazione di questionari ai clienti di servizi di street food, adottando tecniche di ricerca sociale di natura quantitativa.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *I manager delle imprese di street food dovrebbero prendere in considerazione il fatto che la marketing agility è un approccio manageriale utile a sostenere il vantaggio competitivo come risposta al cambiamento dovuto a fattori esogeni. Nel periodo della pandemia COVID-19, peraltro, le strategie di marketing adottate dalle imprese eroganti servizi di street food sono state in parte "traslate" sulle pagine ufficiali delle imprese presenti sui social media. Tali pratiche si sono dimostrate come uno strumento importante per creare brand engagement, attirando nuovi consumatori verso il punto vendita. Da qui l'esigenza di iniziare a valutare l'importanza del ruolo che i consumatori hanno nel contribuire a creare valore per le imprese, sia in ambiente digitale che in quello tradizionale, e del fatto che i clienti possono diventare dei veri e propri "apostoli" del brand, in grado di co-creare valore per/con l'impresa vivendo una "hybrid customer experience", sia nei punti di contatto tradizionali (es. punto di vendita) che nei canali digitali (es. social media).*

Originalità del lavoro. *La ricerca qui presentata offre una lettura critica - seppur di natura esplorativa - della gestione del cambiamento manageriale nei processi di organizzazione ed erogazione di servizi food, dovuto agli effetti generati dalla pandemia COVID-19. Il presente lavoro, peraltro, può fornire delle linee guida originali per le imprese operanti nel settore del cibo di strada, suggerendo l'adozione di un approccio di marketing agility, nonché l'utilizzo di pratiche di social media marketing in grado di creare customer engagement, sia nel canale digitale che in quello tradizionale.*

Parole chiave: *Street food, gestione servizi, punto vendita, social media marketing, marketing agility.*

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L’impatto dei Social Media nella formazione dell’intenzione imprenditoriale degli studenti

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Obiettivi. *La student entrepreneurship rappresenta un campo di ricerca che sta acquisendo sempre più importanza, in quanto lo sviluppo precoce delle intenzioni imprenditoriali è considerato un fattore determinante nello sviluppo di una successiva persistenza negli sforzi per avviare un'impresa (DeGeorge and Fayolle, 2008). Nel campo dell'imprenditorialità, alcuni autori hanno sottolineato che la fase ideale per acquisire informazioni e conoscenze di base sull'imprenditorialità e per promuovere un atteggiamento positivo nei confronti dell'imprenditorialità (stimolando una futura scelta di carriera) è durante gli anni dell'infanzia e dell'adolescenza (Peterman, 2000; Dyer, 1994).*

Secondo l'ampia letteratura sulla social cognition, l'intenzione imprenditoriale rappresenta la principale determinante di un comportamento come la scelta di carriera fondamentalmente basata su processi cognitivi soggettivi (Krueger et al., 2000; Lanero et al., 2015; Peterman and Kennedy, 2003). L’analisi della relazione tra l'intenzione e i suoi antecedenti cognitivi, che coinvolgono aspetti come atteggiamenti e percezioni (Fayolle et al., 2006; Liñán, 2004, Vesci et al., 2020; Feola et al., 2017) diviene quindi centrale nella comprensione del perché gli individui scelgono l'imprenditorialità come opzione di carriera. Inoltre, tale prospettiva evidenzia che le intenzioni imprenditoriali degli individui sono in parte la risposta ad alcune variabili distali (es. tratti imprenditoriali e di personalità, precedente esposizione all’attività imprenditoriale), che nella maggior parte dei casi esercitano un effetto indiretto sulle stesse intenzioni imprenditoriali (Haus et al., 2013; Schlaegel and Koenig, 2014). Nella stessa direzione si muove l'ampia teoria alla base dei modelli intenzionali (Shapero, 1982, Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977) che sostiene chiaramente che gli atteggiamenti e le percezioni sono determinati da fattori esterni, culturali e sociali, attraverso la loro influenza sul sistema di valori degli individui (Shapero and Sokol, 1982) e sui processi cognitivi.

Nelle società moderne, il sistema dei media è considerato uno dei più importanti agenti di influenza sulle menti ed è uno strumento molto potente (Khajeheian, 2013). L'attenzione ai contenuti generati dai media può contribuire a formare una consapevolezza sull'imprenditorialità e può aumentare l'accettazione e l'interesse per questa attività all’interno di una società (GEM, 2019). I social media, in particolare, svolgono un ruolo importante nell'influenzare il fenomeno dell'imprenditorialità contribuendo alla creazione di un “discorso imprenditoriale” che trasmette valori e immagini attribuiti alla figura dell’imprenditore, promuovendo pratiche imprenditoriali e incoraggiando uno spirito imprenditoriale nell’intera società (Hang and van Weezle, 2007). L’utilizzo dei social media sembra aver cambiato, in particolare, il modo in cui i giovani cercano ed elaborano le informazioni. Gli studenti di oggi, definiti come "nativi digitali", risultano fortemente orientati all’utilizzo dei social media (Prensky, 2001). Tuttavia, ancora poco esplorato è il tema del come tale utilizzo possa influenzare i loro comportamenti e in generale la loro consapevolezza imprenditoriale, nonché le loro predisposizioni a perseguire comportamenti orientati all’imprenditorialità. In tale contesto, la Media System Dependency Theory (Ball-Rokeach and DeFleur, 1976) sottolinea il ruolo preponderante dei media nel generare una dipendenza nelle persone rispetto alle informazioni create, raccolte, elaborate e diffuse dai media, che a loro volta determinano sostanziali ricadute cognitive, affettive e comportamentali. In tal senso, si può sostenere, che il cambiamento nelle abitudini degli studenti causerà anche un cambiamento nel modo in cui essi ottengono, valutano ed elaborano le informazioni acquisite dai social media, che inevitabilmente influenzano i loro comportamenti. Inoltre, si può sostenere che la comunicazione dell’imprenditorialità da parte dei media potrà avere un impatto sui processi cognitivi che portano alla successiva intenzione comportamentale.

Partendo da tale assunti e adottando il framework teorico della Media Systems Dependency Theory (Ball-Rokeach & DeFleur, 1976; Ball-Rokeach, 1985) e della Teoria del Comportamento Pianificato (Ajzen, 1991, Ajzen & Fishbein,

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1975), lo studio si concentra sugli effetti dei social media sul processo cognitivo degli studenti e sulla conseguente intenzione di impegnarsi in un comportamento imprenditoriale.

Inquadramento Teorico.

Media Systems Dependency (MSD) Theory. *La teoria (Ball-Rokeach and DeFleur, 1976; Ball-Rokeach, 1985) spiega che le persone dipendono dalle informazioni create, raccolte, elaborate e diffuse dai media, che a loro volta determinano cambiamenti cognitivi, affettivi e comportamentali. Questa "dipendenza" genera un'esposizione selettiva al mezzo di informazione nel senso che gli individui tendono e prestare maggiore attenzione a quei messaggi ritenuti funzionali al raggiungimento dei propri obiettivi, tanto da aumentare la probabilità che tali messaggi siano effettivamente elaborati cognitivamente e che abbiano di conseguenza degli effetti.*

Ball-Rokeach e DeFleur (1976) hanno concettualizzato l'applicazione a più livelli di analisi. A livello micro (individuale), la dipendenza dai media ha un effetto asimmetrico in cui il raggiungimento degli obiettivi e dei bisogni degli individui è subordinato alle risorse informative controllate dalle istituzioni sociali e dei media (Ball-Rokeach, 1985).

Alla luce della crescente importanza dei social media, Kim e Jung (2016) hanno proposto il concetto di "dipendenza dai social media", espandendo il concetto di "dipendenza dal sistema dei media" originario della MSD Theory. La dipendenza dai social media è concettualizzata come il grado di utilità percepita di uno strumento di social media per soddisfare una serie di obiettivi critici nella vita di tutti i giorni. L'avvento dei social media ha determinato impatti significativi sulla vita quotidiana, non solo cambiando i modi in cui le persone rimangono in contatto, ma anche presentando notevoli opportunità e sfide per studenti ed educatori (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Alla luce di queste prospettive, si ritiene che anche i social media influenzino la cognizione, le emozioni e il comportamento degli utenti. Tuttavia, pochi studi (vedi ad esempio Lowrey 2004; Ho et al., 2015; Morton and Duck, 2000) sulla dipendenza dai media a livello individuale hanno considerato questi effetti potenziati sugli atteggiamenti e sui comportamenti delle persone.

La Teoria del Comportamento Pianificato (TCP). *In questo studio analizzeremo le intenzioni imprenditoriali degli studenti nel contesto della Teoria del comportamento pianificato (TCP) (Ajzen, 1987; Ajzen, 1991; Krueger & Carsrud, 1993), uno dei modelli più popolari utilizzati per analizzare una vasta gamma di comportamenti individuali. La teoria identifica tre antecedenti dell'intenzione comportamentale:*

- *l'attitudine al comportamento, si riferisce alla desiderabilità individuale verso un comportamento specifico e riflette le convinzioni e le aspettative personali sul comportamento stesso;*
- *la norma soggettiva si riferisce alla pressione sociale percepita per eseguire o non eseguire un determinato comportamento e rappresentano le convinzioni degli individui su come sarebbero visti da altri individui o dal loro gruppo sociale se eseguissero un determinato comportamento;*
- *il controllo comportamentale percepito si riferisce alle proprie convinzioni personali sulla capacità di eseguire un determinato comportamento ed è un'espressione del grado in cui un soggetto si considera in grado di eseguire tale comportamento.*

*Una serie di studi che hanno applicato la TCP hanno rivelato che i tre antecedenti delle intenzioni imprenditoriali sono a loro volta influenzati da fattori esogeni quali l'ambiente sociale, culturale e istituzionale (*Liñán *et al., 2011). Studi successivi, hanno contribuito all'ampliamento di questo framework teorico, incorporando al suo interno nuovi costrutti o modificando il percorso delle variabili esistenti nel modello di Ajzen (1991) (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001).*

In linea con questo filone di ricerca sulle variabili esogene alla TCP, il nostro studio si propone di integrare il modello con la MSD theory, aggiungendo quindi come variabile esogena al modello la dipendenza dai social media, quale mezzo di supporto alla formazione dell'intento imprenditoriale. L'acquisizione di informazioni e conoscenze (attraverso gli strumenti dei social media) potrebbe fare la differenza nello sviluppo di percezioni e convinzioni favorevoli o sfavorevoli agli stimoli imprenditoriali.

Metodologia.

Campione. *Per testare il framework teorico della presente ricerca, è stata sviluppata un'indagine empirica sugli studenti delle scuole superiori di due diversi poli situati nel Sud Italia, attraverso la somministrazione on line di un questionario strutturato. Le scuole analizzate sono istituti tecnici che comprendono tre diversi macro- profili formativi: moda e tessile, turismo e elettronica/meccanica. Per ottenere una misura depurata da qualsiasi tipo di precedente esperienza didattica sul tema dell'imprenditorialità, tutti gli studenti selezionati del nostro campione non hanno mai partecipato o ricevuto alcun tipo di corso o formazione sull'imprenditorialità.*

Per ridurre al minimo l'eventuale problema di "common method bias", sono state adottate le raccomandazioni di Conway e Lance (2010): in primo luogo, l'utilizzo di uno strumento di auto-valutazione (il questionario) è maggiormente appropriato quando l'obiettivo della ricerca è di valutare percezioni e atteggiamenti dell'intervistato, che rappresentano tutte informazioni che è quasi impossibile ottenere attraverso fonti alternative; in secondo luogo, è stata testata e verificata la validità dei costrutti adottati nello studio; in terzo luogo, sono state adottate misure di progettazione proattive del questionario (ciascuno presentava un diverso ordine di domande e un diverso ordine di elementi all'interno di ciascuna domanda) distribuendone in modo casuale tre diverse versioni.

Misure. *Seguendo Churchill (1979) e Kline (2005), tutti i costrutti dello studio sono stati misurati con più items generalmente adattati da studi di validazione precedenti. L'intenzione imprenditoriale è stata misurata con sei items basati sul Questionario sull'intenzione imprenditoriale (EIQ) sviluppato da Liñán e Chen (2009) e successivamente* *modificato da Liñán et al. (2011). In accordo con Liñán e Chen (2009), abbiamo adottato una misura pura di intenzione (un costrutto multi-item e non una variabile binaria presenza/assenza). Per valutare le qualità psicometriche della misura dell'intenzione imprenditoriale, abbiamo eseguito un'analisi fattoriale (analisi delle componenti principali, con rotazione varimax). La misura Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) dell'adeguatezza del campionamento (0,91) e il test Bartlett (significativo al livello del 5%) garantiscono che la scala sia omogenea e adeguata a misurare quel determinato costrutto latente. Ciò è confermato anche dai criteri di Kaiser (per scale di misurazione unidimensionale) e dalla varianza totale spiegata (83%). L'affidabilità della scala è accettabile anche in base all'alfa di Cronbach (0,95), alla rho di Jöreskog (0,96) e alla rho di validità convergente (0,83).*

Le variabili della TCP sono state misurate con un totale di 14 items, adottando le scale proposte da Fini et al. (2012), Liñán et al. (2009): attitudine imprenditoriale (5 item), norme soggettive (3 item) e controllo comportamentale percepito (6 item).

Per ottenere il costrutto della variabile Attitudine imprenditoriale, è stato calcolato il punteggio della componente tra i cinque items rilevati (test di Bartlett significativo al livello del 5%, KMO 0,85). L'affidabilità della scala è risultata buona in base all'alfa di Cronbach (0,89), alla rho di Jöreskog (0,92) e alla rho di validità convergente (0,71). La stessa procedura è stata sviluppata per la misura del controllo comportamentale percepito (alfa di Cronbach 0,92, rho di Jöreskog 0,94 e rho di validità convergente 0,72) e per le norme soggettive (alfa di Cronbach 0,79, rho di Jöreskog 0,88 e rho di validità convergente 0,71). Per misurare la dipendenza dai social media quale strumento di impatto su cognizione e atteggiamenti, abbiamo sviluppato una scala sul supporto dei Social Media all'imprenditorialità adattata dalla scala proposta da Liñán e Chen (2009) per valutare l'impatto sull'intenzione dell'educazione all'imprenditorialità. Gli intervistati hanno espresso il loro grado di accordo con le seguenti quattro affermazioni: "I social media hanno generato in me un maggiore apprezzamento della figura dell'imprenditore"; "I social media hanno generato in me una preferenza per le opportunità offerte dall'essere imprenditore; "I social media hanno contribuito a sviluppare le competenze necessarie per essere un imprenditore"; "I social media hanno contribuito a sviluppare l'intenzione di diventare un imprenditore". Per tutti i costrutti è stata adottata una scala Likert a sette punti. Agli intervistati è stato chiesto di indicare il grado del loro accordo/disaccordo con ciascuna affermazione su una scala Likert a sette punti o, nel caso del supporto dei social media, in che misura ogni fattore è di supporto nello sviluppo della consapevolezza imprenditoriale. Il punteggio finale per la dipendenza dai social media è stato calcolato come il punteggio standard dei quattro items adattati. L'affidabilità della scala è risultata buona in base all'alfa di Cronbach (0,88), alla rho di Jöreskog (0,92) e alla rho di validità convergente (0,74). Nella nostra analisi, abbiamo considerato un insieme di variabili di controllo che potrebbero potenzialmente influenzare l'intenzione imprenditoriale di uno studente. Poiché la ricerca ha dimostrato che il genere influenza il desiderio di avviare nuove attività (Kelley et al., 2010; Linan and Chen, 2009; Yordanova and Tarrazon, 2010) e l'età è uno dei fattori determinanti dell'imprenditorialità (Parker, 2009; Rotefoss and Kolvereid, 2005), abbiamo incluso (i)Genere ed (ii)Età, come variabili di controllo. Inoltre, altre influenze 'esogene' che sono spesso utilizzate negli studi sull'intenzione imprenditoriale come candidate al controllo (Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999) sono state considerate rilevanti e inserite nel nostro studio: (iii) esperienza lavorativa e (iv) background imprenditoriale. L'ultima variabile di controllo cattura il tempo trascorso dagli studenti sui social media.

Abbiamo esaminato i dati per il problema di "common method variance" utilizzando l'Harman single-factor test, che è comunemente utilizzato negli studi sull'imprenditorialità e sulle piccole imprese per rilevare tale bias (ad esempio, Dai et al., 2014; Gerasymenko and Arthurs, 2014; Walter and Block, 2016). I risultati dell'analisi fattoriale suggeriscono che non esiste un singolo fattore dominante, poiché i dati hanno rivelato che tutti i fattori con autovalori superiori a uno, rappresentano il 35,1 percento della varianza (dove la soglia adeguata è <50 percento). Pertanto, i risultati suggeriscono che la common method variance non è una preoccupazione sostanziale, dato che nessun singolo fattore rappresenta la maggior parte della varianza all'interno dei nostri dati.

***Metodo analitico.** La procedura empirica sviluppata in questo studio è partita eseguendo per tutte le misure un'Analisi delle Componenti Principali per ottenere un punteggio standardizzato per tutte le dimensioni latenti incluse nel nostro modello, esaminando quindi le relazioni tra le variabili. L'analisi di regressione è stata utilizzata per testare il framework di ricerca (cioè, l'effetto diretto della dipendenza dai social media e gli effetti di mediazione dell'attitudine, il controllo comportamentale percepito e la norma soggettiva sull'intenzione imprenditoriale). È stata eseguita la procedura in più step suggerita da Baron e Kenny (1986) per testare gli effetti di mediazione delle variabili della TCP. Inoltre, abbiamo utilizzato l'approccio bootstrap suggerito da Zhao et al. (2010) e il metodo di Preacher e Hayes (2008) per valutare la significatività degli effetti di mediazione. Abbiamo impostato i campioni di bootstrap su 5000 e il livello di confidenza al 95%. In particolare, il primo modello ha preso in considerazione solo le variabili di controllo. Il secondo modello ha incorporato il supporto dei social media; nel modello 3,4 e 5, abbiamo testato il supporto dei social media sulle tre variabili derivate dal TPB di Ajzen (vale a dire, norme sociali, atteggiamento e controllo comportamentale percepito). Infine, il modello 6 include gli effetti di interazione tra il supporto dei social media e le tre variabili che rappresentano le dimensioni tradizionali della TCP, per esaminare il modello complessivo. Per valutare la multicollinearità, abbiamo calcolato il Variance Inflactor Factor (VIF) di ciascuna variabile indipendente.*

Risultati. *I nostri risultati empirici dimostrano che la dipendenza dai social media gioca un ruolo significativo nella formazione delle intenzioni imprenditoriali e che questa relazione è mediata dagli effetti che gli antecedenti classici delle intenzioni hanno sulle intenzioni di creare nuove imprese. La dipendenza dai social media, infatti, sembra contribuire alle convinzioni sia comportamentali che normative tra gli studenti delle scuole superiori. In primo luogo,* *influenzando le convinzioni comportamentali che producono un atteggiamento favorevole o sfavorevole nei confronti del comportamento target e influenzando anche la percezione della fattibilità di tale comportamento degli individui. In secondo luogo, influenzando le credenze normative che danno origine alle norme soggettive. Ciò alla luce del ruolo dei social media come uno dei canali più importanti attraverso i quali i giovani, soprattutto, comunicano, fanno relazioni, scambiano informazioni e conoscenze con altre figure rilevanti. Tutte le nostre ipotesi, ad eccezione dell'effetto di mediazione della norma sociale, sono state confermate. Tuttavia, questo risultato non è nuovo. Le norme sociali non sono state significative in una serie di studi diversi. Ad esempio, Ajzen (1991) ha scoperto che questo fattore è spesso l'elemento più debole della TCP e, in linea con Aizen, Linan et. al. (2011) affermano che l'atteggiamento personale e il controllo comportamentale percepito sono i fattori più rilevanti che spiegano le intenzioni imprenditoriali. Inoltre, spiegano più della metà della varianza nella variabile dipendente, il che conferma anche la robustezza della TCP (Ajzen, 1991) nello spiegare la formazione dell'intenzione imprenditoriale tra gli studenti delle scuole superiori. Infine, possiamo osservare che la dipendenza dai social media, positivamente associata alle intenzioni imprenditoriali, sostiene l'idea che gli studenti possano rivolgersi ai social media per una guida informativa e comportamentale. Questo risultato illustra il ruolo strumentale della dipendenza dai social media nel motivare la consapevolezza imprenditoriale, nel plasmare i processi cognitivi e percettivi e la conseguente intenzione ad avviare una nuova impresa.*

Limiti della ricerca. *Sebbene riteniamo che il presente studio sia di grande importanza per aver considerato, per la prima volta, l'influenza dei social media sul processo imprenditoriale che porta alle intenzioni comportamentali, riconosciamo che la nostra ricerca non è priva di limitazioni che prospettano nuove strade per la ricerca futura. In primo luogo, il campione di convenienza e la nostra analisi di dati cross-sectional impediscono la generazione di inferenze causali e rendono più difficile generalizzare il nostro risultato ad altri campioni. Quindi la ricerca futura potrebbe applicare prospettive longitudinali su campioni casuali. La seconda limitazione risiede negli elementi di misurazione per il costrutto di dipendenza dai social media. Dato che a nostra conoscenza, non esiste un costrutto adatto a questo concetto nel campo dell'imprenditorialità, pochi hanno adattato altre misure per i nostri scopi di ricerca. La ricerca futura potrebbe approfondire e perfezionare il modello di misurazione.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Lo studio ha anche alcune implicazioni pratiche. Internet è sicuramente la rivoluzione sociale più importante degli ultimi tempi, ed è innegabile la drastica natura dei cambiamenti apportati dai social media: hanno cambiato le nostre vite, il modo in cui ci relazioniamo con noi stessi e con gli altri, il nostro modo di pensare, di comportarci e, ultimo ma non meno importante, il nostro processo educativo e informativo. I più giovani (i cosiddetti "Millennials") rappresentano sicuramente la fascia di popolazione più colpita da questa rivoluzione: nata a cavallo del 2000, è la prima generazione, nella storia, che in età adulta mostra familiarità e facilità nell'uso del digitale. Gli studenti utilizzano i social come strumenti di comunicazione, trasmissione e collaborazione tra reti di persone, comunità e organizzazioni. Quando si parla di primato del digitale si intende quel cambiamento nella cultura degli individui che li spinge a consultare prima i canali digitali per comunicare, divertirsi e anche informarsi. La fruizione e la produzione della conoscenza avviene sempre più spesso online. In base ai nostri promettenti risultati, sembra ormai essere chiaro che dobbiamo considerare fortemente l'influenza dei social media nelle nostre attività quotidiane in quanto le tecnologie digitali facilitano la ricerca di informazioni. I social media potrebbero diventare una risorsa da sfruttare per l'istruzione degli studenti. Se utilizzati in modo intelligente, possono aiutare le persone e i professionisti di domani a crescere. Educare tutti a comprendere i meccanismi digitali e consentire loro di relazionarsi in modo informato è diventata una necessità. Per migliorare le intenzioni imprenditoriali, gli educatori dovrebbero essere consapevoli che i social media possono offrire possibilità didattiche molto interessanti, dallo sviluppo della creatività alla crescita delle competenze digitali, e possono aiutare a sviluppare, attraverso la diffusione della cultura e delle narrazioni sul tema dell'imprenditorialità, la consapevolezza dell'esistenza e della possibilità di tale scelta di carriera. Inoltre, i responsabili politici dovrebbero riconoscere l'importanza dei social media da un punto di vista istituzionale: la ricerca sull'imprenditorialità ha ampiamente riconosciuto che l'attività imprenditoriale è un elemento importante per la crescita economica e il dinamismo dei paesi (Acs et al., 2012; Audretsch and Keilbach, 2004, 2008) e il loro benessere (ad es. Audretsch et al., 2005; Wenneker et al., 2005), quindi potrebbe essere necessario che i responsabili politici accolgano questi nuovi strumenti come veicolo di comunicazione e informazione che modella atteggiamenti e percezioni, soprattutto dei più giovani.*

Originalità del lavoro. *I risultati del nostro studio forniscono importanti contributi alla letteratura esistente sull'imprenditorialità degli studenti. L'importanza del nostro lavoro deriva dall'aver inserito, all'interno di un modello classico di intenzionalità, una variabile esogena, ovvero la dipendenza dai social media. Ciò in accordo con la teoria MSD (Ball-Rokeach and DeFleur, 1976) che sottolinea il ruolo dei social media nella dipendenza delle persone dalle informazioni diffuse dai social media, che determinano i cambiamenti cognitivi, affettivi e comportamentali degli utenti. Alla luce di questa prospettiva teorica, lo studio di questo aspetto è sempre più urgente, vista la pervasività di questi nuovi strumenti digitali, e l'importanza che hanno nel veicolare informazioni, modelli, stili di vita e conoscenza, soprattutto tra i più giovani (Kim, 2014, a, b). Considerando per la prima volta i social media come fattore critico nello sviluppo dell'intenzione imprenditoriale, il nostro modello di analisi propone un'estensione agli approcci cognitivi classici, allargando la sfera di analisi aumentando gli elementi dei modelli classici di intenzionalità. A partire da questo studio pilota, la ricerca futura ha il potenziale per approfondire la conoscenza dell'influenza dei nuovi media e degli strumenti digitali su alcuni tipi di attività imprenditoriali.*

Parole chiave: *Student Entrepreneurship; Intenzione Imprenditoriale; Social Media Dependency; Teoria del Comportamento Pianificato; Modelli Cognitivi*

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Turismo sostenibile e humane entrepreneurship: il caso dell'albergo diffuso

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Background. *Il turismo sostenibile (TS) è un settore che per decenni è rimasto di nicchia. Negli ultimi anni, il tema della sostenibilità ha acquisito importanza, ancorandosi a diverse leggi e diventando un comportamento socialmente ben visto. Anche la pandemia di COVID-19 ha contribuito, almeno temporaneamente, ad incentivare un comportamento sostenibile. La crisi epidemiologica, infatti, ha colpito ampi strati delle società umane a livello globale, ma offre l'opportunità di ridisegnare il turismo con maggiore attenzione alla sostenibilità, all'autenticità e alla riscoperta del locale (Lenzi 2020; Grasso e Schilirò 2021). In questo senso, l'emergenza epidemiologica può essere vista come una grande opportunità per il turismo sostenibile, specie perché in assenza di voli e in virtù delle regole di igiene e distanziamento, nonché della ricerca di sicurezza, le persone potrebbero voler allontanarsi da luoghi affollati, come le città, e avvicinarsi alla natura e alla campagna.*

Pur mancando ancora oggi una definizione comunemente accettata (Dimoska e Petrevska, 2012; Navarro et al., 2020), il TS è considerato come un turismo in grado di tener conto degli impatti economici, sociali ed ambientali, presenti e futuri, per soddisfare i bisogni dei visitatori, dell'impresa, dell'ambiente e delle comunità ospitanti (UNEP-UNWTO, 2005, pag. 12). In questa definizione emergono gli elementi chiave del concetto, ovvero l'orientamento alla sostenibilità, così come definita a partire dal rapporto Bruntland (1987), e l'attenzione per gli stakeholder, coinvolti nella filiera del turismo (Waligo et al., 2013).

Nell'ambito del TS recentemente si è sviluppato il filone del Community Based Tourism, ovvero una forma di TS che si caratterizza per una crescente attenzione verso la comunità locale al fine di massimizzarne i benefici in termini di miglioramento della qualità del lavoro, favorendo lo sviluppo locale e preservandone le tradizioni ed i valori (Han et al., 2019). Un modello emergente di Community Based Tourism è rappresentato dall'Albergo Diffuso (AD) (Droli 2019), modello innovativo di turismo sostenibile che mira allo sfruttamento delle risorse locali sia tangibili (patrimonio culturale, agricoltura e artigianato, piccole imprese) che immateriali (tradizioni, conoscenza, legami sociali) (Vallone et al., 2013).

Questa nuova forma di TS appare in linea con l'emergente teoria della Humane Entrepreneurship (HumEnt, Parente et al. 2018, 2020; Kim et al., 2018) che propone un nuovo modello di imprenditorialità, basato sull'integrazione di tre elementi: l'orientamento imprenditoriale (EO), l'orientamento alla sostenibilità (SO) e l'orientamento alle risorse umane (HRO). Nella prospettiva della HumEnt il concetto di sostenibilità non è infatti inteso solo in termini ambientali, ma in termini più ampi come attenzione alla comunità locale ed alla società (Parente et al., 2018, 2020).

Obiettivi. *Partendo da tali premesse, il presente lavoro analizza l'Albergo Diffuso (AD), quale modello di business innovativo nel campo dell'ospitalità, identificabile come forma di TS (Vallone et al., 2013) e, in virtù della scarsa applicazione del modello HumEnt in una dimensione pratica, si propone di testare empiricamente la presenza delle tre dimensioni di HumEnt in un contesto aziendale. Nello specifico, lo studio cerca di rispondere alle seguenti domande di ricerca:*

RQ1: le tre dimensioni della HumEnt (EO, SO e HRO) sono presenti contemporaneamente nell'AD?

RQ2: l'AD può essere considerato un esempio di HumEnt?

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Metodologia. *La ricerca adotta un approccio qualitativo, basato sulla metodologia del case study (Yin, 1984, 2003). Tale metodologia è adatta ad esaminare le dinamiche sottostanti un contesto complesso (Feagin et al., 1991; Tellis, 1997; Eisenhardt, 1989) e per questo motivo è stata considerata la più appropriata per indagare le caratteristiche dell'AD, scelto come caso di studio a causa della crescente domanda turistica che ha portato ad una sua progressiva diffusione.*

Dal punto di vista metodologico, è stata adottata la tecnica dell'intervista semi-strutturata, che si basa sulla somministrazione di alcuni argomenti predefiniti ad informatori chiave, che nel nostro caso corrispondono con gli ideatori di alberghi diffusi sul territorio italiano. In linea con la metodologia scelta, i soggetti del campione vengono selezionati in modo "strategico", in funzione della loro esperienza diretta e della conoscenza del fenomeno studiato (Rubin e Rubin, 2011; Sala, 2010). Ogni attore è considerato un individuo peculiare, influenzato dal contesto in cui vive, per questo motivo, le precedenti esperienze, conoscenze, atteggiamenti degli intervistati dovrebbero essere conservate dai ricercatori nella trascrizione delle interviste (Montesperelli, 1998; Addeo e Montesperelli, 2007). La trascrizione e l'interpretazione dei dati sono guidate principalmente dalle capacità e conoscenze personali dei ricercatori, poiché gli argomenti indagati con le interviste semi-strutturate sono principalmente teorici, immateriali o riguardano questioni delicate.

In linea con i principali obiettivi della ricerca, è stata strutturata la traccia dell'intervista con delle principali macro aree da discutere durante le interviste. In particolare, le macro aree sono tre e corrispondono ai tre orientamenti della HumEnt (EO, SO, HRO). Sulla base delle dimensioni e sottodimensioni teoriche della HumEnt, proposte da Parente et al. (2018; 2020), è stata sviluppata la traccia dell'intervista sottoposta ai gestori di dieci alberghi diffusi, allo scopo di capire la loro inclinazione all'assunzione di modelli di imprenditorialità sostenibile.

Le domande relative all'orientamento imprenditoriale hanno l'obiettivo di indagare l'innovatività, la proattività e l'orientamento al rischio dell'imprenditore. In particolare, le domande hanno lo scopo di far emergere informazioni circa il ruolo che ha l'innovazione all'interno dell'Albergo Diffuso; il livello di proattività dell'azienda in merito al rapporto tra la singola azienda ed i competitors; il grado di orientamento al rischio dell'azienda nel processo decisionale.

Le successive domande sono invece relative all'orientamento alla sostenibilità e sono incentrate sull'elemento della sostenibilità. In particolare, si chiede all'intervistato: 1) se intende la sostenibilità prettamente da un punto di vista ambientale o anche sociale, 2) quali azioni svolge concretamente per rispondere alle sfide della sostenibilità, ovvero, quali sono le pratiche poste in essere per la salvaguardia ambientale e la riduzione dell'inquinamento.

Le ultime domande sono incentrate sui quattro elementi principali dell'orientamento alle risorse umane, ovvero empatia, equità, enablement, empowerment. In merito all'elemento dell'empatia, si cerca di ottenere informazioni circa il clima aziendale e le interazioni che si sviluppano tra dipendenti e l'azienda. Le domande relative all'equità hanno lo scopo di far emergere informazioni circa la politica dell'azienda riguardo la selezione del personale ed eventuali distinzioni per sesso, età ed esperienza. Le domande riguardo l'enablement mirano ad indagare l'eventuale presenza di programmi per sviluppare le competenze del personale mediante corsi di formazione ed addestramento. Le domande incentrate sul tema dell'empowerment indagano lo stile direzionale adottato in azienda, in particolare si punta a capire se nell'organizzazione è favorita la delega oppure la centralizzazione delle responsabilità.

Nella presente ricerca, l'obiettivo delle interviste è analizzare l'albergo diffuso, quale forma di TS, al fine di far emergere la presenza o assenza delle tre dimensioni di HumEnt.

Le interviste sono state condotte nei mesi di settembre e ottobre dell'anno 2020, sono durate in media 30 minuti, sono state registrate, trascritte e analizzate in base alle principali ipotesi derivanti dal background teorico e alle domande di ricerca.

Risultati. *L'analisi dei risultati evidenzia che l'AD, in quanto innovativo modello di ospitalità presenta diversi elementi su cui si fonda il modello HumEnt. Dai risultati emerge che nella maggior parte dei casi, i gestori degli Alberghi Diffusi sono orientati all'adozione del modello di imprenditorialità umana, e particolarmente attenti ai temi della sostenibilità socio-ambientale, il rispetto per i dipendenti e la salvaguardia del territorio in cui l'azienda opera.*

Nello specifico, tutti i gestori intervistati hanno affermato che l'innovazione ricopre un ruolo fondamentale nella gestione degli AD. In particolare, l'innovazione riguarda l'offerta di servizi generalmente non presenti in altri Alberghi Diffusi. L'AD2, ad esempio, oltre ai servizi disponibili in un classico AD, offre da venticinque anni corsi di yoga e corsi di italiano per stranieri. L'AD4 ha invece attivato un progetto di inclusione sociale rivolto a ragazzi con disabilità, che permette alla struttura di essere contemporaneamente un centro sociale polifunzionale, che offre corsi a ragazzi con problematiche, e un AD che offre a ragazzi disabili la possibilità di lavorare al proprio interno. L'AD8, invece, per rinnovare la propria offerta, sta sviluppando dei percorsi per ebike.

Per quanto riguarda il rapporto che la singola azienda ha con i competitors, cinque AD su dieci non avvertono la pressione diretta delle aziende concorrenti, in quanto vedono tutti gli alberghi "scollegati", anche geograficamente, tra loro e, come afferma il gestore dell'AD 9 "c'è più un confronto che un'effettiva concorrenza". Negli altri cinque casi invece, le risposte evidenziano che viene preferito un atteggiamento proattivo da parte degli AD, cercando di anticipare le possibili azioni dei competitors. Un esempio può essere dato dal gestore dell'AD10, il quale è stato il primo imprenditore a creare un Albergo Diffuso in Cilento.

In merito al grado di orientamento al rischio della singola azienda nel processo decisionale, viene chiesto agli intervistati di fornire degli esempi di investimenti effettuati che facciano emergere la politica adottata dall'azienda riguardo questo elemento. Le risposte fanno emergere che sei Alberghi Diffusi su dieci sono orientati al rischio ed in diversi casi si evince che le problematiche legate alla pandemia scoppiata nei mesi scorsi hanno fatto sì che gli *investimenti delle singole aziende non abbiano prodotto gli effetti desiderati. In particolare l'AD3 afferma di aver concluso un ingente investimento per la ristrutturazione degli edifici poco prima della crisi legata al Covid-19, e che i tre mesi di mancata attività hanno causato perdite economiche legate alla cancellazione delle prenotazioni. Nei restanti casi, i gestori affermano di essere poco orientati al rischio e di non effettuare investimenti successivi a quelli iniziali che spesso sono eseguiti in parte con contributi regionali o comunitari, come nel caso, rispettivamente, dell'AD1 e AD8, le cui case sono di proprietà di privati e gestiti per dieci anni rispettivamente da cooperative ed imprenditori.*

In merito alla sostenibilità e alle pratiche per la sostenibilità adottate da ciascun AD, tutti gli intervistati intendono la sostenibilità da un punto di vista ambientale. Tutti gli AD intervistati praticano la raccolta differenziata, in più gli AD3 e AD10 sono totalmente plastic free; nelle stanze, infatti, vengono utilizzati esclusivamente bottiglie e contenitori di vetro. L'AD10 inoltre ha investito in un sistema di raccolta dell'acqua piovana destinata all'irrigazione. Gli AD1, AD2 e AD6 sono provvisti di pannelli solari per l'utilizzo dell'energia solare. L'AD8 ha installato porte con tessera che permette lo spegnimento automatico dei riscaldamenti e delle luci nel momento in cui il cliente lascia la stanza. Tuttavia, nessuno degli intervistati redige documenti o report ambientali.

Tra i dieci gestori intervistati, due ritengono di avere anche un impatto sociale. L'AD4 offre corsi finalizzati all'inclusione sociale di ragazzi con disabilità e l'AD10 acquista prevalentemente prodotti a chilometro zero per supportare le piccole aziende locali.

In merito al clima aziendale, nove su dieci instaurano un rapporto familiare tra i dipendenti e l'azienda. Solo nel caso dell'AD5 il gestore afferma che nella sua azienda è preferito un clima professionale tra l'azienda ed i dipendenti.

Riguardo alla sottodimensione "equity", tutti gli intervistati affermano che non vengono fatte discriminazioni per sesso, età ed esperienza tra i dipendenti e che tra loro c'è una equa distribuzione tra uomini e donne.

Per quanto riguarda la sottodimensione dell'enablement, vengono chieste all'intervistato informazioni circa l'eventuale presenza di programmi finalizzati allo sviluppo di competenze del personale. Cinque intervistati su dieci affermano che non sono previsti corsi di formazione, nei restanti casi sono previsti programmi di formazione sia interni che esterni. In particolare, l'AD2 nei mesi immediatamente precedenti all'intervista ha organizzato un corso per la sicurezza legata al Covid-19, l'AD8 ha offerto dei corsi per il settore Marketing mentre l'AD10 ha organizzato un corso esterno di lingua inglese per il receptionist e dei corsi specifici per il personale incaricato della pulizia delle camere.

Infine, per quanto riguarda l'empowerment, otto Alberghi Diffusi favoriscono la delega, lasciando ai dipendenti ampia autonomia nello svolgimento del lavoro a loro assegnato. Due gestori invece, quelli dell'AD5 e AD9, preferiscono uno stile direzionale più orientato alla centralizzazione delle responsabilità.

Limiti della ricerca. *La principale limitazione del lavoro è legata ad alcuni aspetti della metodologia che impediscono qualsiasi generalizzazione dei risultati, es. lo scarso numero di interviste somministrate; l'ambito della ricerca, che è circoscritto al solo contesto italiano. Inoltre, la metodologia del case study, non consente la massima affidabilità dei risultati (Yin, 1984) poiché i suoi obiettivi principali sono legati all'indagine approfondita di un contesto piuttosto che all'applicazione di tecniche statistiche di analisi per estrarre inferenze. Ne conseguono problemi nell'estensione dei risultati alla popolazione.*

Tuttavia, l'approccio qualitativo e la tecnica del case study possono essere considerati scelte metodologiche adeguate per la ricerca esplorativa empirica finalizzata allo studio di costrutti relativamente "nuovi" (Corbetta, 1999) per i quali non sono state proposte scale di misurazione. Infatti, in letteratura non c'è ancora accordo su come si possa misurare HumEnt.

Pertanto, questo studio può essere inteso come un primo passo qualitativo volto a rilevare alcune pratiche di comportamento imprenditoriale umano che possono rappresentare il punto di partenza per l'ulteriore sviluppo di elementi di misurazione per la HumEnt. Ancora, il presente studio può indirizzare la ricerca futura all'analisi empirica della relazione tra le componenti che qualificano un'impresa orientata alla humane entrepreneurship e le prestazioni dell'impresa che possono avere un impatto sulle conseguenze come il benessere della società.

Implicazioni pratiche. *I risultati della ricerca possono contribuire a fornire a manager e studiosi spunti di riflessione interessanti e discussioni sulle sfide e le opportunità associate a un nuovo modo di intendere l'imprenditorialità (HumEnt).*

L'indagine pratica sulla presenza delle componenti del modello HumEnt e sul loro utilizzo strategico nelle strategie aziendali dell'AD permette di riconoscere in questo modello innovativo di ospitalità molti elementi della teoria HumEnt. Secondo il nostro studio, l'AD potrebbe essere inteso come un modello di TS che ha le potenzialità di incentivare e far esprimere una imprenditorialità "humane".

Il legame tra questa tipologia ricettiva e la HumEnt potrebbe originare dalla natura propria dell'AD che privilegia i piccoli centri storici ed i borghi di antica formazione, permettendo agli ospiti di stare a contatto con la natura e scoprire la storia e le tradizioni del territorio, arricchendosi culturalmente. Queste piccole imprese apportano benefici per il territorio sia in termini di livello occupazionale, sia e soprattutto a livello di prosperità della comunità locale, e dunque di tutti i soggetti che operano nel sistema turistico locale (Paniccia, 2012).

Si può quindi presumere che l'adozione di un orientamento strategico nei confronti della HumEnt possa dare origine non solo a nuovo valore per l'azienda ma anche ad un miglioramento della vita della comunità in cui l'azienda opera, portando ad una crescita comune e alla creazione di nuovo valore sociale e nuova cultura.

Da un punto di vista pratico, i risultati dello studio possono indirizzare gli imprenditori ad identificare gli strumenti più adeguati alla gestione delle imprese turistiche al fine di migliorarne le performance aziendali.

La necessità di gestire un'organizzazione attraverso l'armonizzazione strategica e tattica delle tre dimensioni di HumEnt è considerata un mezzo centrale per consentire una condizione ottimale per l'azienda e per l'intera società.

Originalità del lavoro. *Il lavoro affronta un nuovo modello di imprenditorialità, la Humane Entreprenurship, in cui l'attenzione che le imprese tradizionalmente prestano al business si integra con la cura dei membri dell'impresa, del territorio in cui l'impresa opera e della società in generale. La HumEnt viene affrontata secondo una visione strategica, evidenziandone le dimensioni principali. La necessità di adottare un approccio strategico alla HumEnt, così come proposto dalla ricerca, può migliorare le performance dell'azienda e favorire l'intera società (Parente et al. 2018; 2020).*

Da un punto di vista concettuale e metodologico, vengono identificate le dimensioni della HumEnt (EO, SO, HRO) e viene testata empiricamente la presenza delle stesse nel contesto aziendale dell'albergo diffuso, modello innovativo di ospitalità. Lo studio apre la strada e pone le basi teoriche per studi futuri volti alla misurazione della HumEnt e all'identificazione dei suoi antecedenti e conseguenti. Lo studio muove i primi passi per l'introduzione di una teoria (HumEnt) che può essere intesa come una prospettiva di sintesi derivante dall'integrazione dei più recenti progressi nella ricerca imprenditoriale (Kim et al.2018; Parente et al. 2018).

La teoria della HumEnt viene proposta come un vero e proprio orientamento che dovrebbe indirizzare i manager nel processo decisionale e che dovrebbe essere continuamente preso in considerazione per garantire il progressivo miglioramento della società verso un mondo sostenibile che ponga al centro l'ambiente e le risorse umane.

Parole chiave: *Humane Entrepreneurship; Turismo Sostenibile; Albergo Diffuso; Entrepreneurial Orientation; Sustainabiliy Orientation; Humane Resource Orientation*

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Non chiamatele solo agenzie digitali! Un’analisi empirica sui “nuovi attori” della comunicazione

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Background e obiettivi. *La rivoluzione digitale ha trasformato profondamente il mercato dei servizi per la comunicazione di marketing (Kassaye, 1997) e ha portato a una maggiore complessità del communication network (Grant e McLeod, 2007; Ceccotti e Vernuccio, 2013). A causa della digitalizzazione, si è assistito a: (1) l’evoluzione delle agenzie tradizionali (agenzie creative e media nate prima della rivoluzione digitale) (Wagler, 2013; Lynch, 2019; Stuhlfaut e Windels, 2019); (2) la nascita di nuove agenzie specializzate nella consulenza sui mezzi digitali (Windels e Stuhlfaut, 2018; Hughes e Vafeas, 2019); (3) l’ingresso nel mercato delle grandi società di consulenza direzionale (ad esempio, Accenture Interactive, Deloitte digital), che supportando il cliente nel processo di trasformazione digitale, forniscono anche servizi di comunicazione digitale (Lynch, 2019; Ceccotti et al., 2019).*

Negli studi sulle agenzie di comunicazione, si riscontra una notevole varietà terminologica per indicare quelle specializzate nel digitale, che vengono denominate in modi diversi: «computer graphic studios and boutiques for web-related accounts» (Kassaye, 1997), «new-media firms», «internet boutiques» and «new-media agencies» (Rodgers e Chen, 2002), «nuove agenzie di comunicazione nell’online media market» (Guercini, 2008), «interactive agencies» (Mallia e Windels, 2011), «digital agencies» (Vernuccio e Ceccotti, 2015), «pure play digital agencies» (Stuhlfault e Windels, 2019), «new agencies» (Hughes e Vafeas, 2019), «digitally focused agencies» (Patwardhan et al., 2019). In questo lavoro, utilizzeremo «agenzie digitali» per indicare quelle agenzie «born digital» (Sebastian et al., 2017) che offrono alle imprese servizi per la comunicazione su mezzi interattivi.

Già nel 2002, Rodgers e Chen sottolineavano l’importanza di indagare le specificità delle cosiddette “new agencies”; tuttavia, l’analisi di questi nuovi attori non è stata particolarmente approfondita, nonostante la crescente rilevanza della comunicazione digitale (Iab Europe, 2020). La letteratura sul tema, infatti, risulta esigua e limitata all’analisi di alcuni aspetti, indagati in termini comparativi, per individuare le differenze tra questi attori e le agenzie tradizionali (Rodgers e Chen, 2002; Mallia e Windels, 2011; Patwardhan et al., 2019). Tali studi sottolineano come le principali diversità siano rinvenibili nella struttura e nelle competenze, nei processi e, infine, nella cultura aziendale (Ceccotti, 2018).

Le agenzie digitali sono strutture molto snelle, che presentano al loro interno una elevata diversità in termini di risorse, conoscenze e specializzazioni: questo consente loro di generare innovazione grazie alla continua contaminazione di esperienze tra i team (Kwantes et al., 2005). La tradizionale coppia creativa - composta da art director e copy writer - viene sostituita da gruppi di lavoro misti, coordinati principalmente da un project manager che svolge il ruolo dell’account (Mallia e Windels, 2011). Le competenze tecniche digitali e di marketing analysis sono il cuore della struttura organizzativa di queste agenzie (Ceccotti, 2018), che grazie anche all’aggiornamento continuo e alla crescita interna, sono in grado di attirare e mantenere i migliori talenti (Patwardhan et al., 2019).

A differenza delle agenzie tradizionali, nelle quali esistono delle routine consolidate nel tempo, le agenzie digitali non seguono processi rigidamente codificati, ma si caratterizzano per elevata flessibilità e velocità di risposta alle esigenze del cliente (Patwardhan et al., 2019).

Con riferimento alla cultura, si riscontra nelle agenzie digitali un approccio più collaborativo rispetto a quello delle agenzie tradizionali, che è tipicamente competitivo: il progetto proposto al cliente, infatti, è spesso il risultato della collaborazione tra le diverse figure professionali che lavorano in team e non del singolo (come, ad esempio, il Direttore Creativo) che si vanta della paternità dell’idea (Mallia e Windels, 2011). Un altro tratto culturale che caratterizza le agenzie digitali è l’orientamento alla performance e a risultati data-driven (Patwardhan et al., 2019). Tali agenzie, infatti, offrono alle imprese inserzioniste servizi dai ritorni misurabili in termini, ad esempio, di tassi di conversione, dando la possibilità ai clienti di sviluppare campagne più efficaci ed efficienti rispetto a quelle delle agenzie tradizionali, come pure ottimizzabili nel breve periodo (Guercini, 2008; Patwardhan et al., 2019).

Analizzando la letteratura manageriale (Advertising Age, 2020; Guttmann, 2020) e i siti delle principali associazioni di categoria specializzate nel digitale (ad esempio, IAB Europe e IAB Italia), si osserva una grande varietà fenomenologica delle agenzie digitali, caratterizzate da value proposition anche molto diverse tra loro e spesso non ben

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delineate. Questa varietà sembra essere anche alla base del disorientamento da parte dell'impresa inserzionista che alcuni studi sulle relazioni agenzia-cliente mettono in evidenza (Ceccotti et al., 2019). In aggiunta, la "vaghezza" della value proposition può generare delle difficoltà da parte del cliente nel giudicare correttamente il valore del servizio offerto dal partner di comunicazione prescelto (Ceccotti, 2018).

Tali attori devono proporsi sul mercato dei servizi della comunicazione con un'offerta chiara e rilevante, che consenta loro di posizionarsi in modo distintivo nel mercato e di ridurre il rischio di internalizzazione delle attività di comunicazione digitale da parte del cliente (Hughes e Vafeas, 2019). Infatti, alcuni recenti studi hanno indagato l'opportunità di internalizzare le attività di online advertising in funzione del ritorno di queste in termini di vendite e ROI/ROS, sottolineando la convenienza a ricorrere alle agenzie digitali solo in casi di budget elevati da destinare a queste attività (Porto e de Abreu, 2019). La letteratura manageriale evidenzia come anche diversi grandi clienti con budget significativi destinati alla comunicazione digitale iniziano a svolgere queste attività internamente, sia sul fronte creativo che della pianificazione e dell'acquisto dei media (Vizard, 2020; Whiteside, 2019).

In tale quadro, sono assenti contributi specifici volti a delineare gli aspetti distintivi della value proposition delle agenzie digitali, tema che invece viene approfondito con riferimento a quelle tradizionali (Ceccotti et al., 2020; Childers et al., 2018; Lynch e West, 2017; Wagler, 2013).

Tale gap appare significativo, laddove si consideri che la value proposition è una delle tre componenti del business model di un'impresa - insieme alla value creation e al value capture (Richardson, 2008) - e descrive «what the firm will deliver to its customers, why they will be willing to pay for it, and the firm's basic approach to competitive advantage» (p. 138). In particolare, questa può essere declinata nelle seguenti dimensioni: 1) le attività svolte e i servizi offerti (offering), 2) il target e 3) la strategia di base per conquistare i clienti e il vantaggio competitivo rispetto ai competitor.

Seguendo questa concettualizzazione, il lavoro intende delineare le caratteristiche chiave della value proposition delle agenzie digitali nella prospettiva dei professionisti della comunicazione, rispondendo alla seguente RQ:

RQ - Come si configura la value proposition di un'agenzia digitale in termini di servizi offerti, target e strategia competitiva?

In assenza di studi pregressi sul tema, il lavoro si propone, dunque, di contribuire all'avanzamento della conoscenza nel filone di studi sulle agenzie di comunicazione di marketing, mettendo in luce le specificità della value proposition delle agenzie digitali. Nella prospettiva manageriale, la ricerca consente di delineare meglio il quadro competitivo (sul fronte dell'offerta), ridurre il disorientamento del cliente (sul fronte della domanda di servizi di comunicazione), contribuendo in tal modo a migliorare le performance complessive del communication network.

Metodologia. *Alla luce dell'assenza di ricerche precedenti sulla value proposition delle agenzie digitali, abbiamo adottato un approccio esplorativo di tipo qualitativo basato su 22 interviste personali in profondità (Creswell, 1998) a professionisti della comunicazione di marketing di organizzazioni con sede in Italia, ma con una forte vocazione internazionale. In particolare, sono state coinvolte tre categorie di rispondenti, appartenenti a:*

1) *associazioni di categoria specializzate nella comunicazione digitale (n=2), con l'obiettivo di avere una visione ampia dell'offerta proposta dalle agenzie digitali;*
2) *imprese clienti (n=8), top spender in comunicazione digitale, con l'obiettivo di indagare la loro percezione della value proposition dell'agenzia digitale come utilizzatori di servizi da questa offerti;*
3) *agenzie digitali (n=12), con l'obiettivo di indagare le caratteristiche della loro offering, i clienti serviti e la strategia competitiva adottata.*

La ricerca qualitativa è stata completata con un'approfondita collezione e analisi di dati secondari (report di settore, articoli di riviste manageriali specializzate nella comunicazione, siti dei membri delle associazioni di categoria, siti delle agenzie appartenenti ai grandi gruppi della comunicazione pubblicitaria) col duplice obiettivo di individuare le agenzie digitali da coinvolgere nella ricerca e raccogliere informazioni utili alla migliore interpretazione dei risultati (Muninger et al., 2019).

Dato l'oggetto d'indagine, nella selezione dei rispondenti è stato adottato il "key informant approach" (Robson e Foster, 1989): sono stati coinvolti nel theoretical sample (Dexter, 1970) solo soggetti con un ruolo apicale nelle realtà di appartenenza e dalla lunga esperienza nella comunicazione digitale (ad esempio, Chief Marketing Officer, Communication Director, Head of Digital per le associazioni di categoria e le imprese clienti; Founder, Partner, CEO, General Manager e Vice President Sales and Marketing per le agenzie digitali). Per la definizione della numerosità del set d'indagine, è stato adottato il criterio della saturazione teorica: la fase di rilevazione è stata chiusa solo quando il contributo di nuove interviste non apportava nuova conoscenza utile al raggiungimento dell'obiettivo prefissato (Francis et al., 2010; Corbin e Strauss, 2014). La traccia d'intervista, seppure organizzata su una base logica comune, è stata poi adattata alle diverse categorie di rispondenti: dopo la definizione di agenzia digitale, sono state approfondite le diverse componenti della value proposition (ossia, offering, target e strategia competitiva), delineando parallelamente il quadro competitivo dei differenti attori.

Le interviste sono state svolte telefonicamente o via Skype e hanno avuto una durata tra i 45 e i 70 minuti. Ciascun colloquio è stato registrato e trascritto. Il corpus è stato analizzato attraverso l'analisi tematica del contenuto (King e Horrocks, 2010), che ha consentito di far emergere le caratteristiche chiave della value proposition delle agenzie digitali con particolare riferimento a tre categorie di nuovi player, di seguito illustrati.

Per garantire l'affidabilità dei risultati, si è fatto ricorso al "code-confirming", prevedendo l'intervento di due codificatori indipendenti, esperti sui temi oggetto d'indagine. La percentuale di accordo dei codificatori è stata pari *all'89%, superiore al livello minimo previsto per quel che riguarda l'approccio esplorativo (Powell, 2007). Infine, i risultati sono stati sottoposti alla lettura da parte di quattro soggetti tra gli intervistati che li hanno sostanzialmente condivisi e validati (Lincoln e Guba, 1985).*

Risultati. *In primo luogo, i rispondenti hanno messo in evidenza l'indeterminatezza dell'aggettivo «digitale» che non qualifica adeguatamente l'agenzia, poiché non identifica chiaramente le specificità della value proposition di tali attori.*

«Digitale è l'era in cui viviamo. Ognuno interpreta a modo suo l'essere digitale; in un'arena competitiva, tutti si possono chiamare agenzia digitale e, per questo, il termine è decisamente troppo vago» (CEO, Agenzia digitale).

Allo stesso tempo, sono emerse delle condizioni necessarie affinché un'agenzia possa dirsi digitale: la forte connotazione tecnologica, l'approccio strategico data-driven e customer-centric, la cultura della sperimentazione e della collaborazione.

Tuttavia, si rinviene una certa varietà nella value proposition di tali attori. Dalle interviste sono emerse tre tipologie di agenzie digitali, che presentano un livello crescente di specializzazione: (1) agenzie di consulenza digitale, (2) agenzie digitali integrate, e (3) agenzie digitali specializzate.

Presenteremo di seguito le caratteristiche chiave della value proposition per ciascuna tipologia di agenzia individuata.

1) Agenzie di consulenza digitale (ad esempio, Reply, AKQA, Alkemy)

Si tratta di veri e propri partner nella trasformazione digitale del cliente. Presentano una forte expertise tecnologica e supportano le imprese nella ridefinizione dei modelli di business abilitati dai big data, dal cloud computing, dall'intelligenza artificiale e dall'Internet of things. La consulenza offerta è a più livelli: (a) tecnologia (ad esempio, piattaforme e soluzioni), (b) processi (ad esempio, il service design), e (c) strategia e comunicazione (ad esempio, creatività e media planning).

«Ci sediamo a fianco dei nostri clienti per aiutarli a estrarre valore dalla tecnologia; interveniamo nel ridisegno dei processi, nelle applicazioni e nella comunicazione digitale. I clienti cercano da noi l'innovazione a servizio del business, con soluzioni che possono avere anche un forte impatto sulla loro organizzazione e, soprattutto, sui loro risultati» (VP Sales and Marketing, Agenzia digitale).

Secondo alcuni intervistati, è riduttivo parlare di "agenzia" per questa categoria di player: si tratta di veri e propri consulenti strategici, non solo sui temi della comunicazione digitale. Si propongono sul mercato come "generalisti" della tecnologia digitale e proprio per questo motivo vengono scelti:

«Difficilmente un'impresa che ha bisogno solo di una campagna di comunicazione digitale si rivolge a noi, mentre è molto probabile che un'impresa che stiamo supportando nel più ampio processo di trasformazione digitale si affidi a noi anche per le sue campagne digitali» (VP Sales and Marketing, Agenzia digitale).

Per completare la loro offerta sul fronte della comunicazione, molto spesso procedono ad acquisire agenzie di comunicazione specializzate nei diversi ambiti del digitale (come i social media, l'influencer marketing, etc.).

Per l'ampiezza dell'oggetto della consulenza, questi attori si rivolgono principalmente a un target composto da grandi imprese, avviando con loro relazioni stabili di medio/lungo termine. Ricoprono spesso un importante ruolo formativo nei confronti dei clienti per fornire loro le competenze tecniche necessarie per la trasformazione digitale del business.

Sul piano competitivo, questi player si confrontano con le grandi società di consulenza direzionale (come Accenture Interactive, Deloitte digital), che stanno acquisendo competenze specializzate per completare la loro offerta al cliente con servizi di comunicazione. Non si sentono, invece, particolarmente minacciate dalle altre categorie di agenzia digitale.

2) Agenzie digitali integrate (ad esempio, Doing, Caffeina)

Sono partner di comunicazione che supportano il cliente nella definizione e nell'implementazione della strategia di comunicazione digitale. Non vantano una specializzazione specifica su particolari strumenti (come il social media marketing) e canali digitali (ad esempio, il mobile); nella maggior parte dei casi, sono il risultato di processi di estensione delle attività portati avanti da agenzie che hanno progressivamente integrato differenti servizi di comunicazione per fornire al cliente un'offerta più completa. Sono caratterizzate da «orizzontalità di vedute e verticalizzazione delle professionalità» (Communication Director, Impresa cliente).

Per quel che riguarda i clienti, si rivolgono a imprese di medio-grandi dimensioni che hanno un approccio evoluto alla comunicazione digitale, con le quali riescono a costruire relazioni stabili, perché coniugano la consulenza di marca (un tempo di competenza esclusiva delle agenzie pubblicitarie tradizionali) con l'approccio data-driven e la misurabilità dei risultati di comunicazione. Proponendo un'offerta integrata, riescono a ridurre gli sforzi di coordinamento del network di agenzie specializzate, sforzi che altrimenti dovrebbero essere sostenuti dal cliente.

«L'impresa che si rivolge a noi trova tutte le specializzazioni sotto lo stesso tetto e questo comporta grandi vantaggi in termini di coordinamento, di velocità e di coerenza delle campagne. Noi partiamo dall'esigenza del cliente e costruiamo intorno a questa una strategia che può avvalersi di diversi strumenti e canali digitali» (Founder, Agenzia digitale).

Sul fronte della strategia, si propongono come generalisti nell'ambito della comunicazione digitale e, per questo, i loro principali competitor sono rappresentati dalle agenzie tradizionali "evolute" che offrono anche servizi digitali. Rispetto a queste ultime, tuttavia, risultano più credibili nella consulenza avendo un "digital mindset" dalla nascita.

«Anche se la proposta al cliente sembra simile 'sulla carta' (una campagna di comunicazione digitale), la nostra è il frutto di un digital mindset che le agenzie tradizionali non hanno: siamo digitali negli approcci, nelle metodologie, nei processi e quindi la nostra proposta risulta sicuramente più credibile agli occhi del cliente rispetto a quella delle agenzie tradizionali» (General Manager, Agenzia digitale).

Infine, le agenzie digitali integrate competono anche con le agenzie specializzate nei singoli ambiti del digitale quando la richiesta del cliente si concentra su uno solo di questi.

3) Agenzie digitali specializzate (es: We are social, Webranking)

Sono agenzie di comunicazione che basano la loro value proposition su una determinata specializzazione o iper-specializzazione e che, in quell'ambito, possono offrire una expertise superiore a quella delle agenzie digitali integrate. La consulenza ha come oggetto un singolo progetto di comunicazione (ad esempio, la social media strategy) oppure lo svolgimento di una particolare attività (es: lo sviluppo di un chatbot) o uno specifico canale (ad esempio, mobile advertising).

I rispondenti sono concordi nell'evidenziare la grande frammentazione dell'offerta e l'elevata varietà di tipologie di player dovuta alle numerose specializzazioni della comunicazione digitale:

«C'è stata una enorme parcellizzazione delle attività digitali che è impossibile mappare le agenzie e produrre una tassonomia» (Direttore marketing, Associazione di categoria).

Il target di clienti di queste agenzie è piuttosto "liquido" e comprende: (a) imprese di grandi dimensioni, che cercano un servizio iper-specializzato; (b) imprese di dimensioni medio/piccole che non hanno un approccio evoluto alla comunicazione digitale e che cercano il singolo servizio di consulenza digitale; (c) agenzie tradizionali che non hanno ancora sviluppato al loro interno le competenze digitali e che completano l'offerta ricorrendo a fornitori esterni. In quest'ultimo caso, molto spesso l'identità del fornitore resta nascosta al cliente e viene rivelata solo quando la notorietà dell'agenzia specializzata può qualificare la proposta di valore complessiva dell'agenzia tradizionale.

Diversi intervistati hanno sottolineato le possibili alternative strategiche delle agenzie digitali specializzate. In particolare, queste possono:

(a) allargare progressivamente l'expertise su altri ambiti di consulenza, per offrire al cliente un servizio più completo in ambito digitale, diventando un'agenzia digitale integrata: «spesso le agenzie che nascono specializzate su un certo servizio allargano la loro offerta per aumentare le opportunità di business su ambiti vicini nei quali possono costruire rapidamente l'expertise ed essere credibili» (Direttore marketing, Associazione di categoria);

(b) presidiare delle nicchie di mercato per proporsi come le migliori in un determinato ambito. Si tratta di agenzie medio/grandi che supportano imprese anche di grandi dimensioni nello svolgimento di una specifica attività: «Quando abbiamo rifatto tutti i siti dell'azienda in tutti i Paesi nei quali operiamo ci siamo rivolti a un'agenzia specializzata per avere il massimo dell'expertise in questo campo» (Direttore comunicazione, Impresa cliente);

(c) crescere per diventare attrattivi per le grandi holding della comunicazione e le società di consulenza ed essere acquisite da queste: «quando c'è lo strappo del cambiamento, le agenzie medio/piccole verticali che guidano quel cambiamento iniziano a crescere e a diventare interessanti per le grandi strutture che hanno bisogno di quelle competenze specializzate. E iniziano allora i processi di acquisizione da parte di queste ultime per rimanere competitive sul mercato» (CEO, Agenzia digitale).

In relazione alla strategia perseguita, varia ovviamente il quadro dei competitor che può comprendere le agenzie digitali integrate che propongono la consulenza su uno specifico servizio e le altre agenzie specializzate nello stesso ambito del digitale.

Limiti della ricerca. *Lo studio presenta alcuni limiti, legati all'approccio metodologico e alla focalizzazione geografica del set di rispondenti. L'adozione del metodo qualitativo, infatti, non consente di generalizzare i risultati ottenuti. Inoltre, il coinvolgimento di rispondenti appartenenti a realtà italiane, seppure con una prospettiva internazionale, potrebbe portare a risultati non riscontrabili in altri Paesi. Da questi limiti discendono alcune future linee di ricerca. Innanzitutto, potrebbe essere interessante allargare il contesto geografico d'indagine; in secondo luogo, si potrebbe svolgere un'analisi di casi di studio per approfondire le specificità di ciascuna categoria di player. Inoltre, potrebbe essere utile anche svolgere una ricerca quantitativa per verificare la classificazione proposta in questo lavoro. Sul piano tematico, sembra interessante approfondire un'altra componente del business model proposto da Richardson (2008) e non indagata finora in letteratura: il value capture ossia la struttura dei costi e i modelli di revenue delle diverse tipologie di agenzie.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *I risultati offrono utili implicazioni manageriali sia per le imprese clienti che per le diverse categorie di agenzia digitale individuate. In primo luogo, dal punto di vista dei clienti dei servizi di comunicazione digitale, la comprensione della varietà della value proposition delle agenzie digitali rappresenta un fattore importante per potersi orientare in uno scenario di offerta molto complesso e per poter valutare al meglio i progetti e i risultati proposti dai loro consulenti. In relazione al livello della consulenza (di business, strategica di marca, su specifici progetti), inoltre, potranno intraprendere relazioni di partnership di medio/lungo termine o di fornitura di breve periodo.*

Dal punto di vista delle agenzie, le agenzie di consulenza digitale dovrebbero proporsi come veri e propri partner di business delle imprese, rispetto alle quali dovrebbero svolgere anche un importante ruolo formativo per supportarle nel processo di trasformazione digitale. Dovrebbero puntare alla costruzione di partnership stabili e di qualità con i clienti, anche in termini di interlocutore aziendale coinvolto nella relazione (ad esempio, dovrebbero poter interagire col CEO e/o con manager C-level).

Le agenzie digitali integrate, nel fornire consulenza strategica di marca, devono differenziarsi chiaramente rispetto alle agenzie tradizionali puntando sul loro digital mindset e sulla loro capacità di portare risultati misurabili e ottimizzabili nel breve. Rispetto alle agenzie specializzate, devono proporsi come consulenti unici, in grado di supportare il cliente in tutti gli ambiti della comunicazione digitale, superando in tal modo la criticità organizzativa del coordinamento, dovuta alla frammentazione dei nuovi attori.

Le agenzie specializzate, invece, dovrebbero trovare il loro percorso di crescita, mantenendo elevato il livello di focalizzazione dell'offerta oppure, al contrario, puntando alla progressiva trasformazione in agenzie digitali integrate.

Infine, questo studio può essere di utilità agli studenti di Marketing Communication and Digital Marketing per orientarsi di fronte alla grande varietà di agenzie che operano nel mercato dei servizi per la comunicazione di marketing.

Originalità del lavoro. *Il presente lavoro si inserisce nella letteratura sulle agenzie di comunicazione, approfondendo in particolare le caratteristiche chiave della value proposition delle agenzie digitali, ossia gli attori «born digital» specializzati nella fornitura di servizi su media interattivi. Adottando un'ampia prospettiva d'indagine, che ha visto il coinvolgimento di professionisti della comunicazione appartenenti a diverse categorie (associazioni di categoria specializzate nel digitale, imprese clienti e agenzie digitali) è stato possibile delineare la varietà della value proposition di tali nuovi attori e identificare tre tipologie di agenzia digitale: (1) le agenzie di consulenza digitale, (2) le agenzie digitali integrate, (3) le agenzie digitali specializzate. Per ciascuna tipologia, sono state presentate le caratteristiche dell'offering, dei clienti target e della strategia adottata, delineando anche i competitor percepiti come più rilevanti.*

La ricerca contribuisce alla letteratura sulle agenzie di comunicazione in tre modi. In primo luogo, si focalizza su una categoria di agenzia, quella digitale, che ha ricevuto un'attenzione limitata negli studi precedenti. Infatti, il filone di studi sulle agenzie si concentra sugli attori tradizionali e laddove approfondisca quelli "nuovi" si limita a tracciare le differenze tra le due tipologie di agenzie in termini di struttura e competenze, processi, e cultura aziendale (Rodger e Chen, 2002; Mallia e Windels, 2011; Patwardhan et al., 2019).

In secondo luogo, focalizzandosi sulle agenzie digitali, la ricerca ha approfondito per la prima volta una delle dimensioni fondamentali del business model, la value proposition, adottando il modello di Richardson (2008) e indagando le tre componenti di questa: l'offering, il target e la strategia competitiva.

Infine, lo studio ha consentito di superare la vaghezza della value proposition rinvenuta nei contributi precedenti (Guercini, 2008; Patwardhan et al., 2019). Infatti, l'espressione agenzia digitale, che è stata riferita a tutte quelle agenzie specializzate sui mezzi digitali (Mallia e Windels, 2011; Vernuccio e Ceccotti, 2015), non è adatta a indicare le specificità di questi nuovi attori e deve essere ulteriormente qualificata per esplicitare meglio il posizionamento delle agenzie sul mercato dei servizi per la comunicazione. Lo studio contribuisce quindi alla letteratura proponendo tre differenti categorie di agenzie digitali (identificabili con tre "etichette" diverse) in relazione alla specificità della loro value proposition.

Parole chiave: *agenzia digitale; comunicazione di marketing, value proposition, interviste in profondità, analisi del contenuto.*

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Benefici e rischi nell'interazione con gli assistenti vocali. Un'indagine esplorativa in Italia

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Obiettivi. *Gli assistenti vocali (AV) sono tecnologie dell'intelligenza artificiale attivate dalla voce, che basano il loro funzionamento su algoritmi di apprendimento e adattamento continuo, raccogliendo e analizzando un elevato volume di dati personali e comportamentali degli utenti (Vernuccio et al., 2020). In un periodo in cui si sta prestando particolare attenzione alla protezione della privacy anche da un punto di vista normativo (es., il GDPR in Europa), i ricercatori di marketing hanno iniziato ad indagare le percezioni di rischio relative alle interazioni con gli AV (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2020) facendo riferimento a due diversi costrutti: "perceived privacy risk" e "privacy concerns".*

Il concetto di perceived privacy risk, nato nel campo di studi "human-computer interaction", è legato alla preoccupazione che i dati possano essere raccolti senza il consenso personale dell'individuo e sottratti illegalmente da soggetti terzi (Collier, 1995). Nel campo degli AV, i primi contributi hanno indagato la percezione di rischio solo nel contesto d'interazione degli smart speaker. In particolare, Rase et al. (2018), applicando sia la "reasoned action theory" sia l'"information privacy model", hanno trattato il costrutto di perceived privacy risk come un antecedente dell'attitude verso l'AV, mentre Hong et al. (2020) hanno enfatizzato l'effetto positivo del perceived privacy risk sulla resistenza all'uso dell'AV, seguendo il "resistance model". Infine, Pitardi & Marriot (2021), integrando le teorie "human–technology interactions" e "para-social relationships", hanno evidenziato come il perceived privacy risk influenzi negativamente sia l'atteggiamento sia la fiducia verso gli AV.

Il concetto di privacy concerns è stato oggetto di notevole attenzione in diversi filoni di studio e, solo nella letteratura relativa ai sistemi informativi, sono state definite quattro diverse concettualizzazioni con le rispettive scale di misurazione (Smith et al., 1996; Malhotra et al., 2004; Dinev & Hart, 2005; Hong & Thong, 2013). Queste ultime includono alcuni item comuni, relativi alla preoccupazione che i dati personali possano essere utilizzati e divulgati in modo improprio. Con riferimento al contesto esperienziale degli AV, nello studio di Cho (2019) non si riscontrano differenze percettive in termini di privacy concerns legate al dispositivo utilizzato per dialogare con gli AV (smartphone vs. smart speaker). Inoltre, le interazioni vocali (vs. testuali) migliorano l'atteggiamento verso gli AV solo quando gli individui mostrano un basso livello di preoccupazione circa le modalità di utilizzo e diffusione dei dati personali.

Agli studi sulle percezioni di rischio relative alle interazioni utente-AV si iniziano ad affiancare primi contributi volti ad indagare le percezioni positive degli utenti. In particolare, l'attenzione dei ricercatori si è concentrata per lo più sui costrutti di "perceived usefulness" e "perceived easy of use" (e.g., Moriuchi, 2019; Fernandes & Oliveira, 2021; McLean et al. 2021, Pitardi & Marriot, 2021). Inoltre, al meglio della nostra conoscenza, solo gli studi di McLean & Osei-Frimpong (2019), McLean et al. (2021), Patrizi et al., (2021), hanno analizzato le percezioni di benefici utilitaristici, edonistici e simbolici. I benefici utilitaristici sono benefici pratici e strumentali, che nel contesto d'interazione degli AV sono legati alla possibilità di dialogare senza la necessità di dover toccare o guardare un'interfaccia fisica, come ad esempio lo schermo di uno smartphone o di un tablet (Hoy, 2018). I benefici edonistici, invece, si riferiscono ad attributi dell'esperienza emotiva dell'individuo, quali il divertimento e il piacere (Schuitema et al., 2013). Se i benefici utilitaristici sono considerati un driver fondamentale dell'utilizzo degli AV, i benefici edonistici sono alla base dell'uso ripetuto nel tempo di queste nuove tecnologie (Hoy, 2018). Infine, i benefici simbolici sono legati all'immagine dell'utente derivante dall'interazione con un'interfaccia tecnologica (Schuitema et al., 2013). Ad oggi, le percezioni di queste tre tipologie di benefici legate all'interazione con gli AV sono state empiricamente rilevate nei contesti esperienziali dello smart speaker (McLean & Osei-Frimpong, 2019; McLean et al., 2021) e dello smartphone (Patrizi et al., 2021). Tuttavia, solo il contributo di McLean & Osei-Frimpong (2019), applicando la "uses & gratification theory", ha indagato congiuntamente i benefici e il solo rischio relativo alla raccolta dei dati personali, non considerando il rischio legato all'utilizzo improprio dei dati. In particolare, il perceived privacy risk modera le relazioni causali positive tra i benefici percepiti e l'utilizzo dell'AV su smart speaker.

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Nonostante il crescente interesse verso il rischio e i benefici percepiti legati all'interazione utente-AV, la letteratura appare parziale e frammentata, poiché da un lato il "perceived privacy risk" è stato studiato applicando prospettive teoriche eterogenee nel solo contesto dello smart speaker e, dall'altro, non si riscontra un accordo sulle scale da adottare per misurare il costrutto "privacy concerns". Inoltre, nessuno studio ha indagato i due concetti congiuntamente. Con riferimento ai benefici percepiti, i primi studi si sono concentrati per lo più sull'utilità e sul contesto esperienziale dello smart speaker (es., McLean & Osei-Frimpong, 2019; McLean et al., 2021), ponendo scarsa attenzione sia ai benefici edonistici e simbolici sia al contesto esperienziale dello smartphone, che risulta essere il device più utilizzato per interagire con gli AV (Voicebot, 2019). Infine, l'unico studio che ha indagato congiuntamente le tre tipologie di benefici e il costrutto di "perceived privacy risk, non ha considerato la percezione di "privacy concerns" (McLean & Osei-Frimpong, 2019) ed è stato condotto nel campo degli smart speaker. Pertanto, nessun lavoro si è posto l'obiettivo di giungere ad una visione olistica delle percezioni negative e positive degli utenti legate alle interazioni con gli AV su smartphone. Per colmare questa lacuna, la nostra ricerca intende adottare un approccio esplorativo quantitativo per analizzare congiuntamente le principali dimensioni del rischio e dei benefici percepiti legate all'interazione utente-AV su smartphone. Di conseguenza, abbiamo formulato la seguente domanda di ricerca:

RQ1 – Quali sono le principali dimensioni percettive del rischio e dei benefici legate all'interazione con gli AV su smartphone?

Poiché la Generazione Y presenta i tassi di adozione più elevati di queste nuove tecnologie (Capgemini Research Institute, 2018), abbiamo scelto di focalizzare l'attenzione su questa fascia anagrafica di utenti. Inoltre, tale segmento si caratterizza per un range d'età piuttosto ampio (25-40 anni) e nessuno studio in questo campo ha eseguito una cluster analysis basata sulle percezioni oggetto di studio. Pertanto, proponiamo la seguente domanda di ricerca:

RQ2 - Quali cluster di utenti della Generazione Y possono essere identificati sulla base delle dimensioni percettive del rischio e dei benefici legate all'interazione utente-AV su smartphone?

Metodologia. *Per rispondere alle domande di ricerca, nel 2020, abbiamo condotto una web survey incentrata su user italiani appartenenti alla Generazione Y (25-40 anni) (Monaco, 2018). La definizione del campione ha previsto, in un primo momento, il coinvolgimento di studenti universitari di corsi di laurea magistrali e, in un secondo momento, il ricorso alla "snowball sampling strategy" (Robinson, 2014). Al fine di inserire nel campione solo rispondenti in target, sono state formulate domande di screening per selezionare gli utenti nati tra il 1980 e il 1995 che utilizzano gli AV su smartphone almeno una volta al mese. In via preliminare, è stato condotto uno studio pilota con 20 rispondenti. Sulla base dei risultati, sono state apportate alcune revisioni di modesta entità al questionario.*

Il campione finale si compone di 349 rispondenti in target (82,9% del totale dei rispondenti), di cui il 52,7% sono donne (Tabella 1); l'età media è di 29 anni.

Tab. 1: Profilo dei rispondenti (N = 349)

Categoria	**(%)**
Genere	
Donna	52,7
Uomo	47,3
Titolo di studio	
Scuola media primaria	0,6
Scuola media secondaria	10,6
Laurea Triennale	34,4
Laurea magistrale	38,1
Dottorato	15,2
Altro	1,1

Il questionario, somministrato attraverso la piattaforma online SurveyMonkey®, consta di cinque sezioni. La prima sezione è stata dedicata alla rilevazione delle percezioni di rischio. In particolare, il costrutto di "perceived privacy risk" è stato misurato adattando al contesto d'interazione user-AV su smartphone la scala a quattro item (es., "Sono preoccupato che l'assistente vocale raccolga troppi dati su di me") sviluppata da McLean & Osei-Frimpong (2019), mentre il "privacy concerns" è stato rilevato attraverso un adattamento della scala a quattro item (es., "Sono preoccupato che le informazioni che fornisco all'assistente vocale possano essere utilizzate in modo improprio") di Dinev & Hart (2005). Nella seconda sezione, i benefici utilitaristici (es., "L'utilizzo dell'assistente vocale mi consente di gestire il mio tempo in modo ottimale"), edonistici (es., "Mi diverto quando formulo le richieste all'assistente vocale") e simbolici (es., "L'utilizzo dell'assistente vocale migliora la mia immagine tra i miei amici e colleghi), sono stati misurati utilizzando le scale sviluppate da McLean & Osei-Frimpong (2019). Nella terza sezione è stato chiesto ai rispondenti di indicare l'AV principalmente utilizzato su smartphone (es., Google Assistant, Siri) e sono stati rilevati l'atteggiamento verso gli AV e la familiarità con gli AV. Gli ultimi due costrutti sono stati rispettivamente misurati attraverso la scala a cinque item di Moriuchi (2019) e adattando la scala a tre item di Griffin et al. (1996). Nella quarta sezione, è stato rilevato il grado di innovatività (Bruner II & Kumar, 2007) ed infine, nell'ultima, sono stati richiesti i dati strutturali (genere, età e titolo di studio).

Risultati. *Al fine di individuare le principali dimensioni del rischio e dei benefici percepiti è stata eseguita una exploratory factor analysis (EFA) attraverso SPSS 25. In particolare, come criterio di estrazione dei fattori si è scelto di applicare la principal components con rotazione Varimax. La scelta del numero di fattori da estrarre è stata* *effettuata sulla base di tre diversi criteri: 1) eigenvalue>1; 2) scree plot; e 3) parallel analysis. L'esecuzione dell'EFA ha condotto all'estrazione di 3 fattori (19 item; Tabella 2) con tutti i factor loading superiori a 0,50 (valore minimo 0,588; valore massimo 0,907) e nessun cross-loading superiore a 0,30. I tre fattori identificati spiegano il 67,22% della varianza totale. Inoltre, l'Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index (0,878, $p<0,001$) prova l'adeguatezza del campionamento, mentre il test di sfericità di Bartlett ($\chi 2$ = 6660,48 (171), $p<0,001$) attesta l'appropriatezza delle variabili inserite nell'analisi. Infine, la coerenza interna di ciascun fattore (Hair et al., 2015) è stata verificata mediante il calcolo dell'alpha di Cronbach e della composite reliability (CR) (fattore 1: α = 0,924, CR = 0,934; fattore 2: α = 0,878, CR = 0,90; fattore 3: α = 0,925, CR = 0,934). I fattori estratti sono riconducibili a: 1) rischio legato alla raccolta e all'utilizzo improprio dei dati; 2) benefici utilitaristici e edonistici; 3) benefici simbolici.*

Tab. 2: Risultati dell'exploratory factor analysis

Fattore	**Item**	**Factor Loading**		
Fattore 1 – Rischio legato alla raccolta e all'utilizzo improprio dei dati (α = 0,924)	Mi preoccupa fornire informazioni all'assistente vocale perché potrebbero essere utilizzate in modo improprio	0,890		
	Mi preoccupa fornire informazioni all'assistente vocale perché altri soggetti potrebbero utilizzarle in modo improprio	0,882		
	Mi preoccupa fornire informazioni all'assistente vocale perché potrebbero essere utilizzate con modalità non previste	0,872		
	Sono preoccupato che l'assistente vocale raccolga troppe informazioni su di me	0,855		
	Sono preoccupato che le informazioni raccolte dall'assistente vocale possano essere rubate da terzi soggetti	0,851		
	Quando effettuo un acquisto attraverso l'assistente vocale, sono preoccupato che i dati della mia carta di credito possano essere rubati e utilizzati in modo improprio	0,752		
	Nutro delle preoccupazioni circa la natura confidenziale delle mie interazioni con l'assistente vocale	0,694		
	Mi preoccupa eseguire una transazione finanziaria con l'assistente vocale per via delle informazioni che raccoglie	0,659		
Factor 2 –Benefici utilitaristici e edonistici (α = 0,878)	Lo svolgimento di azioni attraverso l'assistente vocale mi consente di gestire il mio tempo in modo efficiente		0,825	
	Lo svolgimento di azioni attraverso l'assistente vocale mi facilita la vita		0,806	
	L'utilizzo dell'assistente vocale mi consente di gestire il mio tempo in modo ottimale		0,805	
	Penso che utilizzare l'assistente vocale sia un'attività piacevole		0,768	
	Penso che utilizzare l'assistente vocale sia un'attività divertente		0,731	
	Lo svolgimento di azioni attraverso l'assistente vocale è coerente con i miei programmi		0,724	
	Mi diverto quando formulo le richieste all'assistente vocale		0,588	
Factor 3 – Benefici simbolici (α = 0,925)	Utilizzare l'assistente vocale è uno status symbol per me			0,907
	Utilizzare l'assistente vocale mi fa apparire più importante agli occhi dei miei colleghi e dei miei amici			0,897
	L'utilizzo dell'assistente vocale mi consente di distinguermi da coloro che non lo fanno			0,897
	L'utilizzo dell'assistente vocale migliora la mia immagine tra i miei amici e colleghi			0,831

Come secondo step, è stata eseguita una k-means cluster analysis (metodo di Ward), basata sui tre fattori identificati nell'EFA. L'applicazione dei seguenti quattro criteri ha portato all'identificazione della soluzione finale a tre cluster: 1) la relazione statistica tra la varianza all'interno del cluster e la varianza tra i cluster (F-test); 2) l'interpretabilità della soluzione; 3) il numero di utenti in ciascun cluster; e 4) lo Pseudo F-test (Calinski & Harabasz, 1974). La generalizzabilità della soluzione è stata verificata attraverso il Rand Index (0,8009) (Rand, 1971).

Tab. 3: Risultati della k-means cluster analysis

	F-statistic	**Cluster**		
		1. Ideale	2. Ragione e sentimento	3. Preoccupato
Fattore 1 – Rischio legato alla raccolta e all'utilizzo improprio dei dati	16,568*	*0,15*	*-0,31*	*0,35*
Fattore 2 – Benefici utilitaristici e edonistici	160,167*	*0,22*	*0,57*	*-1,02*
Fattore 3 – Benefici simbolici	397,143*	*1,49*	*-0,53*	*-0,37*
N	349	83	159	107
% del campione	100%	23,78%	45,56%	30,66%

Note: *$p<0,001$.

Il primo cluster, denominato "ideale", è composto da 83 rispondenti e rappresenta il 23,78% del campione (N=349). Questo cluster mostra il più alto livello di sensibilità ai benefici simbolici (punteggio standardizzato positivo 1,49). Inoltre, questi utenti sono parzialmente interessati ai benefici utilitaristici e edonistici (0,22) e hanno una percezione del rischio leggermente superiore alla media (0,15).

Il secondo cluster, composto da 159 rispondenti (45,56% del campione), si designa come "ragione e sentimento" poiché i suoi componenti sono particolarmente sensibili ai benefici utilitaristici e edonistici (0,57, il valore più alto tra i tre clusters). Questi utenti non sono interessati ai benefici simbolici (-0,53, il valore più basso tra i tre cluster) e non percepiscono il rischio associato alla raccolta e all'uso improprio dei dati (-0,31, il valore più basso).

Infine, il cluster "preoccupato" è composto da 107 rispondenti (30,66% del campione). Questo segmento ha il valore più alto tra i tre cluster in termini di rischi percepiti (0,35) e non riconosce né i benefici utilitaristici e edonistici (-1,02, il valore più basso tra i tre cluster) né i benefici simbolici (-0,37) (Tabella 4).

Al fine di evidenziare le differenze tra gli utenti appartenenti ai tre cluster, è stato eseguito un confronto sulla base delle variabili misurate nella terza, quarta e quinta sezione del questionario. Le relazioni tra l'appartenenza al cluster e le variabili descrittive qualitative sono state studiate attraverso l'analisi di connessione e il test del chi-quadrato. I risultati hanno evidenziato un'associazione significativa tra l'appartenenza al cluster e la frequenza d'uso ($\chi2$ =66,240 (6), p = 0,000), mentre le associazioni con l'AV utilizzato ($\chi2$ =4,759 (8), p = 0,779), il sesso ($\chi2$ =1,489 (2), p = 0,475) e il titolo di studio ($\chi2$ =7,835 (10), p = 0,645) sono tutte non significative. In particolare, gli utenti del cluster "preoccupato" hanno una bassa frequenza media di utilizzo, mentre gli utenti del cluster "ragione e sentimento" hanno un'alta frequenza media di utilizzo.

Inoltre, per verificare la presenza di differenze statisticamente significative tra le medie dei cluster, sono state condotte più one-way ANOVA, utilizzando le variabili quantitative descrittive come variabili dipendenti e l'appartenenza al cluster come variabile indipendente. Come mostrato nella tabella 4, i risultati hanno indicato differenze significative in termini di atteggiamento verso l'AV, familiarità con l'AV, innovatività ed età.

Tab. 4: One-way ANOVA cluster means e livelli di significatività

	Cluster Mean			**F-statistic**	**P-value**
Variabili dipendenti	1. Ideale	2. Ragione e sentimento	3. Preoccupato		
Atteggiamento verso l'AV	5,03	4,90	3,83	*40,956*	*p = 0,000*
Familiarità con	4,98	5,13	3,91	*24,333*	*p = 0,000*
Innovatività	4,38	3,31	2,48	*35,288*	*p = 0,000*
Età	27,36	28,40	27,57	*3,298*	*p = 0,038*

In particolare, il cluster "preoccupato" si caratterizza per il peggior atteggiamento verso l'AV, il più basso livello medio di familiarità con l'AV e il più basso livello medio di innovatività rispetto agli altri due cluster. Invece, gli utenti appartenenti al cluster "ragione e sentimento" hanno un'età mediamente superiore ai soli utenti del cluster "ideale". (Tabella 5).

Tab. 5: Confronti multipli

Variabili dipendenti	**Cluster**		**Mean difference**	**P-value**
Atteggiamento verso l'AV	3	1	-1,20	*p=0,000*
		2	-1,07	*p=0,000*
Familiarità con l'AV	3	1	-1,06	*p=0,000*
		2	-1,21	*p=0,000*
Innovatività	3	1	-1,89	*p=0,000*
		2	-0,83	*p=0,000*
Età	2	1	1,04	*p=0,072*
		3	0,83	*p=0,151**

Note: *p>0,1 NS.

Limiti della ricerca. *Il nostro studio non è esente da limiti. In primo luogo, è stato adottato un campione non probabilistico di utenti italiani appartenenti alla Generazione Y, che interagiscono con gli AV su smartphone. Di conseguenza, questo disegno di ricerca potrebbe essere applicato ad altri Paesi, altri segmenti (es., la Generazione Z) e altri dispositivi (es., gli smart speaker) in specifici contesti di utilizzo degli AV (es., nel contesto domestico). Inoltre, le linee di ricerca future potrebbero esplorare anche le percezioni positive e negative dei non utenti. Infine, dato che il nostro studio ha un focus esclusivamente esplorativo, lavori futuri potrebbero approfondire i possibili legami causali tra le variabili percettive e l'intenzione di utilizzare gli AV e/o la resistenza all'utilizzo degli AV su smartphone.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *In termini di implicazioni manageriali, sulla base dei risultati dell'EFA e della cluster analysis è possibile offrire utili suggerimenti ai professionisti di marketing, in termini di targeting, progettazione dell'esperienza di interazione e pianificazione delle attività di comunicazione incentrate sugli AV. Per esempio, per raggiungere gli utenti del cluster "ideale", le attività di comunicazione dovrebbero essere focalizzate sull'immagine*

prestigiosa e innovativa che gli utenti possono acquisire agli occhi dei propri amici e colleghi grazie all'utilizzo degli assistenti vocali. Invece, per rivolgersi al cluster "ragione e sentimento", gli esperti di marketing dovrebbero enfatizzare le molteplici attività di natura sia utilitaristica sia edonistica, che possono essere svolte grazie all'assistente vocale. Infine, per raggiungere gli utenti del cluster "preoccupato", l'esperienza di interazione dovrebbe essere progettata per essere il più sicura possibile. Il valore della sicurezza dovrebbe, inoltre, essere evidenziata nelle attività di comunicazione.

Originalità del lavoro. *Questo lavoro si inserisce nella nascente letteratura di marketing sugli AV, identificando e interpretando in modo integrato le principali dimensioni percettive del rischio e dei benefici legate all'interazione utente-AV. Inoltre, il presente contributo, sulla base delle differenze percettive, identifica tre diversi cluster di utenti appartenenti alla Generazione Y. In termini di implicazioni accademiche, questo studio propone un avanzamento nella conoscenza frammentaria dei rischi e dei benefici legati alle interazioni con gli AV, offrendo una prima visione olistica di queste percezioni positive e negative. Con particolare riferimento alle percezioni negative, i nostri risultati mostrano come gli utenti percepiscano, in modo integrato, le diverse dimensioni del rischio che sono associate sia alla raccolta dei dati (es., Hong et al., 2020) sia all'uso improprio dei dati (es., Cho, 2019). Allo stesso tempo, considerando il "lato positivo", l'analisi evidenzia il punto di vista unificato degli utenti sui benefici utilitaristici e edonistici. La letteratura esistente supporta indirettamente questa constatazione con il concetto di "utilitarianism", correlato a elementi sia edonistici sia utilitaristici (Babin et al., 1994). Inoltre, queste percezioni si riflettono nell'uso degli AV su smartphone per scopi pratici e ludici da parte degli utenti della Generazione Y (Capgemini Research Institute, 2018) (RQ1). Infine, questo è il primo studio che ha proposto di utilizzare la cluster analysis per evidenziare le differenze percettive in termini di rischi e benefici tra gruppi di utenti della Generazione Y (RQ2).*

Parole chiave: *Assistenti vocali; rischio percepito; benefici percepiti; exploratory factor analysis; cluster analysis*

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Sanità Privata: CSR, D&I &Trust

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Obiettivi. *Gli investimenti delle aziende mirati a rafforzare la fiducia dei propri clienti secondo molti studiosi e osservatori (e.g. Hardy, Phillips e Lawrence, 1998) possono spesso rivelarsi un'arma a doppio taglio: si sostiene, infatti, che tali iniziative possano essere di fatto lette come tentativi di aumentare la propria redditività traendo in inganno i consumatori. In altri termini, mirare a sviluppare deliberatamente la fiducia dei propri stakeholder rischia di far perdere al concetto stesso di fiducia il suo fondamentale carattere di limpidezza, in quanto proprio la fiducia sarebbe artificialmente creata e, per questo, perderebbe le caratteristiche della sua vera essenza. Infatti, quando l'utente ipotizza o percepisce comportamenti opportunistici da parte di un'azienda che dichiara di investire sulla sua fiducia, riconosce una sorta di "tradimento" delle aspettative create dall'impresa stessa e quindi abbandona la relazione.*

Le aziende private che operano nel mondo della sanità, essendo esso stesso un settore ad alto impatto sociale, corrono più di altre il rischio che le proprie azioni vengano mal interpretate e un simile fenomeno può riguardare maggiormente la sanità privata per cui ricorrono spesso percezioni di comportamenti opportunistici o di abuso della fiducia (Mallarini 2004). Questa è una delle possibili ragioni per le quali sono poche le aziende in questo campo che hanno sviluppato processi di Trust Management (Mallarini, 2020), nel timore che i cittadini interpretino il processo come tentativo di manipolazione. Il Covid-19, però, ha reso imprescindibile rivedere il rapporto tra sanità e fiducia ed investire su quest'ultima. L'incertezza, i contrasti tra esperti, le soluzioni contraddittorie adottate durante l'emergenza incidono in maniera negativa sulla fiducia e di conseguenza sui comportamenti responsabili dei cittadini e sulla compliance terapeutica dei pazienti. Evidenze circa la correlazione tra incertezza e conflitti da una parte e il livello di fiducia dall'altra, riportate in letteratura (Castaldo, 2002; Mallarini 2004), sono emerse durante la pandemia: ad esempio, oltre all'8% degli italiani che hanno dichiarato di non volersi vaccinare, c'è un ulteriore 30% della popolazione che dice di essere disposto a vaccinarsi solamente dopo aver visto gli effetti collaterali sulle persone già vaccinate e dopo averne verificato la reale efficacia. La spiegazione di tali atteggiamenti può essere individuata proprio nella mancanza di fiducia nel processo che ha portato all'approvazione del vaccino o nei decisori che a loro avviso nascondono interessi economico-politici (AltroConsumo, feb 2021). Relativamente al tema della compliance terapeutica, secondo IQVIA, le visite specialistiche sono calate del 30% tra i primi 10 mesi del 2019 e gli stessi del 2020 (anche se la fiducia in questo caso è solo una delle concause del fenomeno). Inoltre, una persona su 4 ha avuto difficoltà a portare avanti la propria terapia in modo continuativo e 3 persone su 10 hanno saltato almeno una somministrazione della terapia (Onda, 2020).

Queste considerazioni hanno portato i ricercatori dell'Osservatorio Consumi Privati in Sanità a interrogarsi (i) sulle determinanti della fiducia in ambito sanitario e specificatamente nell'ambito della sanità privata intesa come erogatori di servizi e soggetti terzo paganti privati (assicurazioni, società di servizi per il settore della sanità integrativa, fondi sanitari integrativi e società di mutuo soccorso), e (ii) sull'interpretazione che i cittadini attribuiscono agli investimenti fatti dalle aziende della sanità privata al fine di alimentare la fiducia, per verificare non ci sia una mal interpretazione degli stessi come azioni di facciata.

In letteratura si identificano tre dimensioni della fiducia (Lewicki, Bunker, 1996): (i) è calculus based quando basata sulle competenze del trustee (il soggetto in cui è riposta la fiducia, correlato al trustor che è colui che ripone la fiducia), (ii) è knowledge based basata sulla continuità della relazione e (iii) è la brand awareness del trustee e value based, se basata sulla condivisione di valori. La dimensione della fiducia prevalente nel settore sanitario, e sulla quale è pertanto prioritario investire, risulta essere quella valoriale, il cui principale antecedente è la CSR (Mallarini, 2004).

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Lo studio si è quindi focalizzato sulla Responsabilità Sociale di impresa e ha analizzato in profondità le attese dei cittadini in merito agli investimenti di erogatori di servizi sanitari e di attori della sanità integrativa in politiche di CSR, interrogandosi sull'opportunità dell'investimento, sui valori rispetto ai quali i cittadini ritengono che le aziende debbano investire, e le loro potenziali ricadute sui risultati economici. Ci si è poi chiesti se queste dinamiche corrispondono o divergano da quelle del mondo delle imprese in generale. Infine, le attese dei cittadini sono state poi messe a confronto con quanto messo in atto dalle aziende della sanità privata. Propedeutica a questa indagine, è la prima mappatura delle iniziative sviluppate dagli erogatori di prestazioni sanitarie e dai player della sanità integrativa, indagando le posture verso la CSR e le loro valutazioni in merito al rischio che i cittadini (dark side della CSR) valutino manipolatorio l'investimento.

A fronte di questi ragionamenti gli obiettivi di ricerca possono in ultima analisi essere sintetizzati in:

- *Chiarire il concetto di fiducia e la sua strategicità per raggiungere gli obiettivi aziendali nel settore sanitario privato;*
- *Verificare se la sanità privata sconti un pregiudizio di sfiducia e se la fiducia valoriale sia effettivamente la dimensione più critica nella sanità privata;*
- *Verificare se investire in CSR per accrescere la fiducia valoriale sia percepito positivamente dai cittadini e individuare i valori etici più rilevanti per i cittadini sui quali le aziende della sanità privata dovrebbero investire.*
- *Identificare le aree di investimento per ciascun valore etico;*
- *Analizzare le differenze nella CSR tra sanità privata e altri settori nonché tra erogatori e sanità integrativa;*
- *Confrontare le preferenze dei cittadini con le strategie adottate dai principali operatori di settore;*
- *Definire una chiave di interpretazione al fine di supportare la comunità della sanità privata a indirizzare al meglio i propri indirizzi strategici in CSR.*

Metodologia. *La ricerca è stata condotta implementando diverse metodologie: desk analysis, interviste semistrutturate e survey condotta attraverso la somministrazione online di un questionario con domande chiuse.*

Inizialmente i ricercatori hanno realizzato un approfondimento della letteratura legata al costrutto di fiducia e alla CSR.

Una volta individuati i perimetri dei due concetti e i paradigmi ad essi associati sono state approfondite le politiche di CSR delle principali aziende di settore (erogatori di prestazioni sanitarie e player della sanità integrativa intesi come assicurazioni e società di mutuo soccorso) tramite interviste in profondità al loro management e a un'indagine desk condotta sui siti.

Infine, si è provveduto ad esplorare la visione e le attese di 450 persone che negli ultimi due anni siano state ricoverate almeno una volta e/o abbiano usufruito di almeno una visita specialistica e/o abbiano fatto almeno un accesso al Pronto Soccorso. Il campione è stato selezionato in target con l'utenza delle aziende oggetto della ricerca: sono adulti, al 60% di un'età compresa tra i 35 e i 65 anni, laureati, al 71% provenienti da un'area metropolitana o un comune capoluogo del nord Italia e frequentano i servizi sanitari in modo abituale.

Per costruire l'analisi esplorativa campionaria, i ricercatori hanno poi identificato in Ambiente e Inclusione i valori associati alla CSR. In merito all'inclusione è stata utilizzata la classificazione della University of Washington Tacoma che classifica la D&I in genere, età, condizioni socio-economiche, etnia, orientamento sessuale, orientamento religioso, disabilità.

Risultati.

Strategicità della fiducia

La fiducia è "un'aspettativa che un soggetto/prodotto (es. ospedale/poliambulatorio/assicurazione ecc.) con determinate caratteristiche quali ad es. competenze, disponibilità di tecnologie (il cosiddetto trustee in cui si ripone la fiducia) compia in futuro, in situazioni di rischio percepito e/o di vulnerabilità, azioni volte a produrre risultati positivi per il trustor (colui che ripone la fiducia nel trustee)". Il rischio si può intendere come rischio funzionale (che non si realizzino le attese), economico (che il raggiungimento dell'obiettivo non sia sostenibile), psicologico (timore rispetto alla situazione specifica). Nel settore sanitario la percezione di queste tre tipologie di rischio è molto sentita. L'incertezza dell'esito della terapia incide sia sulle aspettative di efficacia della prestazione, sia sul timore che i costi da sostenere non siano compensati dalla cura attesa, sia sull'apprensione associata alla malattia. Lo stesso vale per la sanità integrativa: il rischio può essere funzionale in quanto, ad esempio, l'importo del rimborso è inferiore a quanto necessario per coprire le spese di cura; economico, legato al timore che il premio non sia equo rispetto al danno; psicologico legato alla paura che non ci sia conformità tra la prestazione e il rimborso.

La fiducia è pertanto un valore di primaria importanza in ambito sanitario. Le sue principali conseguenze dirette (Mallarini, 2004), infatti, sono:

1. Aumentare il livello di soddisfazione e migliorare la qualità della relazione. L'asimmetria informativa rende difficile una valutazione della qualità (efficacia tecnico-professionale della prestazione) da parte dei "non professionisti", i quali pertanto focalizzano i loro giudizi rispetto alle dinamiche organizzative e relazionali dell'offerta (fruibilità e accessibilità di prodotti e servizi, disponibilità degli operatori, semplicità nell'acquisire informazioni, e così via). La fiducia ha il potere di estendere la soddisfazione riferita agli elementi valutabili della prestazione a quelli tecnico-professionali, il cosiddetto effetto alone della fiducia (Natarajan, 2008).

2. Accrescere il grado di commitment, ovvero di impegno e di coinvolgimento nella relazione dei soggetti coinvolti. Nel settore della salute questo implica una maggiore responsabilità da parte del paziente a richiedere prestazioni in *maniera appropriata, una sua più consapevole partecipazione al processo di cura e una superiore compliance al percorso diagnostico terapeutico (empowerment responsabile);*

3. Rendere più efficace ed efficiente la comunicazione. Questo facilita l'azienda a riconoscere le effettive esigenze della domanda, nonché l'utenza a comprendere l'offerta. Permette anche di avviare un processo educativo nei confronti del cittadino e di assicurare una migliore gestione futura del suo stile di vita, affinché diventi più equilibrato rispetto alle esigenze della sua salute. La fiducia permette pertanto di modificare i comportamenti dell'utente, anche in un'ottica di prevenzione, appropriatezza e compliance.

4. Richiedere un minor ricorso a forme di potere coercitivo. La pandemia è stato un esempio lampante di come la scarsa fiducia nel sistema abbia portato i cittadini a non essere sempre aderenti alle indicazioni degli esperti e, di conseguenza, abbia indotto le istituzioni ad emanare direttive stringenti a limitazione dei comportamenti individuali. La fiducia, al contrario, consente di minimizzare la necessità di inserire nei contratti provvedimenti sanzionatori.

5. Migliorare le performance economiche. La fiducia, infatti, riduce l'interesse a sperimentare nuovi fornitori (inerzia cognitiva) e fidelizza, rafforza la reputazione, giustifica un premium price per la prestazione, facilita la brand extension verso nuovi servizi e riduce i costi di marketing (Castaldo, 2002).

La rilevanza della fiducia come fattore essenziale per chi opera in sanità sia sotto il profilo dell'impatto sulla salute sia sotto il profilo economico rende strategico individuare strumenti per rafforzarla. L'asimmetria informativa unita all'incertezza nella pandemia rendono predominante la dimensione valoriale della fiducia: l'asimmetria informativa rende poco rilevante la dimensione Calculus Based perché l'utenza non ha strumenti di valutazione della competenza, la seconda condizione, ovvero l'incertezza legata alla pandemia, riduce la rilevanza della Fiducia Knowledge Based perché rispetto al Covid-19 non si può contare su esperienze pregresse.

La crisi di fiducia nel settore sanitario privato

L'analisi campionaria ci conferma che esistono dei pregiudizi rispetto alla sanità privata: oltre il 70% degli intervistati ritiene che la sanità pubblica sia più affidabile di quella privata. Il 20% e 37% ritiene che rispettivamente negli erogatori di prestazioni a pagamento e nella sanità integrativa gli interessi economici prevalgono sulla salute. Il 18% afferma proprio che gli attori privati del settore si approfittano delle persone malate. La ragione per la quali si preferisce il privato per il 60% risiede nei tempi di attesa inferiori, ma solo il 15% giustifica il prezzo più elevato per il migliore servizio e il 6% per la qualità della prestazione. Si osserva un privato legittimato come risposta alle inefficienze organizzative del pubblico e non come portatore di benefici in termini di qualità delle prestazioni. La crisi valoriale si manifesta in modo evidente. Per recuperare la fiducia occorre quindi focalizzarsi sugli antecedenti della sua dimensione valoriale, il principale dei quali è la CSR (Almunawar M.N., Low K.C.P., 2013).

L'importanza della CSR secondo i cittadini

L'analisi campionaria manifesta uno spiccato interesse per la CSR: il 93% degli intervistati considera importante che le aziende dalle quali acquista prodotti o servizi investano su obiettivi di interesse sociale. Sulla sanità privata il valore si abbassa, ma resta comunque significativo, ossia pari al 69%. Inoltre, ben il 57% dei rispondenti ritiene che la sanità privata debba, o piuttosto sia una sua imprescindibile responsabilità, sviluppare azioni di CSR. Dalle interviste ai manager delle aziende della sanità privata, emerge invece un interesse minore che potrebbe essere associato alla visione della responsabilità sociale quale parte integrante della mission di questi soggetti e che quindi per molti potrebbe rappresentare un fattore igienico. Il rischio di non investire in CSR più che essere legato alla dark side della strategia, ipotesi che lo studio si proponeva di verificare, potrebbe derivare quindi dal mancato rispetto della mission istituzionale.

Per quanto riguarda poi l'indagine campionaria esplorativa, il valore citato più spesso al primo posto per ordine di importanza è risultato l'ambiente, sia per le imprese in generale che per quelle del settore della sanità privata, seguito dalle donne, dalle persone economicamente svantaggiate e le persone con disabilità.

I temi sui quali le imprese in generale e la sanità privata non convergono sono quelli legati a anziani, famiglie e persone economicamente svantaggiate che, essendo più legati alla loro mission, hanno una rilevanza nettamente maggiore per i player della sanità. Differenze molto significative si riscontrano in merito all'inclusione legata all'orientamento sessuale, quasi totalmente assenti nelle aspettative dei cittadini relative alla CSR nella sanità privata. I valori tra erogatori e sanità integrativa si equivalgono.

Gli investimenti degli erogatori sono in linea con le attese dei cittadini: ambiente, parità di genere, famiglie con bambini, persone economicamente e anziani. La sanità integrativa, invece, è focalizzata prevalentemente sulle politiche interne di CSR e l'ambiente.

Entrando nel dettaglio sui singoli valori di responsabilità sociale, il più rilevante risulta l'ambiente. Su una scala di Lickert da 1 a 7, dove 7 è il valore massimo di importanza per un'impresa nell'investire in politiche per la tutela dell'ambiente, l'82% del campione assegna il valore 6 o 7 se ci si riferisce a un'impresa in generale, percentuale che si riduce al 75% se ci si riferisce alla sanità integrativa e al 60% se ci riferisce agli erogatori di prestazioni sanitarie private. L'investimento che i cittadini ritengono che questi ultimi dovrebbero sostenere è la riorganizzazione dei processi interni per minimizzare l'impatto ambientale (91%). Alla sanità integrativa sono richieste invece più attività: la riorganizzazione dei processi interni è proposta dal 53%, seguita dalla raccolta fondi e il lancio di campagne.

Gli intervistati nella misura dell'87% in merito agli erogatori e del 56% in merito alla sanità integrativa richiedono investimenti per la tutela della donna, in primo luogo tramite politiche del lavoro che favoriscano la parità (70% riferito agli erogatori, 48% riferito ai player della sanità integrativa), quindi erogazione di servizi specifici per le *donne vittime di violenza (15%, 21%) e, infine, erogazione di servizi a condizioni agevolate (10%, 21%).*

Rispetto al valore alle persone economicamente svantaggiate, il 74% del campione ritiene che sia importante (6 o 7 su una scala da 1 a 7) che sia gli erogatori sia la sanità integrativa investano sulla loro inclusione tramite tariffe agevolate e convenzioni. Per la sanità integrativa si propone anche lo sviluppo di servizi ad hoc.

I cittadini che valutano importante che le aziende investano in politiche a supporto delle persone diversamente abili è pari a 85% per gli erogatori e 60% per la sanità integrativa. Gli investimenti suggeriti agli erogatori riguardano: Promozione e finanziamento di progetti (25%); Istituzione di percorsi ad hoc (23%); Erogazione di servizi specifici e dedicati (22%) e Politiche del lavoro (20%). Per le aziende della sanità integrativa: Convenzioni con strutture per servizi dedicati (35%); Investimenti in mobilità (35%); Politiche del lavoro (24%).

L'89% degli intervistati valuta l'importanza del fatto che gli erogatori investano in CSR a supporto delle persone anziane 6 o 7 su una scala da 1 a 7. Le attività di CSR che dovrebbero essere messe in campo secondo gli intervistati sono: Assistenza domiciliare (71%), Accessi privilegiati (9%), Tariffe agevolate (9%), Servizi di trasporto (9%). Quando ci si riferisce alla sanità integrativa il valore scende al 65% e le iniziative si dovrebbero sostanziare secondo il campione in Polizze dedicate (54%), Tariffe agevolate (31%), Convenzioni con aziende non di servizi sanitari (15%).

Il valore che il campione attribuisce alla CSR si traduce non solo in preferenza verso l'azienda inclusiva o orientata all'ambiente rispetto a una non inclusiva e non orientata all'ambiente, ma spesso anche nella disponibilità a pagare un premium price, soprattutto quando si parla di erogatori. La percentuale di cittadini disposti a pagare, a parità di qualità, di più una prestazione di un'azienda che investe in CSR rispetto a una prestazione di un'azienda che non lo fa varia sensibilmente a seconda del valore etico e più ancora del tipo di azienda: ambiente (85% impresa indistinta, 60% erogatore sanità privata, 77% sanità integrativa); tutela dei diritti della donna (85% erogatore sanità privata, 70% sanità integrativa); persone diversamente abili (90% erogatore sanità privata, 77% sanità integrativa); anziani (90% erogatore sanità privata, 65% sanità integrativa); persone economicamente svantaggiate (60% erogatore sanità privata, 77% sanità integrativa).

Il valore del premium price è tra il 15% e il 20% in più del prezzo del servizio (19% in più per il prodotto di un'azienda che tutela l'ambiente, 20% diritti delle donne, 17% disabili e famiglie, 15% persone economicamente svantaggiate). Quindi, ad esempio, il 90% del campione è disponibile a pagare la prestazione di un erogatore privato di servizi sanitari che adotta politiche di CSR in favore delle persone disabili il 17% in più.

In sintesi, si può quindi affermare che gli intervistati ritengono che sia opportuno, e in alcuni casi doveroso, per le aziende che operano in ambito di sanità privata investire in CSR, non con un approccio filantropico (la raccolta fondi è citata solo per le imprese della sanità integrativa per la tutela dell'ambiente), ma aziendale, con servizi destinati prevalentemente alla comunità e all'utenza. Le differenze non sono solo in termini di valori etici, ma anche di scelte di investimento. Le preferenze vanno su servizi, quando possibili, o convenzioni per i soggetti svantaggiati o discriminati; mentre le politiche interne nella survey sono risultate importanti solo se riferite alla tutela dell'ambiente con la riorganizzazione dei processi e alla parità di genere nelle politiche del lavoro. I risultati relativi alla sanità integrativa sono molto simili a quelli delle imprese di altri settori. Gli erogatori, invece, hanno delle specificità correlate alla sovrapposizione di alcune forme di CSR (in particolare quelle associati a individui fragili) e mission che traducono in fattori igienici alcuni servizi alla persona e le politiche del lavoro).

Orientamenti e posture della sanità privata verso la CSR

Le aziende degli altri settori investono ormai da tempo in CSR (il Credo di Johnson & Johnson, uno dei primi strumenti di formalizzazione della CSR è del 1943), la sanità privata tutt'oggi si muove timidamente a piccoli passi. Molti attori ritengono che la componente sociale sia un'estensione naturale della propria mission, anche se l'indagine campionaria mostra che i cittadini ritengono importante uno sforzo in questo senso, tra l'altro proprio sulle categorie di valori più vicine al mondo della salute. Il presidio di molti aspetti di sensibilità e inclusione non è dato per scontato (altrimenti non ci sarebbe la disponibilità a pagare un premium price per chi la pratica). Questi player non ne fanno una vera e propria strategia in quanto ne inglobano le azioni nell'attività ordinaria e, quindi, non la comunicano.

Altre aziende non praticano la CSR in quanto la ritengono uno strumento di puro marketing e addirittura un mero esercizio cosmetico, ne identificano solo la dark side e quindi ne temono le conseguenze negative sulla fiducia.

Chi, invece, le ha dato una connotazione strategica, la identifica come un modo con cui comunicare vicinanza ai dipendenti e alla comunità di riferimento, visione che matura fino a diventare una scelta che nasce da valori condivisi con i propri stakeholder, ma che deve necessariamente tradursi in ricadute positive tangibili (approccio aziendale).

Molti sono i fattori che influenzano l'approccio alla CSR delle aziende che operano nella sanità privata.

Innanzitutto, è da considerare l'assetto istituzionale che identifica gli stakeholder e la loro rilevanza. Ad esempio, nella sanità integrativa i fondi aziendali o basati su contratti di lavoro hanno come antecedente principale della fiducia valoriale la trasparenza e non la CSR, quindi la loro responsabilità verso gli associati e gli assistiti è di accountability. Le assicurazioni profit, e, non proprio coerentemente con quanto suggerito dai cittadini, investono prevalentemente in inclusione nelle politiche del lavoro lasciando spazio ai servizi verso clienti e comunità. Eccezione a questa strategia è costituita dalle aziende che fanno capo a multinazionali o di dimensioni più grande, più mature nella cultura di CSR (cultura e dimensione sono altri due fattori che influenzano l'approccio alla CSR). Chiaramente incide anche la mission: profit o non profit.

Dai diversi approcci alla CSR derivano anche varie soluzioni organizzative. Non è un caso, quindi che il presidio della CSR sia talvolta affidato a chi si occupa di gestione del personale e risorse umane, indicando un'enfasi al ruolo di tale strumento nell'ambito del welfare aziendale mirato a costruire strategie di employer branding e un forte senso *di appartenenza dello staff. In altri contesti è in capo alla comunicazione segnalando una percezione della CSR quale strategia appunto di comunicazione con i rispettivi stakeholder esterni e di accountability. Vi sono, infine, realtà dove la gestione della CSR è affidata o al marketing indicando come il focus sia più sulla costruzione di una narrazione del brand e dell'identità aziendale e alla creazione di engagement tra gli utenti. Raramente è prevista una funzione ad hoc, elemento che dimostra come non ci sia un approccio olistico.*

Se l'utenza è proiettata verso la CSR, l'offerta non sembra essere ancora matura, salvo pochi casi. Gli orientamenti degli attori dell'offerta e della domanda coincidono solo sulla rilevanza dei valori etici, ma non sulle modalità di espressione. Emerge, quindi, con forza quanta strada deve essere ancora percorsa per costruire la fiducia valoriale e quindi facilitare il raggiungimento degli obiettivi istituzionali ed economici.

Limiti della ricerca. *Il limite principale della ricerca riguarda la scarsa disponibilità di dati dovuti al fatto che la pandemia è ancora in corso.*

Inoltre si sono potuti analizzare solo pochi casi in profondità. Come si è presentato nelle evidenze i player della sanità privata tendono a non comunicare le proprie iniziative o perché le ritengono parte integrante della mission o perché temono una reazione negativa dei cittadini a fronte di comportamento che potrebbero giudicare opportunista.

Implicazioni pratiche. *In un momento come questo in cui occorre investire in fiducia specie in un settore le cui aziende scontano un'immagine di opportunismo, gli operatori hanno la possibilità di ricostruire questo valore. Definire politiche di CSR può contribuire a raggiungere gli obiettivi istituzionali favorendo la compliance ai percorsi di prevenzione e diagnostico terapeutici, potenziando il processo di vaccinazione e recuperando la sostenibilità economica della Sanità Pubblica e Privata messe a dura prova dalla pandemia.*

Originalità del lavoro. *Non esiste letteratura specifica che associ CSR e D&I con la SANITA', tantomeno PRIVATA. Anche il tema del TRUST in ambito sanitario è trattato in chiave prevalentemente sociologica e non aziendale.*

Ciò che però ne attesta l'originalità è legata all'attualità rispetto all'oggetto (aderenza alla prevenzione legata ai protocolli Covid-19 e vaccinazioni).

Parole chiave: *CSR, diverity&inclusion, trust, private healthcare, compliance*

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Arte popolare come eredità culturale di una marca in cerca di autenticità: il caso Dolce & Gabbana

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Obiettivi. *Il caso di studio dedicato alla marca di lusso italiana Dolce & Gabbana descrive la strategia di costruzione dell'eredità di marca attraverso l'associazione del prodotto di lusso all'arte popolare siciliana, con il fine di enfatizzarne l'autenticità. La peculiarità della strategia di Dolce & Gabbana sta nel fatto che l'eredità popolare siciliana è culturale, non reale o territoriale, al contrario di quanto avviene per molte marche del settore lusso.*

Metodologia. *Per la stesura del caso di studio sono stati principalmente utilizzati dati secondari, quali: articoli di riviste economiche e settoriali (moda e lusso), interviste e reportage realizzati dagli stilisti Domenico Dolce e Stefano Gabbana, campagne pubblicitarie realizzate dal brand e il sito istituzionale Dolce & Gabbana (dolce&gabbana.com),*

Una parte essenziale nella realizzazione del presente caso di studio è stata l'osservazione diretta degli store Dolce & Gabbana di via Montenapoleone a Milano e di Calle Larga XXII Marzo a Venezia. In entrambe le visite i membri dello staff hanno acconsentito a uno scambio di domande e risposte richiedendo, tuttavia, di mantenere l'anonimato. Nello store di Venezia è stato anche possibile raccogliere materiale fotografico. Le tematiche riportate nel caso di studio sono il frutto della rielaborazione degli autori di tutte le fonti disponibili, che sono state ancorate a una revisione della letteratura in ambito di autenticità ed eredità di marca. Le informazioni raccolte sono state dunque analizzate all'interno del più ampio contesto legato alla creazione di autenticità attraverso l'uso strategico dell'eredità di marca da parte dalle imprese di lusso. Le implicazioni teoriche e manageriali di tale analisi vengono illustrate di seguito.

Risultati. *Il termine autenticità deriva dal greco autos ossia "sé" e hentes "dentro, in" e indica generalmente l'oggetto o il soggetto che possiede l'essenza originaria del suo creatore. Dal punto di vista della marca l'autenticità ha un'implicazione interna e una esterna. La prima fa riferimento a un brand che rimane autentico rispetto alla sua essenza originaria, mantenendo i propri valori immutati nel tempo. L'implicazione esterna fa riferimento invece alla congruenza fra ciò che il brand è e ciò che appare, dunque autentico se non contraffatto, o risultante da affermazioni devianti costruite attraverso campagne pubblicitarie ad hoc. (Spiggle, Nguyen & Caravella, 2012),*

Un contributo importante per la comprensione del termine autentico è stato fornito da Grayson e Martinec (2004), Essi hanno anzitutto riscontrato che nell'epoca moderna, caratterizzata dalla commercializzazione e dalla commoditizzazione, il consumatore è sempre più alla ricerca di un oggetto autentico, genuino, reale, in opposizione a ciò che non è originale e vero. Si è notato quindi come il consumatore osservi alcuni segnali, quali legami fattuali o spazio-temporali, che possano indicargli che l'oggetto è autentico o meno: questi segnali vengono definiti indici, da cui viene poi coniato l'inglese indexicality, che si configura come un primo attributo per la definizione dell'autenticità. Grayson e Martinec (2004) notano tuttavia che il consumatore apprezza e viene attratto anche da oggetti che, pur non avendo un legame reale con la controparte originale, sono di fatto delle riproduzioni fedeli e rispondenti a un criterio di verosimiglianza. In questo caso l'oggetto diventa un'icona, qualcosa che rimanda all'oggetto originario di cui il consumatore ha una conoscenza pregressa. In questo caso possiamo parlare di iconicity. Si precisa inoltre che questi attributi non si escludono a vicenda: sono distinti soltanto a livello concettuale. L'autenticità di un oggetto può essere data sia dal suo essere iconico, sia dal possesso di indici che rimandano alla sua originalità. Non sempre la presenza di indici viene associata all'autenticità, ma spesso all'originalità dell'oggetto, mentre i segnali iconici sembrano essere percepiti come una connessione con il passato. La conclusione di Grayson e Martinec (2004) è che l'autenticità non può essere concepita come attributo esterno, ma è legata all'esperienza e sensibilità del consumatore, evidenziando un confine molto labile fra la soggettività e la fantasia da un lato, la realtà e l'oggettività dall'altro.

In Leigh, Peters & Shelton (2006) compare poi una terza forma di autenticità. Il consumatore, secondo gli autori, sa che la stessa attività di commercializzazione rende molto difficile la distinzione fra ciò che è autentico da ciò che non lo è.

L'autenticità dunque è esistenziale, associata alla concreta attività a cui il consumatore prende parte e dunque risponde alla sua richiesta di piacere e divertimento. Si tratta di una percezione di autenticità che si ottiene nel momento in cui il consumatore è appagato a livello emozionale, a seguito della natura creativa e catartica

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dell'incontro marca-consumatore. In alcuni casi tale incontro consente di far rivivere al consumatore dei momenti felici, di riportarlo indietro nel tempo attraverso sensazioni che gli ricordano un passato gioioso. È quindi, e sempre più spesso, l'eredità della marca che accorre a sostegno dell'autenticità degli ogetti che, inseriti in un contesto storico, perdono le caratteristiche di bene effimero, e mantengono un valore immutato negli anni.

Si comprende come il concetto di autenticità non risponda all'idea di veridicità storica, ma venga definito soggettivamente, sia negoziabile e specifico di un determinato contesto storico. Diventano cruciali l'esperienza e la conoscenza o riconoscibilità del contesto storico da parte del consumatore, nonchè la sua condivisione con una comunità di appartenenza.

Brown, Kozinets e Sherry (2004) affermano che per creare degli oggetti caratterizzati da significati autentici è necessario tenere in mente quattro concetti: Allegoria (storia del brand), Aura (essenza del brand), Arcadia (comunità idealizzata attorno al brand) e Antinomia (paradosso del brand), L'Allegoria fa riferimento alle storie simboliche, alle metafore associate a un brand che rispondono anche agli interrogativi morali dei consumatori. L'Arcadia si riferisce invece a un passato ideale e speciale, un luogo magico, che il brand deve essere in grado di unire alla magia della tecnologia moderna. Il concetto di Aura di Walter Benjamin (2014) implica un'autenticità non riproducibile e fa riferimento all'essenza stessa del brand, a quell'insieme di caratteristiche che il consumatore percepisce come uniche. L'Antinomia si riferisce invece alla costante lotta fra il progresso tecnologico e l'idealizzazione del passato in un irrisolvibile paradosso.

Come riscontrato da Peterson (2005), l'autenticità può essere veicolata attraverso numerose modalità: grazie alla creazione di immagini che rimandino a un'identità etnica e culturale che accomuni i consumatori; attraverso un'elasticità che consenta l'ingresso a nuovi membri nella comunità immaginaria di appassionati consumatori, utilizzando modelli e esempi appartenenti a un'epoca passata; grazie allo status detenuto da alcuni autori o creatori il cui nome di per sé rimanda all'idea di un artista; grazie all'esperienza autentica e reale del consumatore, come già riferito precedentemente; grazie alla mediazione della tecnologia, che è in grado di mettere in comunicazione i membri di una comunità, consentendo loro di condividere l'insieme dei significati che contribuiscono all'idea di autenticità; grazie ad un atteggiamento che rimane costantemente fedele all'originale diffuso in un'epoca passata.

Il concetto di autenticità è quindi fortemente legato al passato, proprio perché un attributo fondamentale dell'oggetto autentico è la sua atemporalità, ossia la sua capacità di mantenere, o meglio ancora accrescere, il proprio valore con il passare del tempo. L'eredità inoltre si configura come la ripresa di un passato ideale, migliore, governato da valori appunto autentici che contribuisce a creare un valore aggiunto per il cliente finale.

Il concetto di eredità è entrato a far parte del linguaggio di management soltanto a partire dalla fine dello scorso secolo. Nell'ottica manageriale, la veridicità storica viene però in parte sacrificata, per proporre quelle immagini che appartengono al patrimonio culturale comune e che possono essere facilmente comprese e associate a dei significati condivisibili da ampi segmenti di mercato (Goulding, 2000), È stato non a caso coniato il termine industria dell'eredità per fare riferimento al ritorno di tematiche culturali e legate all'antica tradizione.

Molto spesso quando si parla di eredità in ambito manageriale, lo si fa in riferimento al settore turistico: il turista moderno infatti sarebbe costantemente alla ricerca di un'esperienza autentica di riavvicinamento ad un passato migliore e idealizzato (Goulding, 2000; Brown, Kozinets e Sherry, 2003), A seconda del vissuto delle persone esse ricercano, attraverso l'esperienza dell'eredità passata, da un lato alienazione e dall'altro valori estetici ideali e da cui trarre esempio.

Il desiderio di ritorno al passato sarebbe imputabile al fatto che nell'epoca postmoderna e nella società postindustriale in cui viviamo, l'essere umano sperimenta una crisi morale, sociale e identitaria. Colui che riesca ad occuparsi di eredità è di fatto in grado di ricreare un universo perduto che genera nostalgia e desiderio di ritorno a un'epoca precedente (Goulding, 2000), Si fa riferimento a una nostalgia sia individuale, dovuta al naturale scorrere della vita per cui si guarda in maniera malinconica a un'età più giovane e spensierata, sia a una nostalgia comunitaria, avvertita in un'epoca di cambiamento dovuto a motivazioni storiche quali guerre, rivoluzioni, invasioni, crisi economiche o catastrofi ambientali (Brown, Kozinets & Sherry, 2003), In questo contesto i brand operano spesso azioni di retro branding per distinguersi dai competitor, evocando un'epoca remota, caratterizzata anche da una moralità ormai scossa dagli avvenimenti dell'inizio del ventunesimo secolo (Brown, Kozinets & Sherry, 2003),

Il concetto di eredità è fortemente legato, come detto, a quello dell'autenticità: in quest'ottica numerose sono le imprese di lusso che investono sulla propria eredità per veicolare autenticità. Gli autori Urde, Greyser e Balmer (2007) definiscono l'eredità di brand come una dimensione dell'identità di marca da rintracciare in specifici fattori, ossia:

1. *la sua comprovata esperienza, fondata su prove dimostrate che il brand nel tempo ha agito nel pieno rispetto dei propri valori, meritando quindi credibilità e fiducia da parte del consumatore;*
2. *la sua longevità, che non ne è necessariamente una componente, ma che viene spesso sfruttata dai brand che possono vantare una duratura storia di successo;*
3. *la continuità dei suoi valori cardine, che hanno contribuito a definirne la strategia nel tempo e sono diventati parte della sua eredità;*
4. *l'uso particolare di simboli ricorrenti, funzionali a veicolare un determinato messaggio nelle campagne di comunicazione;*
5. *l'idea, interna all'organizzazione, che la sua storia sia importante.*

Urde, et al. (2007) proseguono effettuando un'ulteriore distinzione fra eredità di brand, come dimensione dell'identità complessiva della marca, e brand basato sull'eredità, sottolineando come quest'ultimo caso sottenda una decisione strategica. Risulta rilevante in questo caso ricorrere alla distinzione per cui brand heritage, in italiano *eredità di brand, si oppone a heritage brand, in italiano brand fondato sulla propria eredità, a sottolineare una linea di demarcazione importante fra le due pratiche. La presenza della prima, spesso rintracciabile nell'operato di varie aziende, non è sempre garanzia della seconda, legata invece a una scelta strategica mirata e operata soltanto da un numero ristretto di marche. Nell'ottica di Urde, et al. (2007), il lavoro che si fa sull'eredità consente al brand di costruire un ponte fra passato e futuro, chiarendo in cosa questa eredità consista e facendo sì che questa sia significativa in una prospettiva futura, contribuendo a veicolare autenticità e credibilità al consumatore.*

Da questo punto di vista, come già precedentemente evidenziato, numerose sono le imprese di lusso che ricorrono all'utilizzo della propria eredità per comunicare autenticità.

Se si vuole restringere il campo di indagine al panorama delle imprese di lusso italiane operanti nel settore moda, un marchio che risulta utile prendere in considerazione è Salvatore Ferragamo (Carù, Ostillio, Leone, 2017) e l'utilizzo che viene fatto proprio dell'eredità lasciata dallo storico fondatore. L'eredità può essere in quest'ottica utilizzata come strumento per legittimare il processo di autenticazione, processo che in sé sembra avere delle contraddizioni, legate alla necessità di utilizzare il passato legandolo però al futuro e soprattutto realizzando, come nel caso delle imprese di moda, prodotti sempre aggiornati e in linea con le tendenze contemporanee. Salvatore Ferragamo fonda il proprio successo sulla sua eredità, che, associata all'artigianalità italiana, dunque al 'Made in Italy', ne garantisce il successo. Tale processo viene comunicato al consumatore attraverso vari strumenti, fra cui il Museo Salvatore Ferragamo, aperto nel 1995, è elemento essenziale (Carù, Ostillio, Leone, 2017),

A nostro avviso un utilizzo molto particolare delle leve di eredità di marca e autenticità appena descritte viene applicato dal marchio Dolce & Gabbana, osservato per esplorare la reale e peculiare applicazione di tali leve.

Dall'osservazione dei dati raccolti si comprende come il concetto di Heritage, l'eredità, sia un caposaldo per la marca Dolce & Gabbana. Il rimando alla cultura popolare siciliana è un elemento costante, presente in tutte le collezioni e in tutte le attività di comunicazione della marca. La peculiarità di Dolce & Gabbana, rispetto ad altre marche che fanno un uso abbondante di Heritage Branding, come nel citato caso di Ferragamo, risiede nel fatto che il brand sia stato in realtà fondato a Milano da due stilisti di origini siciliane e venete.

Rappresentare la propria eredità, portarla al centro della catena del valore (dalle collezioni alla recente modalità con cui vengono costruiti gli store) è la modalità con cui il brand rende il proprio prodotto autentico, senza tempo, in grado di riportare a un passato ideale, così come a una semplicità ideale, del vissuto quotidiano da cui gli stilisti traggono ispirazione (Mancinelli, 2014),

In Dolce & Gabbana l'arte figurativa riconduce a un mondo autentico, così come è autentico il prodotto esclusivo che il cliente Dolce & Gabbana acquista. Da questo punto di vista, se l'artigianalità rimane comunque un attributo importante, il processo di valorizzazione artistica del bene di lusso viene comunicato principalmente attraverso il sapiente rimando alla ricca cultura popolare siciliana. Gli stilisti utilizzano quindi la mitizzazione dell'eredità anche per creare un ponte di dialogo fra le vecchie e le nuove generazioni con cui dialoga, attraverso un sapiente uso dei social network e di piattaforme quali Instagram e Twitter (Giudici, 2017; Persivale, 2017),

L'arte popolare è allo stesso tempo sia fine che mezzo: è fine perché utilizzando l'eredità il brand rende il proprio prodotto autentico, eterno, simile a un oggetto d'arte. In maniera speculare tuttavia, l'arte popolare siciliana è anche il mezzo attraverso cui la marca si avvicina al consumatore e comunica non solo alle vecchie, ma anche alle nuove generazioni l'importanza dell'eredità passata e dei valori semplici, di cui gli stilisti si fanno portatori.

Il rimando all'eredità passata si esplica nell'utilizzo di simboli e immagini ricorrenti legati alla Sicilia e all'Italia e nel ricorso all'artigianalità e a tecniche antiche dei maestri artigiani.

L'utilizzo dell'eredità passata è ciò che rende Dolce & Gabbana un brand autentico: anzitutto parliamo di autenticità di marca, intesa come utilizzo di simboli reali, effettivamente legati alla storia passata e alla tradizione di un luogo preciso, per cui rintracciamo la presenza di indici che il consumatore immediatamente percepisce e collega a un passato ideale (Grayson e Martinec, 2004), Il prodotto Dolce & Gabbana è autentico anzitutto perché realizzato attraverso l'utilizzo di tecniche antiche ed elaborate, secondariamente perché al centro di questi prodotti c'è effettivamente un legame con il mondo passato e con l'arte popolare che li rende iconici (Grayson e Martinec 2004),

Sulla base di quanto sostenuto da Grayson e Martinec (2004) i prodotti Dolce & Gabbana vengono percepiti come autentici dal consumatore perché in grado di rintracciare sia degli indici di evidente legame con il passato, sia dei significati che rendono i prodotti realizzati delle icone, attraverso associazioni più o meno palesi alla tradizione e all'eredità siciliana e dell'Italia meridionale.

In base a quanto affermato poi da Leigh, Peters e Shelton (2006) il cliente Dolce & Gabbana fruisce di un'esperienza unica sia quando utilizza concretamente i prodotti di lusso, sia quando entra nello store, sia quando prende parte agli eventi esclusivi organizzati dal brand.

Dolce & Gabbana fa inoltre ampio uso dei quattro attributi evidenziati da Brown, Kozinets e Sherry (2004) per rendere il proprio prodotto autentico. Rilevante è l'uso dell'Allegoria, nella ripresa di miti e storie legati alla Sicilia, di tradizioni e valori profondi che forniscono una risposta agli interrogativi morali dei consumatori in un'epoca di forte instabilità. L'Aura, intesa come essenza del brand che lo rende unico, è associata alla sua italianità, intesa come artigianalità, sinonimo di accuratezza e bellezza delle forme e valori sacri tradizionalmente non veicolati dai brand (legami all'interno della famiglia; rispetto per le generazioni più anziane e religiosità), L'Arcadia, associata a un passato ideale preso a modello, si riferisce sia all'eredità classica della Grecia antica in Sicilia, parte delle collezioni del brand, sia all'eredità tramandata dalle generazioni più adulte ai giovani, con il passaggio transgenerazionale dei valori profondi legati al territorio. L'Antinomia è l'opposizione fra questo passato ideale e la tecnologia moderna, legata ai social network e al nuovo modo di comunicare delle giovani generazioni. Questa opposizione viene risolta *consapevolmente dal brand creando un costante ponte fra passato e futuro, attraverso il quale le vecchie generazioni fungono da esempio alle nuove in un costante dialogo fra le due.*

Possiamo infine affermare che il brand Dolce & Gabbana fa della propria eredità culturale un fondamento della sua identità in quanto rintracciamo l'utilizzo di quattro dei cinque attributi definiti da Urde, Greyser e Balmer (2007) per poter parlare di un heritage brand. Anzitutto i valori di artigianalità, eredità siciliana, conoscenza dell'arte popolare locale, con cui il brand ha legato la propria immagine fin dagli esordi. Questi capisaldi della comunicazione di brand non sono mai stati abbandonati, garantendo coerenza di immagine e di valori, ottenendo fiducia e credibilità presso il consumatore. Tali valori non sono mai cambiati, rimanendo una guida costante per l'operato dell'impresa; per questo motivo i simboli cui il brand fa riferimento sono gli stessi utilizzati fin dall'inizio. I rimandi alle atmosfere e ai colori dell'iconico libro il Gattopardo di Tomasi di Lampedusa trasposto in versione cinematografica nel 1963 dal regista Luchino Visconti ne sono un esempio evidente. Non solo le collezioni Dolce & Gabbana sono ancora abbondantemente ispirate da queste immagini, ma sono ancora presentate in questi luoghi, a dimostrazione della volontà di ancorare l'immagine di marca ad una terra e una cultura passata, e ben definita (LoPorto, 2019; Masè, 2020),

Sebbene la storia del brand sia piuttosto breve, c'è un'idea di importanza e fierezza del proprio percorso, che viene rafforzato dal legame culturale più che territoriale (reale) alla tradizione popolare siciliana.

Limiti della ricerca. *I risultati della ricerca si basano principalmente su dati secondari e sull'osservazione di alcuni punti vendita da parte dei ricercatori. Lo studio è ancora in una fase work-in-progress sia per quanto riguarda l'arricchimento della revisione della letteratura, che per quanto concerne la raccolta e l'analisi dei dati. Di sicuro interesse è la possibilità di proseguire l'analisi attraverso interviste approfondite con manager in ruoli chiave nella gestione della marca Dolce & Gabbana.*

Implicazioni pratiche. *Questo Extended Abstract ha lo scopo di descrivere una best practice in ambito di gestione della marca attraverso la leva dell'eredità. Principalmente le marche di lusso con una storia recente possono costruire la loro eredità non solo attraverso riferimenti all'evoluzione storica della marca stessa, ma anche attraverso un uso sapiente dell'arte popolare, come nel caso di Dolce & Gabbana. La marca di Milano, inoltre, ha sapientemente utilizzato un'eredità più culturale che reale, territoriale, al contrario di molti altri brand afferenti al settore lusso.*

Originalità del lavoro. *Questo caso di studio si aggiunge alla letteratura dedicata all'interazione tra arte e impresa, principalmente nell'analisi delle marche di lusso. L'arte popolare viene presentata in questo caso di studio come contenuto fondante dell'eredità di una marca relativamente giovane, se paragonata ad altre importanti marche di lusso, in cerca di autenticità.*

Parole chiave: *Arte e Impresa; Eredità; Autenticità; Marca; Lusso*

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L'effetto della Country-Of-Origin image sulla brand equity nel settore della birra

MARCO CIOPPI* ILARIA CURINA• BARBARA FRANCIONI♠ TONINO PENCARELLI **

Obiettivi. *Il crescente processo di globalizzazione e l'abbattimento dei confini nazionali hanno portato e stanno portando soprattutto oggi le imprese ad interfacciarsi con uno scenario sempre più internazionale. In questo contesto, l'immagine del Country-Of-Origin (COO image) assume un ruolo di primo piano nell'influenzare i comportamenti di acquisto dei consumatori. Di fronte a questa crescente competitività, i brands diventano, per le imprese, una risorsa fondamentale per differenziarsi dai concorrenti e per creare valore per i consumatori. Tale importanza è confermata anche dal numero crescente di studi che, negli ultimi anni, si sono focalizzati su tematiche branded (Murtiasih et al., 2014). In particolare, la brand equity rappresenta uno dei topic maggiormente studiati dalla letteratura contemporanea (Broyles et al., 2010; Keller, 2010; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2008). Tale costrutto, infatti, diventa oggi più che mai non solo un indicatore chiave dello stato di salute di un brand, ma anche una preziosa fonte di vantaggio competitivo e un elemento di vitale importanza per il successo aziendale (Chatzipanagiotou et al., 2016; Christodoulides et al., 2015; Keller, 2010; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2008). Sebbene non esista una definizione universalmente accettata di brand equity (Brochado e Oliveria, 2018), la letteratura ne identifica due diverse prospettive: una finanziaria, legata al valore finanziario creato dalla brand equity (Brochado e Oliveria, 2018; Altigan et al., 2005; Simon e Sullivan, 1993) e una consumer-based legata al valore che il consumatore attribuisce al brand (Yoo et al., 2000; Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1991).*

Nell'ottica consumer-based, una delle prime possibili definizioni di brand equity è quella proposta da Farquhar (1989, p. 24) che la descrive come "the added value with which a brand endows a product". Successivamente, Aaker (1991, p. 15), la definisce come "a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers". Seguendo l'approccio di Aaker, Keller (2003, p. 60) propone un'ulteriore definizione di brand equity concettualizzandola come "the differential effect that brand knowledge has on consumer response to the marketing of that brand". Infine, Yoo e Donthu (2001, p. 1) offrono una prospettiva differente definendola come "the consumers' different response between a focal brand and an unbranded product when both have the same level of marketing stimuli and product attributes".

Dal punto di vista concettuale, diversi studi identificano la brand equity come un costrutto multidimensionale composto da diverse dimensioni (Foroudi et al., 2018). In particolare, uno dei framework più adottati in letteratura è quello di Aaker (1991; 1996) che identifica quattro fattori caratterizzanti la brand equity: (i) brand awareness; (ii) perceived quality; (iii) brand associations; (iv) brand loyalty. Aaker (1991) definisce la brand awareness come la capacità del consumatore di riconoscere/ricordare che un determinato brand appartiene ad una specifica categoria di prodotti. La brand awareness, inoltre, è scomponibile a sua volta in due principali dimensioni: brand recognition (la capacità di riconoscere un brand mediante segnali visivi/verbali) e brand recall (la capacità di ricordare uno specifico brand attraverso la categoria di prodotto a cui appartiene, i benefici che soddisfa o le occasioni d'uso). Il concetto di perceived quality, invece, rappresenta la qualità complessiva/superiorità di un prodotto o servizio percepita dal cliente rispetto alle possibili alternative (Aaker, 1991). Di conseguenza, un brand percepito come superiore dai consumatori godrà di un elevato livello di perceived quality (Zetterman e Rogstad, 2012; Yasin et al., 2007). Le brand associations sono immagini, idee, episodi e fatti che i consumatori associano al brand nella loro memoria creando in questo modo attorno ad esso una solida rete di conoscenza (Yoo et al., 2000; Aaker, 1991). Nello specifico, le brand associations possono nascere in diversi modi: attraverso un'esperienza diretta con il prodotto/servizio, attraverso le informazioni trasmesse dall'impresa o da altre fonti commerciali, mediante il passaparola o sulla base di associazioni esistenti legate al brand (Keller, 1993). Nel complesso, le brand associations permettono di (i) distinguere il brand dai competitors; (ii) creare atteggiamenti/sentimenti positivi verso il brand; (iii) identificare dei validi motivi per acquistare un determinato brand rispetto alle possibili alternative (Murtiasih et al., 2014). Infine, la brand loyalty può essere definita come "the degree of closeness of client to a specific brand, expressed by their replicate purchase regardless of marketing stress creates by the rival brands" (Malik et al., 2013, p. 168).

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Accanto a tali studi focalizzati sull'identificazione concettuale della brand equity (Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1996;1991), lavori più recenti si sono concentrati sull'analisi dell'influenza della COO image sulla brand equity (Ngan et al., 2020; Andéhn et al., 2016; Herrero-Crespo et al., 2016; Murtiasih et al., 2014; Yasin et al., 2007; Pappu et al. 2006). Nonostante questi studi, però, la relazione fra COO image e brand equity rappresenta attualmente una tematica che necessita ancora di grande attenzione e approfondimenti (Loureiro e Kaufmann, 2017). Inoltre, gli studi che si sono occupati finora di questo topic si sono focalizzati soprattutto su determinati settori, ed in particolare quello automobilistico (Murtiasih et al., 2014) e quello tecnologico (Mostafa, 2015; Yasin et al., 2007). Partendo da questi presupposti, l'obiettivo del presente lavoro è quello di analizzare la relazione fra COO image e brand equity e le dimensioni che la compongono (i.e., brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, brand loyalty) nel settore brassicolo. Tale settore è stato scelto per un duplice motivo: (i) scarsità di studi che hanno analizzato l'influenza del fattore COO image sulla formazione della brand equity all'interno di tale comparto; (ii) l'importanza crescente di questo settore che ha portato ad un conseguente aumento della competitività e alla necessità di identificare strategie competitive orientate alla costruzione del valore del brand. In particolare, in Italia, nonostante la forte tradizione vinicola che da sempre la caratterizza, i livelli di consumo della birra si stanno avvicinando negli ultimi anni a quelli del vino (Beverfood, 2018). Nel 2019, con un consumo pro-capite di 34,6 litri, si è raggiunto il nuovo record storico, mentre il tasso di crescita delle vendite del 10,6% è risultato il più alto all'interno del comparto delle bevande (AssoBirra, 2020). Accanto all'incremento dei consumi, è stata registrata una conseguente crescita anche della produzione nazionale, aumentata del 5% nel 2019 con un vero e proprio boom della birra artigianale e del numero di microbirrifici (AssoBirra, 2020). Sempre nel 2019, sale anche l'import italiano di birra che si attesta sopra i 7 milioni di ettolitri con oltre 1500 marche di importazione commercializzate sul mercato italiano (AssoBirra, 2020).

Metodologia. *I dati sono stati raccolti mediante una web-based self-completion survey somministrata a consumatori di birra italiani contattati mediante un link diffuso su Facebook. Il questionario è stato strutturato in tre parti: (i) caratteristiche demografiche dei consumatori (età, sesso, nazionalità, nazione di residenza); (ii) dati riguardanti il consumo di birra (agli intervistati è stato chiesto di nominare un brand di birra preferito, non italiano, e il paese di origine che associano a tale brand); (iii) affermazioni riguardanti la brand equity, le dimensioni della brand equity (i.e., brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, brand loyalty) e l'immagine del paese di origine (COO image). Per tutti gli item, è stata adottata una scala Likert a sette passi (1= "fortemente in disaccordo a 7= totalmente in accordo"). Gli items, inoltre, sono stati estratti da precedenti studi focalizzati sull'analisi della brand equity e della COO image (Tab. 1). In particolare, gli items utilizzati per misurare la brand equity e le sue dimensioni (brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, brand loyalty) sono stati estratti dagli studi di Zetterman e Rogstad (2012), Atilgan et al. (2005) e Calvo Porral et al. (2013). Per quanto riguarda la COO image, sono stati adottati gli studi di Zetterman e Rogstad (2012), Yasin et al. (2007) e Laroche et al. (2005). Nel complesso, sono stati completati 535 questionari.*

Risultati. *In una prima fase preliminare, l'analisi della correlazione di Pearson è stata adottata per verificare l'esistenza o meno di una relazione positiva fra la COO image, la brand equity e le sue dimensioni. In una fase successiva*[1]*, verrà impiegato un modello di equazione strutturale per analizzare il possibile ruolo di mediazione delle dimensioni della brand equity nella relazione COO image-brand equity.*

Una prima analisi dei risultati ha permesso di identificare come il brand più nominato sia stato Heineken (22%), seguito da Guinness (10%) e Hoegaarden (9%). Dal punto di vista del paese di origine, invece, la percentuale più alta è stata registrata dalla Germania (27%), seguita dal Belgio (25%), Olanda (19%) e Irlanda (11%).

Da questo primo dato, si può notare come, nell'immaginario collettivo, i brand di birra di elevata qualità siano associati nella maggior parte dei casi a paesi europei.

Successivamente, per tutte le scale utilizzate (brand awareness, perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand associations, brand equity e Country-of-origin image) è stato calcolato il coefficiente alpha di Cronbach. Tutti i valori ottenuti sono risultati maggiori a 0,80 e, pertanto, attendibili (Tab. 1).

Tab. 1: Statistiche di affidabilità

Scala	Alpha di Cronbach
Brand awareness	0,826
Perceived quality	0,845
Brand associations	0,835
Brand loyalty	0,803
Brand equity	0,896
COO image	0,876

Infine, si è proceduto con il calcolo del coefficiente di correlazione di Pearson fra la COO image e le altre scale (brand equity, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, brand loyalty) e fra la brand equity e le sue dimensioni. Dai risultati, emerge una relazione positiva e significativa fra le variabili, permettendo così di supportare le ipotesi formulate in questa prima fase del lavoro (Tab. 2).

[1] Attualmente è work in progress e verrà presentata in sede di convegno nel caso di accettazione dell'extended abstract.

Tab. 2: Ipotesi di ricerca

	Ipotesi di ricerca
H1	*La brand awareness è positivamente correlata con la brand equity.*
H2	*La perceived quality è positivamente correlata con la brand equity.*
H3	*Le brand associations sono positivamente correlate con la brand equity.*
H4	*La brand loyalty è positivamente collegata alla brand equity.*
H5	*La COO image influenza la brand equity.*
H6	*La COO image influenza la brand awareness.*
H7	*La COO image influenza la perceived quality.*
H8	*La COO image influenza le brand associations.*
H9	*La COO image influenza la brand loyalty.*

L'esistenza di una relazione positiva fra le dimensioni della brand equity (brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, brand loyalty) e la brand equity complessiva conferma il modello consumer-based elaborato da Aaker (1991). In particolare, il coefficiente di correlazione più elevato è stato ottenuto dalla dimensione della brand loyalty, confermando quindi come il valore di un brand sia soprattutto influenzato dal livello di fedeltà dei consumatori verso di esso (Tab. 3). Per quanto riguarda la COO image, tale variabile esercita un effetto significativo su tutte le dimensioni della brand equity con il maggiore impatto sulle brand associations e sulla perceived quality. Al contrario, il coefficiente di correlazione fra la COO image e la brand loyalty è risultato essere il più basso fra tutte le diverse relazioni indagate. Tale risultato permette quindi di affermare come la fedeltà al brand sia maggiormente influenzata da fattori legati alle caratteristiche intrinseche del prodotto birra e/o all'instaurazione di relazioni durature con le aziende produttrici.

Infine, i risultati hanno permesso di confermare come l'influenza indiretta della COO image sulla brand equity attraverso le dimensioni della perceived quality, brand associations e brand awareness sia maggiore rispetto a quella diretta.

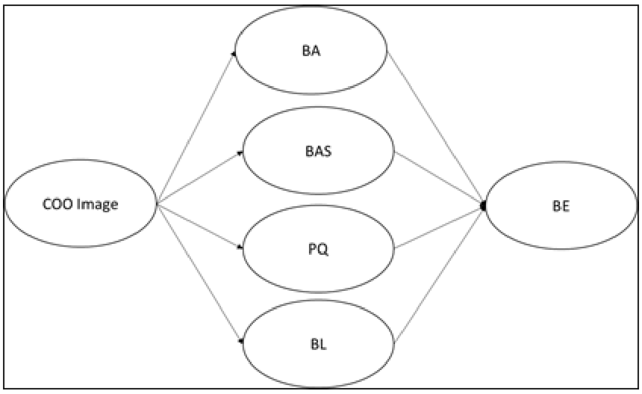
Tab. 3. Correlazione di Pearson

MEAN BRAND EQUITY	Correlazione di Pearson	1
	Sign. (a due code)	
MEAN BRAND AWARENESS	Correlazione di Pearson	0,299
	Sign. (a due code)	0,000
MEAN PERCEIVED QUALITY	Correlazione di Pearson	0,350
	Sign. (a due code)	0,000
MEAN BRAND ASSOCIATIONS	Correlazione di Pearson	0,410
	Sign. (a due code)	0,000
MEAN BRAND LOYALTY	Correlazione di Pearson	0,640
	Sign. (a due code)	0,000

MEAN COO IMAGE	Correlazione di Pearson	1
	Sign. (a due code)	
MEAN BRAND EQUITY	Correlazione di Pearson	0,245
	Sign. (a due code)	0,001
MEAN BRAND AWARENESS	Correlazione di Pearson	0,373
	Sign. (a due code)	0,000
MEAN PERCEIVED QUALITY	Correlazione di Pearson	0,446
	Sign. (a due code)	0,000
MEAN BRAND ASSOCIATIONS	Correlazione di Pearson	0,450
	Sign. (a due code)	0,000
MEAN BRAND LOYALTY	Correlazione di Pearson	0,203
	Sign. (a due code)	0,007

Limiti della ricerca. *I principali limiti del lavoro sono direttamente collegati al campione e alla metodologia adottata. Considerando che il campione selezionato è composto da soli consumatori italiani e che la portata della COO image può variare a seconda della nazionalità e cultura del consumatore (Nebenzahl et al., 1997), potrebbe essere interessante, in futuri studi, analizzare altri contesti geografici al fine di identificare possibili analogie o differenze rispetto ai risultati emersi nel presente studio. Dal punto di vista metodologico, in questa prima fase è stata adottata l'analisi della correlazione di Pearson per verificare l'esistenza o meno di una relazione positiva fra la COO image, la brand equity e le sue dimensioni. Lo studio rappresenta quindi un work in progress il cui obiettivo successivo è quello di adottare un modello di equazione strutturale per testare il possibile ruolo di mediazione delle dimensioni della brand equity (brand awareness, brand loyalty, brand associations, perceived quality) nella relazione COO image-brand equity (Fig. 1).*

Fig. 1: Modello concettuale (work in progress)



Implicazioni pratiche. *I risultati del presente studio hanno permesso di identificare la necessità, per le imprese del comparto brassicolo, di affrontare la competizione crescente caratterizzante tale settore, mediante non solo strategie di breve periodo (es. forme di pressione promozionale), ma anche e soprattutto mediante strategie di lungo periodo orientate alla costruzione del valore dei propri brand. In particolare, i risultati del presente lavoro hanno permesso di identificare due dati estremamente interessanti. In primo luogo, è emersa una relazione positiva e significativa fra ognuna delle dimensioni della brand equity e la brand equity complessiva. Inoltre, i risultati hanno permesso anche di confermare come la brand loyalty sia la variabile che maggiormente influenza la brand equity nel settore della birra. Questo risultato suggerisce quindi l'importanza, per le imprese del settore, di adottare strategie specificatamente focalizzate sulla creazione di brand loyalty. Per tale motivo, occorrerà prestare particolare attenzione ai seguenti aspetti: (i) qualità e unicità del prodotto; (ii) organizzazione di iniziative volte alla fidelizzazione; (iii) cura dell'immagine del brand online e sui social media. Per conseguire tali obiettivi, diventa quindi fondamentale potenziare i reparti di marketing e di comunicazione/digital PR al fine di instaurare rapporti (online/offline) costanti e interattivi con i propri clienti (es. presenza attiva sulle principali piattaforme social mediante l'adozione di strategie finalizzate ad incrementare l'engagement dei propri utenti; organizzazione di eventi offline/online volti ad incrementare la fidelizzazione dei clienti verso il brand). In secondo luogo, la correlazione positiva emersa tra la COO image ed ognuna delle dimensioni della brand equity e tra la COO image e la brand equity complessiva permette di confermare come, anche nel settore della birra, l'immagine del paese di origine possa assumere un ruolo chiave nell'influenzare i valori che i consumatori associano ad un brand. Nello specifico, tale variabile può essere sfruttata per (i) migliorare la qualità percepita; (ii) accrescere la notorietà del brand; (iii) creare associazioni positive nella mente dei consumatori. Nel complesso, quindi, emerge come nel comparto della birra l'effetto della COO image sia una variabile chiave nella costruzione del valore di un brand. I responsabili di marketing e di comunicazione dovrebbero quindi considerare, nella formulazione delle strategie di branding, l'eventuale immagine positiva del proprio paese di origine.*

Originalità del lavoro. *L'analisi della relazione fra COO image e brand equity rappresenta un'area di indagine ancora non sufficientemente sviluppata dalla letteratura di settore (Loureiro e Kaufmann, 2017). Il presente lavoro ha cercato di approfondire tale tematica analizzando la relazione fra COO image e brand equity e le dimensioni che la compongono (i.e., brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, brand loyalty) nel settore brassicolo. Lo studio, inoltre, ha permesso di arricchire le ricerche esistenti focalizzate sulla COO image-brand equity in un'ottica concettuale. Tale topic infatti è stato analizzato all'interno di un comparto non ancora indagato dalla letteratura esistente, concentrata fino ad ora su comparti specifici come quello automobilistico (Murtiasih et al., 2014) e tecnologico (Mostafa, 2015; Yasin et al., 2007). In particolare, lo studio si è focalizzato su un settore, quello della birra, non solo sempre più rilevante e affollato a livello internazionale, ma anche e soprattutto caratterizzato da attori che necessitano, per competere, di strategie di branding orientate alla creazione di valore per i consumatori.*

Parole chiave: *brand equity; COO image; brand awareness; brand loyalty; perceived quality; brand associations*

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La comunicazione al servizio del benessere collettivo: l'efficacia delle pubblicità sociali rivolte ai bambini

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Obiettivi. *La pubblicità è uno degli strumenti più utilizzati per rivolgere comunicazioni di tipo commerciale al pubblico dei minori e molte ricerche hanno studiato quali elementi sono in grado di attirare l'attenzione dei bambini e innescare un processo di memorizzazione (Lawlor, 2009; Hota et al, 2010). Tuttavia esiste un tipo di pubblicità il cui scopo non è la vendita di beni o servizi, ma l'informazione per il benessere generale e la promozione di nuovi comportamenti e atteggiamenti positivi per il singolo e la collettività: la pubblicità sociale. Entrambe le tipologie pubblicitarie s'inseriscono all'interno del dibattito su come le stesse vengano capite, interpretate e utilizzate dai bambini (Young, 1990; Roedder, 1999; Oates et al., 2003).*

Attraverso le pubblicità sociali vengono veicolati molteplici temi; il presente studio si è concentrato sul tema della prevenzione al consumo di sigarette adottando un disegno trasversale ed esplorativo.

Il tema della prevenzione al fumo è stato scelto perché il consumo di sigarette tra i giovani è stato indicato come un problema a livello mondiale (World Health Organization - WHO, 2015, 2019). Nonostante il progresso nell'adozione di misure preventive (aumento dei prezzi, messaggi con intento dissuasivo riportati sul packaging, campagne di sensibilizzazione, ecc.) e un calo negli ultimi anni nelle percentuali dei fumatori, il numero complessivo rimane ancora alto (WHO, 2019).

La maggioranza dei fumatori ha iniziato a usare sigarette o altre forme di tabacco durante l'adolescenza e per tale motivo parecchi stati nel mondo hanno iniziato a combattere il problema usando campagne veicolate sui media rivolte a tale pubblico e iniziative all'interno delle scuole (Mississippi State Department of Health - MSDH, 2014; Osservatorio Fumo Alcol e Droga - OSSFAD, 2014; Schar et al., 2006).

Dati recenti mostrano che nel mondo circa il 12% degli adolescenti tra 13 e 15 anni usa una o più tipologie di prodotti con tabacco (WHO, 2019). Nell'Unione Europea il numero di minori sotto i 13 anni che è diventato consumatore giornaliero di sigarette è diminuito negli ultimi venti anni, ma ci sono alcune eccezioni con numeri che non si sono eccessivamente modificati, tra cui si può citare il caso dell'Italia (European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs - ESPAD, 2015; 2019).

Il consumo di sigarette nei minori è legato a problemi alla salute a breve e lungo termine (compromissione del sistema respiratorio e cardiovascolare, sviluppo di cancro, deterioramento della funzione riproduttiva e ridotta aspettativa di vita) a cui si associa la difficoltà nello smettere di fumare derivante dalla dipendenza da nicotina (HHS, 2012; OSSFAD, 2014). Di conseguenza, la prevenzione al consumo di tabacco in un pubblico di minori è diventata di primaria importanza e alcune ricerche hanno indicato che azioni di marketing sociale e pubblicità sociali possono influenzare positivamente i giovani così come ridurre il numero di pre-adolescenti che inizia a fumare (Wakefield et al., 2003; Allen et al., 2015; Brinn et al., 2012: Farrelly et al., 2003; Solomon et al., 2009).

Gli appelli emozionali sono largamente utilizzati nelle pubblicità contro il fumo. Questo tipo di appelli suscita una risposta affettiva nello spettatore che può essere di tipo positivo o negativo. I sentimenti così suscitati (positivi o negativi) vengono associati dallo spettatore al messaggio e al tema trattato nella pubblicità. Una tipologia di appelli emozionali negativi sono gli appelli alla paura, mentre positivi sono ad esempio gli appelli all'umorismo.

Alcuni studi (Bieneret al., 2004; Terry-Mcelrathet al., 2005; Allen et al., 2015) hanno mostrato che gli appelli alla paura hanno consistenti effetti su un'audience giovane perché toni provocatori e immagini intense portano a una maggiore discussione e attenzione verso il contenuto della pubblicità. D'altronde, gli appelli alla paura possono provocare anche reazioni difensive date dalla giovane età dei minori che si ritengono invulnerabili ai rischi spiegati nelle pubblicità sociali (Pechmann, 2001; Devlin et al., 2007). L'umorismo è spesso utilizzato nelle pubblicità per bambini, i quali tendono a favorire aspetti legati all'intrattenimento e che portano alla risata (Lawlor, 2009). La piacevolezza percepita si può trasformare in un atteggiamento positivo verso il contenuto promosso (Hastings et al., 2004; Sutfin et al., 2008).

Allo stato attuale della letteratura si riscontra una mancanza di ricerche sull'efficacia di pubblicità sociali in generale, e in particolare, contro il fumo che hanno come target i bambini e studi su come gli stessi recepiscano

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differenti tipi di messaggi e appelli in tale contesto (Devlin et al., 2007). Questo studio ha quindi come obiettivo quello di capire se l'uso di toni differenti del messaggio (cioè l'uso della paura o dell'umorismo nella prevenzione del fumo) provochi effetti diversi sulle reazioni affettive dei bambini verso la pubblicità, sulle credenze relative al fumo di sigarette e sulle loro future intenzioni di fumare.

Più in generale, questo studio permette di contribuire a una più approfondita comprensione degli impatti che i diversi toni della pubblicità esercitano su un pubblico di bambini, fornendo input utili anche per altri ambiti di applicazione della pubblicità sociale (diversi dalla prevenzione al consumo di sigarette) e, più in generale, per la pubblicità rivolta a un pubblico di bambini. I risultati di questo lavoro arricchiscono inoltre il filone di studi volti a comprendere l'efficacia di diversi strumenti di comunicazione per promuovere scelte salutari tra i consumatori (Zerbini et al., 2018).

Metodologia. *Questo studio adotta un approccio basato su metodi misti così da integrare sia dati quantitativi che qualitativi. È stato usato un questionario per la parte quantitativa e un focus group con intervista semi-strutturata per la parte qualitativa. In particolare, si è utilizzato un disegno convergente parallelo (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) che ha permesso la raccolta e l'analisi dei dati in maniera separata e parallela per poi giungere ad una integrazione finale.*

A un gruppo di 98 bambini di età 8-11 anni sono state mostrate due pubblicità sulla prevenzione al consumo di sigarette: i bambini sono stati assegnati casualmente a una campagna pubblicitaria nazionale americana che utilizza appelli alla paura (Ad_1) oppure a una campagna pubblicitaria dello stato del Mississippi con appelli all'umorismo (Ad_2). Le pubblicità, professionalmente doppiate in lingua italiana, sono state mostrate ai bambini durante il normale orario scolastico di una scuola primaria e dopo aver ottenuto il consenso dei genitori.

Alcuni studi (Duke et al., 2015; Farrelly et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2017) hanno mostrato che la pubblicità Ad_1 raggiunge alti livelli di ricordo e influenza le percezioni sui rischi del fumo in un'audience giovane. Questa pubblicità sociale ritrae le sigarette come un piccolo bullo che intimorisce ragazzini. Il bullo è aggressivo e controlla vari aspetti della loro vita. Il messaggio è il seguente: "le sigarette sono come dei bulli, non lasciarti manipolare dal tabacco".

Ad_2 è invece un appello all'umorismo e fa parte di una campagna di prevenzione presente anche nelle scuole americane che ha portato a buoni risultati nel ridurre l'inizio del consumo di sigarette nello stato del Mississippi (Schar et al., 2006). Nella pubblicità sociale sono rappresentati due scienziati che stanno cercando di addestrate un robottino a provare emozioni creando varie scenette. Quando in un momento di pausa uno degli scienziati inizia a fumare, il robot si arrabbia e gli strappa dalla bocca la sigaretta. Il messaggio lanciato è: "aiuta qualcuno a smettere di fumare oggi, così sarà ancora vivo domani".

Successivamente è stato somministrato a un campione di 98 bambini un questionario con scala Likert a quattro passi (per nulla=1; poco=2; abbastanza=3; molto=4) per evitare la tendenza dei bambini nel segnare il punto centrale (Hota et al., 2010) e sono state condotte sessioni di focus group con un campione di 60 bambini.

Il questionario è stato adattato da Derbaix e Pecheux (2003), D'Alessio, Laghi e Baiocco (2009), Baumgartner e Laghi (2012), Lioutas e Tzimitra-Kalogianni (2014) e Vermeir e Van de Sompel (2014) alle pubblicità sociali e tradotto in italiano.

Per quanto riguarda i focus group, i bambini sono stati divisi in gruppi da 5/6 e le discussioni sono durate un massimo di 30 minuti per gruppo. I bambini hanno visto le due pubblicità sociali sulla prevenzione al consumo di sigarette e sono stati invitati a dare le loro opinioni. In particolare, è stato chiesto loro d'indicare quale pubblicità preferissero e perché, quale personaggio delle pubblicità preferissero e perché e infine quale pubblicità li avesse convinti maggiormente che non avrebbero dovuto fumare e perché. In aggiunta, è stata prestata attenzione alle credenze sul fumo derivanti dalla visione degli spot e alle possibili reazioni negative scaturite dalla pubblicità con l'appello alla paura.

Risultati. Risultati quantitativi - *Una analisi fattoriale con rotazione Varimax è stata condotta con gli item del questionario utilizzando il software SPSS. L'analisi fattoriale ha evidenziato tre differenti fattori, confermando le attese. L'affidabilità delle sottoscale è stata testata con il test dell'alpha di Cronbach e ha rivelato una buona consistenza interna per i seguenti fattori: reazioni affettive verso le pubblicità sociali ($\alpha = 0.90$); credenze sul fumo ($\alpha = 0.80$); intenzioni comportamentali a fumare ($\alpha = 0.75$). La scala finale si componeva di 11 item, di cui 7 per le reazioni affettive verso le pubblicità sociali, 2 per le credenze sul fumo e 2 per le intenzioni comportamentali a non fumare.*

Un t-test per campioni indipendenti è stato eseguito per verificare le differenze nei valori medi dei fattori a seconda della pubblicità sociale vista. I risultati hanno mostrato una differenza significativa per le reazioni affettive verso le pubblicità, $t(72.20) = 9.066$, $p < 0.01$. I bambini che hanno guardato Ad_2 presentavano una media ($M = 3.57$) più alta rispetto a quelli che hanno guardato Ad_1 ($M = 2.43$). Nessuna differenza significativa è stata osservata per le credenze sul fumo (M Ad_2 = 4.00; M Ad_1 = 3.96; $t(45) = 1.35$, $p > 0.05$) e le intenzioni di fumare (M Ad_2 = 3.59; M Ad_1 = 3.83; $t(85.82) = -1.654$, $p > 0.05$).

Risultati qualitativi - *Tutte le discussioni dei focus group sono state trascritte e codificate per mezzo del software NVivo 11 Plus (Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software - CAQDAS). Le referenze codificate sono state le seguenti:*

1. *Referenze per le reazioni affettive verso la pubblicità comprendenti le referenze per la pubblicità preferita e per il protagonista preferito: la maggioranza dei bambini ha indicato come pubblicità preferita Ad_2 e come personaggio preferito il robottino di Ad_2;*
2. *Referenze per le credenze sul fumo: la maggioranza dei bambini ha espresso credenze sul fumo relativamente alla pubblicità Ad_1;*

3. *Referenze per le intenzioni a fumare: nessuna differenza numerica nel conteggio delle referenze è stata notata relativamente a quale pubblicità li avesse convinti maggiormente che non avrebbero dovuto iniziare a fumare.*

Inoltre, per ogni tipologia di referenza sono state trovate delle aree tematiche ricorrenti nelle risposte dei bambini. A titolo di esempio, per le referenze di tipo 1 i bambini hanno spesso affermato che la pubblicità Ad_2 li facesse ridere e fossero colpiti dalle espressioni facciali del robot. Per le referenze di tipo 2 e in relazione alla pubblicità Ad_1 i bambini hanno frequentemente parlato delle dipendenze alla nicotina dei loro famigliari e del fatto che la nicotina potesse modificare le personalità delle persone e peggiorare lo stile di vita. Infine per le referenze di tipo 3, hanno parlato in relazione alla pubblicità Ad_1 della possibilità di aiutare gli altri costringendoli a non fumare e in relazione alla pubblicità Ad_2 del fatto che il gruppo dei pari potesse spingerli a iniziare a fumare.

In conclusione, i risultati della fase quantitativa e qualitativa convergono per quanto riguarda le risposte affettive e le future intenzioni di fumare. La pubblicità umoristica è stata maggiormente apprezzata per la sua capacità d'intrattenimento e di divertire, mentre non sembrano esserci sostanziali differenze sulle future intenzioni di fumare. Dalle risposte dei bambini sembrerebbe che sia gli appelli alla paura che gli appelli all'umorismo possano essere efficaci nelle intenzioni comportamentali. Tuttavia, analizzando in profondità le risposte dei bambini circa la pubblicità che li ha convinti di più a non provare a fumare, si nota che le spiegazioni dei bambini che hanno scelto la pubblicità più "paurosa" sono più complesse e realistiche rispetto a quelle dei bambini che hanno scelto la pubblicità umoristica.

Inoltre, durante i focus group, la pubblicità più "paurosa" ha generato maggiormente discussioni spontanee (credenze dei bambini sul fumo) relative a tematiche importanti quali la dipendenza dalla nicotina, la capacità delle sigarette di condizionare la vita delle persone e l'influenza degli amici nell'inizio del consumo di sigarette.

Limiti della ricerca. *Questo studio fornisce spunti utili relativi a quale appello (in questo caso appello all'umorismo o appello alla paura) e a quali elementi di contenuto di una pubblicità sociale possano veicolare in maniera chiara messaggi diretti ai bambini. Bisogna però considerare alcuni limiti dello studio perché ulteriori ricerche sono necessarie su questa tematica. Prima di tutto, lo studio ha esaminato soltanto le intenzioni comportamentali dei bambini, ma future ricerche dovrebbero esaminare l'effetto delle pubblicità sui reali comportamenti (ad es. la riduzione del numero di ragazzini che inizia a fumare le sigarette) dopo l'esposizione ripetuta agli stimoli pubblicitari.*

Inoltre, future ricerche dovranno considerare come tema di ricerca una comparazione tra appelli alla paura e appelli all'umorismo legati a contenuti sociali diversi delle pubblicità. Infatti, i dati riportati si riferiscono solo alla visione di pubblicità contro il consumo di sigarette.

Infine, è stato analizzato il tema delle conseguenze negative sulla salute, ma potrebbe risultare rilevante studiare l'impatto di appelli alla paura legati ad altri contenuti (ad es. il tema delle norme sociali o il cosiddetto tema dell'"industry manipulation") utilizzati da soli o combinati in una singola pubblicità sociale.

Implicazioni pratiche. *Come indicato in precedenza, Ad_1 utilizza un appello alla paura, anche se di moderata entità, proprio perché il target è un pubblico di minori. Infatti i bambini hanno avuto reazioni diverse davanti a questa pubblicità: alcuni hanno riso a causa delle piccole dimensioni del personaggio bulletto, tuttavia, molti di loro sono rimasti impressionati dal comportamento aggressivo dello stesso e sono rimasti in silenzio e seri duranti tutta la visione della pubblicità.*

Questo aspetto è di interesse perché dimostra che le istituzioni governative e chi si occupa di campagne pubblicitarie sociali può utilizzare oltre ad appelli all'umorismo anche appelli alla paura moderati (anziché troppo crudi) per veicolare efficacemente messaggi ai minori.

L'età in cui si inizia a fumare tra i giovani si è abbassata (European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs - ESPAD, 2015) e per questo motivo sembra consigliabile adottare campagne contro il consumo di sigarette che hanno come target i bambini. Attualmente molte delle pubblicità sociali di questo tipo sono indirizzate solo verso gli adolescenti e "young adults", ma i risultati dello studio dimostrano che campagne rivolte specificamente ai bambini possono aiutare a trasmettere e far capire loro le conseguenze negative del fumo già durante l'infanzia.

Un aspetto da considerare rimane la fascia d'età dei bambini; le campagne pubblicitarie devono essere studiate utilizzando contenuti comprensibili in base all'età. In caso contrario si potrebbe rischiare che le fasce più giovani non comprendano appieno il messaggio della pubblicità sociale.

Le due pubblicità sociali dello studio avevano come focus il tema delle conseguenze sulla salute, ma come riportato nei focus group, i bambini hanno rintracciato anche il tema delle norme sociali, portandoli a riflettere sul fatto che spesso un giovane può iniziare a fumare perché spinto dal gruppo di amici o per sentirsi accettato. Di conseguenza, la combinazione del tema legato alla salute e quello delle norme sociali in una unica pubblicità potrebbe essere una buona opzione per future campagne.

Infine, in senso più generale, i risultati di questo lavoro potrebbero essere di utilità per progettare campagne di comunicazione rivolte a un pubblico di bambini, anche in contesti non strettamente legati alle pubblicità sociali. I messaggi andranno in particolare creati attingendo ai diversi appelli (all'umorismo e/o alla paura) in base alla reazione emotiva desiderata.

Originalità del lavoro. *La maggioranza delle ricerche sul tema dell'uso delle pubblicità sociali per la prevenzione al consumo di sigarette si è focalizzata sugli effetti di questo tipo di messaggi solo sugli adolescenti e "young adults". Pochi studi hanno esaminato l'impatto che possono avere le pubblicità di prevenzione sui bambini e ancora meno studi hanno valutato l'efficacia degli appelli alla paura sugli stessi.*

Il target dei bambini è diverso da quello degli adolescenti perché cambiano le abilità cognitive tra fasce d'età, così come gusti e preferenze. Per tale motivo, uno studio rivolto ai bambini che cerchi di capire le differenze percepite dagli *stessi tra l'uso di appelli all'umorismo e appelli alla paura, può aiutare a pianificare in futuro strategie sulle pubblicità sociali e sul marketing sociale che permettano una comunicazione diretta a un'audience molto giovane.*

Parole chiave: *comunicazione; marketing sociale; appelli alla paura; appelli all'umorismo; pubblicità sociale; pubblicità progresso.*

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Rivoluzione digitale, nuove professioni e distant workers: vincoli e opportunità per lo sviluppo turistico sostenibile dei borghi

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Obiettivi. *La pandemia connessa al Covid-19 ha amplificato la complessità che contraddistingue il settore turistico imponendo riflessioni sulle possibili scelte di sviluppo di organizzazioni, imprese e territori (OECD, 2020; UNWTO 2020a e 2020b; Sigala, 2021; Sobaih et al., 2021). All'interno di tale contesto il turismo sostenibile ha ricevuto particolare attenzione (Ioannides and Gyimóthy, 2020; Gössling et al., 2021). La ricerca di mete poco affollate, l'attenzione per spostamenti a corto raggio e l'interesse per la riscoperta di luoghi autentici ha indirizzato e rafforzato l'interesse della domanda turistica per forme di vacanza che consentono l'immersione nella natura e cultura del luogo (CST, 2020). In questo scenario trovano un'interessante opportunità di sviluppo destinazioni minori quali ad esempio, aree marginali, aree rurali e i borghi. Queste destinazioni presentano, infatti, caratteristiche che bene si conciliano con offerte di turismo sostenibile (Bramwell and Lane, 1994; Sharpley and Sharpley, 2004; Jensen, 2010). La presenza di imprese alberghiere di piccole dimensioni e di forme di ricettività legate al comparto extra-alberghiero (in primis B&B e agriturismi) e alle seconde case, favoriscono la relazione con la comunità ospitante e la conoscenza di elementi identitari ed autentici del territorio (Martini and Buffa, 2016; Ivona et al., 2021). Tali fattori rappresentano elementi dell'offerta che se adeguatamente valorizzati ed interpretati (congiuntamente alle altre risorse locali) possono diventare fattori pull di particolare importanza per la competitività del territorio.*

Tra i segmenti di domanda verso i quali queste destinazioni possono indirizzare l'offerta turistica, gli smart worker o nomadi digitali si presentano come nuovo target dello scenario contemporaneo. Se, come è noto, la pandemia ha amplificato lo smart working/distance working (Doyle et al., 2021), tale situazione ha dato origine altresì a nuovi comportamenti/stili di vita connessi all'attività professionale (Bolisani et al., 2020) che fanno emergere un "nuovo smart worker" che si presenta come segmento fortemente eterogeneo, che può includere lavoratori del settore pubblico, del settore privato, freelancer, studenti, etc. A fronte di un evidente knowledge gap rispetto al profilo di tale target in termini di processo decisionale, comportamenti, attitudini, percezioni e preferenze, è indubbia la crescita di interesse di alcune categorie di lavoratori per svolgere la propria attività professionale in luoghi diversi dall'abituale residenza/domicilio (Bolisani et al., 2020; Oliveira et al., 2021). L'affermarsi di tale fenomeno si presenta come opportunità di sviluppo per quei territori che saranno in grado di identificare e interpretare questo nuovo trend e rispondere con un'offerta coerente con i bisogni di questo segmento. Con riferimento al contesto italiano alcune evidenze in tal senso si stanno già riscontrando: ne sono esempi alcune iniziative in Trentino www.visittrentino.info/it/articoli/lifestyle/smart-working-nella-natura, in Toscana https://forbes.it/2020/10/14/a-santa-fiora-in-toscana-arriva-il-primo-smart-working-d-italia-ecco-il-bando/ piuttosto che il progetto Smartrekkers www.facebook.com/groups/smartrekker.

All'interno di tale scenario i borghi presentano alcune specificità che li pongono in una posizione privilegiata: la piccola dimensione, la lontananza da centri urbani affollati, la tranquillità e l'autenticità di questi luoghi sono alcune delle dimensioni che attribuiscono loro - con accezione porteriana - un vantaggio comparato rispetto ad altre destinazioni. Da un punto di vista manageriale, pertanto, la sfida che si presenta a questi territori è di riuscire a ridefinire la propria offerta al fine di acquisire un vantaggio competitivo sostenibile. I borghi possono essere protagonisti di questo processo di trasformazione qualora in grado di garantire ai "nuovi" smart worker la possibilità di coniugare attività lavorativa ed esperienza turistica. In tal senso investimenti e riqualificazione di servizi e infrastrutture (in primis connessione Internet e spazi di co-working) si affermano come prioritari.

Il presente contributo mira ad illustrare obiettivi e primi risultati di un progetto iniziato a febbraio 2021 finalizzato ad approfondire se e come i borghi italiani possano ridefinire la propria offerta turistica al fine di diventare destinazione per questo nuovo segmento di domanda.

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L'ipotesi da cui muove il lavoro è che da un punto di vista dello sviluppo turistico-territoriale, la scelta di questi territori di considerare il segmento dei nuovi smart worker tra i target verso i quali indirizzare la propria offerta può permettere di raggiungere soluzioni di tipo "win-win". La creazione di questa offerta, infatti, può accrescere la competitività della destinazione e contribuire altresì allo sviluppo socio-economico di questi territori. La creazione di valore pertanto è a beneficio di tutti i key stakeholders coinvolti in questo processo di trasformazione, ossia, turisti, attori pubblici e privati, comunità locale. L'offerta turistica indirizzata ai nuovi smart worker può creare le condizioni per uno sviluppo sostenibile prendendo consapevolmente le distanze da forme di turismo di massa. Tale offerta prevede infatti di:

- *riqualificare attività e servizi connessi al settore turistico (in primis la ricettività) creando condizioni per soggiorni di media-lunga durata, riducendo pertanto le tipiche esternalità negative associate all'escursionismo e al più ampio fenomeno del turismo "mordi e fuggi" (Weaver, 2000);*
- *conciliarsi con l'offerta turistica tipica dei borghi contribuendo a valorizzarne autenticità e tratti identitari ed evitando i rischi di un'offerta turistica generalista e di una banalizzazione della vacanza (Fremaux and Fremaux, 2013; Jacob, 2018);*
- *contribuire a rafforzare strategie di destagionalizzazione che con sempre maggiore frequenza divengono elementi fondamentali per garantire uno sviluppo sostenibile ed equilibrato del turismo (Cuccia e Rizzo, 2011)*

Da quanto sino a qui evidenziato, emerge con forza che la realizzazione dell'offerta è il risultato di una progettazione territoriale che va oltre lo sviluppo turistico tout court. Gli investimenti indirizzati all'adozione delle nuove tecnologie (elemento imprescindibile per la creazione dell'offerta) e l'adeguamento/realizzazione di infrastrutture, infatti, vanno a beneficio sia della popolazione residente sia degli smart worker. La riqualificazione dell'offerta implica il coinvolgimento della popolazione locale contribuendo a ridurre situazioni conflittuali alimentate da possibili azioni di grandi player dell'organizzazione turistica i cui obiettivi sono guidati dalla massimizzazione del profitto (Nieuwland and Van Melik, 2020). La matrice fortemente locale dello sviluppo di questa nuova forma di offerta contribuisce a rivitalizzare i territori, integrando nella comunità locale turisti che presentano specificità riconducibili ai "residenti temporanei", rispettosi della cultura e delle tradizioni del luogo. Attraverso questo processo di trasformazione, infine, è possibile contribuire alla riduzione dello spopolamento che si presenta come criticità strutturale di borghi e aree marginali.

Alla luce di quanto sin qui evidenziato, particolare rilevanza assumono i temi della trasformazione digitale e della competitività connessa allo sviluppo turistico sostenibile. La capacità dei borghi di implementare buone pratiche nell'adozione e gestione delle nuove tecnologie digitali divengono condizioni essenziali per ridefinire l'offerta territoriale che vede nella collaborazione pubblico-privato e nel coinvolgimento della comunità locale elementi cardine per lo sviluppo turistico sostenibile.

Nell'ambito delle imprese, la trasformazione digitale rappresenta una rilevante sfida organizzativa, che spesso comporta una "whole company transformation" (Gobble, 2018, p. 66), ovvero cambiamenti in termini di leadership, strategia, strutture, processi e cultura, fino alla potenziale ridefinizione del business model (Vial, 2019). La trasformazione digitale ha inoltre favorito nuovi modi di collaborare, sia tra individui che tra organizzazioni tanto da aver assunto, per la sua portata, il nome di "Quarta Rivoluzione Industriale". A questo riguardo, tra i concetti più nuovi emersi nel dibattito scientifico, vi è quello di ecosistema digitale (Li et al., 2017) che promuove l'interpretazione della digitalizzazione quale concetto olistico. Le nuove tecnologie e gli strumenti digitali, infatti, possono supportare lo sviluppo di iniziative imprenditoriali ad alto contenuto collaborativo. Attori eterogenei che collaborano e scambiano idee, informazioni e conoscenze, possono progettare proposte innovative servendosi di strumenti digitali integrati per raggiungere un obiettivo comune (Elia et al., 2020). L'ecosistema di imprenditorialità digitale può rappresentare una meta-organizzazione (Gulati et al., 2012) i cui stakeholder formano una rete coordinata di soggetti, caratterizzati da auto-organizzazione favorita dai canali digitali e dall'assenza di un'entità di controllo (Elia et al., 2020).

La trasformazione digitale, così come la tensione alla sostenibilità, rappresentano oggi due delle variabili più potenti nell'influenzare l'attuale scenario di business. Sempre più le imprese tendono a mettere a sistema queste due direttrici, migliorando la loro performance di sostenibilità facendo leva sull'innovazione digitale (Abdelaal et al., 2018; Ordieres-Meré et al., 2020).

Diversi studi dimostrano che l'acquisizione di dati digitali e l'implementazione di tecnologie digitali da parte delle organizzazioni è spesso legata al tentativo di raggiungere una più alta performance di sostenibilità nel lungo periodo (Bressanelli et al., 2018; Hsu et al., 2018; Jabbour et al., 2018; Rossignoli et al. 2018; Bonomi et al., 2019; Gupta et al., 2020; Ukko et al., 2020; Zoppelletto et al., 2020). In particolare, Bonomi et al. (2019) hanno evidenziato lo stretto rapporto esistente tra una rete collaborativa, la sostenibilità ambientale e la digitalizzazione, presentando un caso di studio che evidenzia come le ICT possano essere utilizzate per gestire una rete collaborativa utilizzando un modello di business sostenibile per la conservazione dei beni comuni.

Per quanto riguarda le architetture digitali come le piattaforme, Rossignoli et al. (2018) hanno studiato un gruppo di volontari impegnati eticamente che, agendo come un collettivo di imprenditori, ha adottato soluzioni ICT (web-based e mobile) per promuovere la trasparenza, la responsabilità e l'interazione tra i partecipanti, minimizzando così lo spazio per comportamenti opportunistici relativi alla gestione di un bene comune. Le architetture digitali possono stimolare la distribuzione di competenze, facilitare un migliore coordinamento degli stakeholder (Dhanaraj e Parkhe, 2006) e generare un'abbondanza di dati sul comportamento dei consumatori, ordini, vendite e localizzazione di oggetti fisici e digitali (Constantinides et al., 2018) permettendo così ai decisori di prendere decisioni più mirate (Mcafee et al., 2012).

Anche nel settore turistico si osservano chiare evidenze della "digital revolution" e dell'affermarsi dell'era del "turismo 4.0" (Pencarelli, 2020). Nell'attuale scenario competitivo anche destinazioni marginali come i borghi possono identificare nell'implementazione delle nuove tecnologie una proposta convincente per affermarsi come smart destination (Gretzel et al., 2015; Boes et al. 2016; Buhalis et al., 2019), coniugando le potenzialità del digitale enfatizzato dal paradigma dell'industria 4.0 con i principi della sostenibilità. Come evidenziato in Pencarelli (2020, p. 460) comparando i concetti di Turismo 4.0 e Smart Tourism "Smart tourism implies paying particular attention to sustainable mobility, social cohesion, protection of people's privacy, and optimization of waste management as well as water and energy consumption in tourist locations. Moreover, smart tourism refers to the efficient and effective use of new technologies applied to tourism services subordinated to a sustainability vision for improving quality of life of people (individual, groups, citizens and tourists) in a tourism destination".

Metodologia. *La ricerca considera la regione Marche come caso di studio. Tale scelta è riconducibile a due principali motivazioni: a) questa regione è caratterizzata da numerosi borghi e le risorse locali (naturali, culturali, enogastronomiche e infrastrutturali) possono essere valorizzate come fattori di attrattiva di un'offerta di turismo sostenibile; b) 55 comuni della provincia di Macerata (Marca Maceratese) sono protagonisti di un progetto di rete - promosso da un'organizzazione locale - finalizzato a creare una destinazione turistica sostenibile. Inoltre, l'organizzazione sta curando la nascita di un progetto finalizzato a creare una rete nazionale di "smart village", ossia di comuni a misura di smart worker, e ha selezionato la Marca Maceratese come luogo per una sperimentazione pilota. Per aderire al network, ottenere il marchio "Smart Village" e usufruire quindi dei servizi messi a disposizione (formazione e comunicazione in primis) occorre versare una fee annuale e rispettare un disciplinare contenente precisi standard di qualità. La ricerca - attualmente in corso - è organizzata in due fasi. La prima analizzerà il lato dell'offerta. In particolare, ci si concentrerà sul ruolo dell'attore pubblico, ovvero il principale key player in grado di favorire i necessari investimenti per garantire la realizzazione del progetto (in primis investimenti digitali) e supportare la comunità locale e gli attori privati nel progetto.*

Lo strumento utilizzato in questa fase è un questionario che sarà indirizzato a tutti i Sindaci dei Comuni della Provincia di Macerata (in totale 55). Il questionario analizzerà l'interesse degli amministratori locali sul tema dello "smart tourism" con un focus dedicato alla cosiddetta "workation" (ossia alle opportunità offerte dal poter coniugare lavoro "work" e vacanza "vacation") come leva per uno sviluppo locale sostenibile. Le principali dimensioni che si intendono indagare riguardano:

- *la disponibilità di una buona connettività all'interno del territorio comunale;*
- *la presenza di spazi per lo sviluppo di postazioni di lavoro condivise;*
- *la presenza di immobili pubblici e privati non occupati e/o in stato di abbandono;*
- *la presenza di un tessuto di accoglienza locale qualificato;*
- *pratiche di sviluppo sostenibile che il comune ha favorito o intende intraprendere in futuro.*

La seconda fase della ricerca analizzerà il lato della domanda e analizzerà comportamenti, attitudini, percezioni e preferenze delle comunità nazionali e internazionali di smart worker e nomadi digitali verso i borghi italiani come luoghi in cui vivere periodi di workation. Il principale obiettivo è ricostruire i profili dei "nuovi" smart worker" (cd. "buyer personas") e analizzare la capacità di attrazione dei borghi italiani per soggiorni di "workation.

La ricerca prevede la raccolta di dati e informazioni sia attraverso attività di desk analysis, sia attraverso la conduzione di survey. I principali focus delle rispettive attività di analisi sono le seguenti:

- *attraverso la desk analysis si analizzeranno le risorse e i contenuti presenti nelle principali community di smart worker e nomadi digitali;*
- *attraverso la survey si analizzeranno le dimensioni socio-demografiche dei rispondenti, i tratti distintivi rispetto alla loro formazione e al loro lavoro, l'interesse e la reale possibilità (e gli eventuali ostacoli) di vivere esperienze di "workation", le aspettative riguardo alle destinazioni scelte per soggiorni di questo tipo e l'interesse a trascorrere questo tipo di soggiorni in Italia e nei borghi italiani.*

Risultati. *In tale sede si illustrano i primi risultati della ricerca che - attualmente - è ancora in progress. Per quanto concerne l'analisi degli attori pubblici (prima fase della ricerca), ad oggi sono state effettuate 13 interviste semi-strutturate a sindaci, assessori al turismo e funzionari degli "Uffici cultura e turismo" dei comuni della Marca Maceratese. I comuni e key player coinvolti sono riassunti in Tabella 1.*

Le risposte hanno evidenziato un notevole interesse degli attori pubblici verso lo sviluppo di progettualità finalizzate ad attrarre i nuovi smart worker. In particolare, nove comuni (localizzati sia lungo la costa adriatica che nell'entroterra marchigiano) sono pronti a investire risorse per riqualificare la propria offerta di servizi e hanno manifestato altresì interesse ad aderire a un circuito di valorizzazione turistica dedicato. Questa esigenza è particolarmente sentita per i comuni con un consistente numero di strutture ricettive (e che evidenziano una stagionalità importante dei flussi turistici) e per quelli dove la connettività è buona o è in fase di implementazione. Nessun comune, tra quelli intervistati, ha una struttura di co-working immediatamente funzionante, ma la maggioranza è pronta a investirvi risorse qualora ci sia la possibilità di entrare in un circuito di promozione del territorio.

Alcuni comuni hanno segnalato la necessità di coinvolgere come interlocutori strategici altre organizzazioni, come i Gruppi di azione locale (GAL) e le Unioni Montane, al fine di orientare alla luce di queste nuove tendenze turistiche e del progetto "Italian Smart Village" la programmazione di questi enti.

Dalle interviste emergono alcune segnalazioni critiche connesse al sisma del 2016 che ha reso numerosi immobili ancora inagibili (Regione Marche, 2017). La maggioranza dei comuni vede la nascita di questo circuito di *valorizzazione dedicato coerente con la visione e gli sforzi dell'Amministrazione comunale, definendolo come possibile "acceleratore" per lo sviluppo locale e di utilità non solo per gli operatori del settore turistico, ma anche per la comunità locale. Quattro comuni hanno segnalato l'estremo interesse ad aderire al circuito perché hanno già ricevuto proposte di privati desiderosi di trasferirsi nel borgo come smart worker (sia ex cittadini, sia turisti italiani e internazionali che, dopo un'esperienza positiva, vorrebbero in futuro trasferirsi per soggiorni medio - lunghi) e di tour operator interessati a commercializzare pacchetti di "workation" nel comune.*

Tab. 1: Key player pubblici intervistati nel territorio della Marca Maceratese

n.	comune	key player
1	Potenza Picena	Assessore re al turismo
2	Treia	Sindaco
3	Cingoli	Assessore al turismo
4	Monte San Giusto	Assessore al turismo
5	Apiro	Assessore al turismo
6	Mogliano	Sindaco
7	Penna San Giovanni	Sindaco
8	Monte San Martino	Sindaco
9	Fiastra	Sindaco
10	San Severino Marche	Funzionaria ufficio turismo cultura
11	Pioraco	Sindaco
12	Recanati	Assessore al turismo
13	Macerata	Funzionario ufficio turismo e cultura

Fonte: ns elaborazione

Con riferimento all'analisi della domanda (seconda fase della ricerca), la desk analysis è stata indirizzata verso le principali community di smart worker e nomadi digitali presenti in Facebook. Complessivamente sono stati individuati 26 gruppi (cfr Tabella 2) ed è verso tali community che si prevede di indirizzare la survey. Per ragioni di privacy non è stato possibile ottenere da parte dei promotori delle community informazioni relative alla composizione e alla profilazione degli utenti. Tali informazioni, pertanto, saranno indagate in fase di ricerca.

Tab. 2: Community di smart worker e nomadi digitali (Facebook) emerse dalla desk analysis

community	membri
Digital Nomads Around the World	140.000
Digital Nomad Jobs - Remote Work From Anywhere	133.000
Remote Work & Jobs for Digital Nomads	119.000
Nomad Life 101 - Digital Nomad Blog	113.000
Remote Jobs, Work Anywhere - Inventive Hub	75.000
Female Digital Nomads	66.000
Digital Nomad Entrepreneurs	57.000
Global Digital Nomad Network	54.000
Digital Nomad Jobs - Remote Jobs @ letsworkremotely	48.000
Remote Jobs and Digital Nomads	26.000
Digital Nomads Hu	23.000
We Work Remotely	21.000
Digital Nomad Girls	15.000
Digital Nomads Forum	14.000
Digital Nomads & Entrepreneurs	12.000
Digital Nomads Around The World	11.000
Nomadi Digitali Italiani	10.000
Remote Workers / Digital Nomads	8.000
Italian Smart Workers	4.100
Work remotely – Europe	4.000
Digital Nomad Lifestyle - We Are Freedom Seekers	4.000
Digital nomads – Europe	3.000
Digital Nomad: Travel Bosses	3.000
Digital Nomad Ventures	2.000
Digital Nomads – Italy	1000
Digital Nomad Outdoors	450

Fonte: ns elaborazione

Dalla desk analysis sono emersi i principali temi oggetto di discussione nelle community. Essi sono riconducibili in particolare a:
- *la qualità e il costo della vita delle destinazioni;*
- *opportunità fiscali e programmi Expat per la concessione del visto;*
- *destinazioni covid free;*
- *esperienze da vivere in destinazione (in particolare, outdoor, surf e yoga);*

- *opportunità lavorative in destinazione*

Dall'analisi delle pagine Facebook e dei post emerge che le conversazioni tra i membri delle community hanno riguardato principalmente la scelta di destinazioni a misura di nomade digitale, frutto di una pluralità di motivi: dalla qualità della vita a motivazioni di natura economica e fiscale. Le destinazioni più citate sono le grandi città europee (Berlino, Barcellona e Madrid in primis) e le destinazioni tropicali (Tailandia in primis). Tuttavia, un grande interesse ha destato l'implementazione da parte di alcune nazioni di programmi dedicati per nomadi digitali (il riferimento è ai programmi implementati da alcuni paesi europei come l'Estonia, la Grecia e la Croazia) e lo sviluppo del primo digital nomad village del mondo a Madeira, Ponta do Sol, a cui ne stanno seguendo altri in tutta l'isola, in considerazione del successo conseguito. L'analisi è stata effettuata in piena pandemia mondiale: per questa ragione, i contenuti riguardavano principalmente destinazioni "covid free", come l'arcipelago delle Gran Canarie che tra l'altro ha sviluppato da diversi anni programmi dedicati di marketing turistico.

Alcuni membri delle community hanno manifestato interesse anche per la possibilità di vivere esperienze di smart working in Italia. La percezione dell'Italia come destinazione per nomadi digitali è buona, ma tra gli aspetti segnalati come deterrenti per soggiorni di questo tipo emergono il costo della vita nelle grandi città (Milano in primis) e la scarsa qualità della connettività nelle aree rurali. Queste ultime sono risultate comunque particolarmente apprezzate per la qualità della vita, per il contesto storico e naturale e per un costo della vita ritenuto accessibile. Tra le regioni maggiormente segnalate dagli utenti per vivere esperienze di questo tipo figurano la Toscana, la Sicilia e la Sardegna.

Limiti della ricerca. *I principali limiti sono riconducibili alla scarsa disponibilità da parte dei community manager di rivelare (anche per motivi di privacy) informazioni sulla natura socio – demografica degli utenti e alla reticenza manifestata nell'indirizzare il questionario all'interno della community. La maggioranza delle community, tuttavia si è resa disponibile a permettere la condivisione del link al questionario e a renderlo quindi visibile agli utenti.*

Un ulteriore limite è riconducibile alle specificità delle community ad oggi indagate che sono composte, per la maggioranza, da smart worker professionisti che non necessariamente presentano diffusamente al loro interno anche il "nuovo" smart worker.

Implicazioni pratiche. *La creazione di Smart village contribuisce allo sviluppo locale dei piccoli borghi adottando un approccio sostenibile. Il coinvolgimento di attori pubblici e privati e della comunità locale nella definizione della nuova offerta turistica ne rafforza i rapporti di collaborazione. Dal punto di vista del management questo è un punto essenziale in quanto le buone pratiche sviluppate per la realizzazione di questo progetto potranno essere declinate ad altri progetti di sviluppo territoriale. La ricostruzione del profilo del nuovo smart worker diviene inoltre uno step fondamentale per definire binomi prodotto/mercato in grado di accrescere la competitività dei territori. La domanda dei nuovi smart worker che iniziano oggi a scoprire le opportunità di vivere e lavorare a distanza e che ancora non si riconoscono nell'etichetta tradizionale di"nomade digitale" può in futuro rivelarsi fortemente attrattiva.*

Originalità del lavoro. *Da un punto di vista dell'offerta la ricerca indaga un tema di attuale interesse connesso allo sviluppo turistico-territoriale dei borghi italiani coniugando le opportunità offerte dalla digitalizzazione e dal management della sostenibilità. Da un punto di vista della domanda, la ricerca indaga profili comportamentali e decisionali di un target rispetto al quale si riscontra ad oggi un marcato knowledge gap. La ricostruzione di tali profili contribuirà ad indagare un segmento che si ritiene possa affermarsi come "nuova generazione di nomadi digitali" assumendo dimensioni molto più estese di quelle caratterizzanti la generazione precedente.*

Parole chiave: *digitalizzazione; smart worker; nomadi digitali; sviluppo turistico-territoriale; sostenibilità; borghi italiani*

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BPM e BPR nei servizi turistici: un'applicazione al caso dei terminal crociere

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Obiettivi. *La crescente complessità dei processi aziendali ha determinato la necessità di sviluppare nuovi modelli di gestione e strumenti informativi/informatici a supporto delle imprese (Kohli & Sherer, 2002). Il processo aziendale può essere definito come un insieme di attività, ordinate secondo una sequenza prestabilita, che richiede uno o più tipi di input per la creazione di un output di valore per il cliente (Hammer & Champy, 1993). I processi aziendali possono essere suddivisi in processi operativi, che afferiscono alla catena del valore di un'impresa, e gestionali, che consistono nell'elaborazione delle informazioni e nel coordinamento delle funzioni aziendali (Mooney et al., 1996). La definizione di un flusso organizzato e controllato di processi operativi e gestionali costituisce oggigiorno un elemento centrale per il funzionamento efficiente di un'organizzazione (Anand et al., 2013). Sotto questo profilo, Kohli e Sherer (2002) affermano che un approccio rivolto alla visualizzazione integrale del processo e di tutte le fasi che lo compongono può consentire all'impresa di comprendere i fattori chiave di successo per il soddisfacimento dei bisogni del cliente, nonché i profili di criticità. In questo contesto, l'impatto dell'Information Technology (IT) sulle organizzazioni ha radicalmente cambiato la gestione dei processi aziendali e la definizione delle strategie per sostenere gli obiettivi di business (Anand et al., 2013). Ciò ha portato la nascita di discipline quali il Business Process Management (BPM) e Business Process Re-engineering (BPR), che a partire dagli anni '90 si sono dimostrate uno strumento fondamentale per analizzare, comprendere e migliorare i processi aziendali (Antunes & Mourão, 2011).*

Più in particolare, Pyon et al. (2011) definiscono il BPM come un sistema a supporto dei processi aziendali, il quale impiega metodi, tecniche e software per progettare, attuare, controllare e analizzare i processi operativi che coinvolgono persone, organizzazione, applicazioni, documenti e altre fonti di informazioni. Il BPR è stato inizialmente definito da Hammer e Champy (1993) come il processo di riprogettazione radicale dei processi aziendali al fine di ottenere significativi miglioramenti delle performance, in termini di costi, qualità, servizio e velocità dell'espletamento dei tasks. Tale approccio permette all'azienda di rispondere efficacemente ai cambiamenti dell'ambiente competitivo ed alle mutevoli esigenze organizzative interne (Holland et al., 2005; Ozcelik, 2010).

Inizialmente il BPM e BPR hanno trovato applicazione nei contesti dell'industria manifatturiera al fine di incrementare i livelli di efficienza dei processi produttivi e coordinare le diverse fasi di processo e le operations (Von Brocke et al., 2015). Nonostante ciò, il suo utilizzo si è rapidamente esteso a nuovi settori, tra cui quello dei servizi, che, invero, costituiscono un campo di applicazione naturale delle suddette logiche in considerazione della valenza che il processo stesso assumere rispetto alla produzione e contestuale trasferimento di valore al cliente finale (Van Der Aalst et al. 2016). La produzione di un servizio richiede infatti una progettazione integrata e coordinata sia del servizio principale sia dei servizi ancillari, i quali svolgono un ruolo di facilitazione alla fruizione del prodotto core o ne incrementano il valore per il cliente. Pertanto, una chiara comprensione di tali attività e delle relative tempistiche e sequenze consente all'impresa di servizi di organizzare al meglio il personale, le strutture e, in generale, le risorse necessarie per garantire una prestazione conforme alle aspettative del cliente (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2004).

In questa prospettiva, gli strumenti di mappatura dei processi, tipici dell'approccio di BPM e BPR, consentono all'impresa di servizi di mettere in evidenza i momenti in cui il cliente si interfaccia con l'impresa (ivi intendendosi sia il personale del fornitore del servizio, sia le self-service technologies e l'equipment predisposto dal fornitore medesimo alle interazioni uomo-macchina con il cliente) e le criticità che ne possono derivare. Nei servizi non è raro, infatti, che il cliente sia chiamato a partecipare attivamente al processo di erogazione degli stessi, al punto che la sua interazione con l'impresa diventa parte integrante dell'esperienza e il risultato del servizio può in ampia parte dipendere dalle sue stesse azioni (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2004). Sotto questo profilo, peraltro, è appena il caso di evidenziare il progressivo interesse nell'ambito dei sevizi da parte di practitioners e accademici, dei concetti propri dell'experiential marketing (Rather, 2020).

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Nel progettare il sistema di erogazione del servizio e le relative strutture di servizio, l'impresa deve quindi essere consapevole dei momenti di interazione tra il cliente ed il proprio personale ed equipment, nonché delle fasi e delle modalità attraverso cui il cliente è chiamato a svolgere una determinata azione per la fruizione del servizio o comunque a concorrere proattivamente con un livello più o meno elevato di coinvolgimento fisico e/o mentale. Se quanto asserito è valido in relazione a tutte le categorie di servizi, ben si comprende come dette considerazioni presentino una portata ancora più significativa nell'ambito della gestione di imprese di servizi "ad alto contatto", come nel caso dei servizi turistici. In questo settore, infatti, come noto, il livello di interazione tra il fornitore e il cliente è talmente elevato che il suo contributo può spingersi sino a configurare il medesimo come "pro-sumer", e il suo ruolo, in molti casi, non può intendersi limitato alla semplice "fruizione" (Payne et al., 2008). Le azioni e il comportamento del cliente all'interno del sistema di erogazione del servizio contribuiscono alla creazione (e al trasferimento) del valore per sé e per gli altri clienti che si trovino a condividere gli spazi (anche virtuali) del sistema di erogazione in oggetto. Azioni e comportamenti del cliente, quindi, influenzando l'esito del servizio ed il successo dell'impresa. Sotto questo profilo, gli approcci propri del BPM e del BPR offrono all'impresa di servizi turistici validi strumenti manageriali e di marketing per migliorare le performance operative, gestionali e di marketing, consentendo in particolare di eliminare le criticità tipiche dei processi che caratterizzano questo settore e di arricchire anche l'esperienza del turista, differenziando per questa via il servizio erogato dall'impresa.

In ragione di ciò, la letteratura accademica ha però dedicato fino ad oggi poca attenzione all'applicazione dei costrutti teorici del BPM e BPR nel turismo. La tematica della gestione e riprogettazione dei processi nel settore è stata però affrontata da diversi autori, tra cui Buhalis (1998), Collins et al. (2003), Glavas e Mathews (2014), Lee (2016), i quali hanno evidenziato come le imprese turistiche, considerate a livello complessivo, non stiano ancora sfruttando adeguatamente le potenzialità connesse alle logiche del BPM e del BPR, e, specie per ragioni connesse alla carenza di risorse finanziarie dedicate, anche delle nuove tecnologie dell'informazione che consentono l'ottimizzazione dei processi. Poiché la corretta gestione ed implementazione delle informazioni all'interno dell'impresa e la definizione di un marketing information system (MIS) a ciò preposto, costituiscono fattori critici di successo fondamentali all'interno del settore, è opportuno e logico attendersi che nei prossimi anni sempre più imprese dovranno adeguarsi introducendo metodi innovativi per la gestione dei processi nell'ambito della gestione delle operations se vorranno mantenere un posizionamento competitivo adeguato all'interno dei propri mercati di riferimento.

Considerate le suddette premesse, l'obiettivo di ricerca del presente elaborato è quello di dimostrare la rilevanza dei costrutti teorici del BPM e BPR, fornendo alcuni esempi concreti di applicazione empirica nell'ambito del settore dei servizi turistici. Più in particolare, le attività di ricerca condotte approfondiscono il caso dei servizi crocieristici, i quali, in ragione delle loro peculiarità, costituiscono un campo di applicazione ideale degli strumenti manageriali e di marketing oggetto di esame. L'applicazione empirica verterà in particolare sull'esame delle opportunità che gli strumenti di BPM e BPR offrono in relazione alla gestione delle operations attinenti ai flussi di passeggeri presso i terminal crociere. Tra i più rilevanti studi dedicati al settore in oggetto, Lekakou et al. (2010) e Di Vaio et al. (2011) hanno infatti evidenziato come sussistano molteplici criticità connesse non solo alla gestione di flussi di persone, bagagli e informazioni, ma anche all'offerta di un'esperienza turistica in linea con le aspettative dei passeggeri crocieristi proprio durante la gestione delle fasi a terra. In questa prospettiva, l'articolo mira ad investigare la possibilità di applicazione del BPM e BPR per migliorare le performance dei terminal crocieristici con riferimento a: (i) l'efficienza dei processi operativi gestionali di flussi passeggeri; (ii) il livello complessivo di servizio fruito dal turista crocierista (ovvero il crocierista), attraverso l'aumento della soddisfazione complessiva che origian dall'esperienza nelle fasi che riguardano le attività che hanno luogo nei terminal crociere.

Metodologia. *Per rispondere agli obiettivi di ricerca pocanzi richiamati, ovvero al fine di identificare specifiche occasioni applicative de costrutti teorici e dei tool manageriali che gli approcci di BPM e di BPR offrono ai manager che operano all'interno del settore turistico delle crociere, il paper impiega la metodologia nota come "case study analysis". Come suggerito da diversi autori (Williamson, 2002; Zainal, 2007), la "case study analysis" risulta particolarmente appropriata per esaminare il fenomeno oggetto di studio con un elevato livello di dettaglio. L'impiego della metodologia in oggetto, peraltro, appare preferibile rispetto ad altri approcci empirici di natura più prevalentemente quantitativa in ragione del fatto che gli obiettivi di ricerca posti alla base dell'elaborato presentano una natura almeno in parte esplorativa. Tali considerazioni, inoltre, con specifico riferimento all'esame delle opportunità di incremento dell'efficacia e dell'efficienza manageriale che originano dalle pratiche e dagli strumenti di BPM e BPR per le imprese di servizi turistici sono altresì in line con Beeton (2005).*

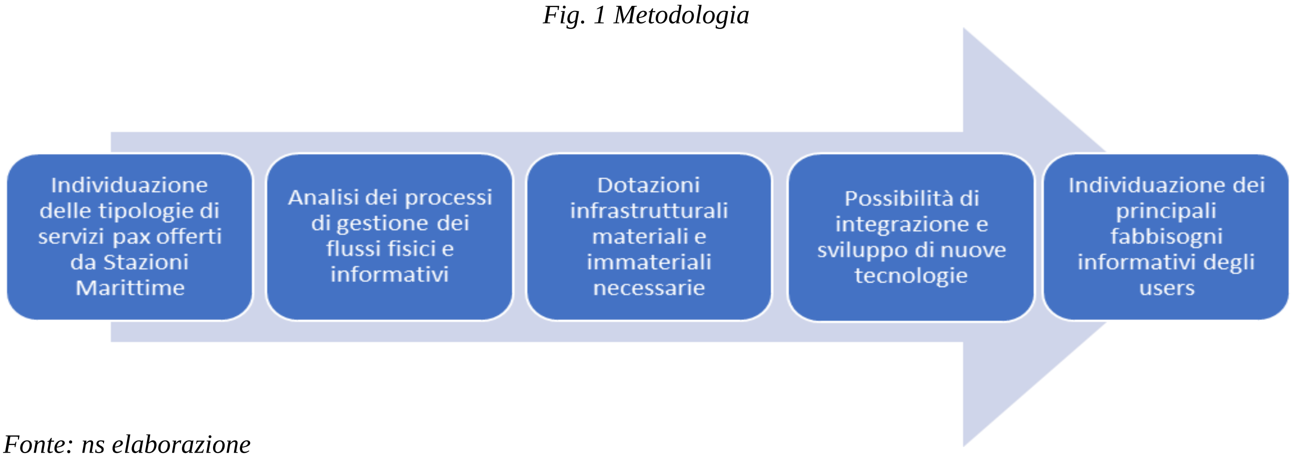
Definita la metodologia da applicare, il gruppo di ricerca ha successivamente provveduto a selezionare il caso di studio considerando sia il tipo di processo e di attività relativa al contesto crocieristico da mappare e da esaminare, sia il caso concreto da osservare empiricamente al fine di verificare la validità degli assunti teorici richiamati nella precedente sezione. In particolare, si è deciso di esaminare le operations e i processi che hanno luogo nell'ambito dei terminal per la gestione dei flussi crocieristici e si è provveduto a identificare un particolare caso di studio, ovvero il caso del terminal crocieristico "Stazioni Marittime" di Genova.

La motivazione alla base della selezione dello specifico caso di studio deriva dalle peculiarità del terminal Stazioni Marittime, che vanta un ruolo primario nell'ambito del settore crocieristico in Italia e nel Mediterraneo. Il porto di Genova, attraverso il terminal Stazioni Marittime, si posiziona infatti al settimo posto nella classifica dei porti crocieristici del Mediterraneo in termini di numero di passeggeri movimentati (1.349.370 nel 2019), e risulta invece al *quarto posto se si considerano i soli porti italiani (Risposte e Turismo, 2020). Il porto di Genova rappresenta altresì l'home-port*[1] *di riferimento per alcune delle principali compagnie crocieristiche, tra cui MSC. I passeggeri che imbarcano/sbarcano nel porto di Genova per l'inizio/fine della loro vacanza costituiscono circa il 60% del traffico passeggeri complessivo gestito da Stazioni Marittime, mentre il restante 40% è costituito da passeggeri in transito, i quali scendono a terra dopo l'attracco per visitare la città, risalendo successivamente a bordo. Tale distinzione è particolarmente rilevante per capire la natura e la complessità dei servizi che il terminal è chiamato a gestire in ragione delle specificità dei flussi di traffico prevalenti che interessano le relative strutture e processi.*

In particolare, con riferimento al caso di studio, si è proceduto a applicate empiricamente alcuni dei principali costrutti teorici e strumenti manageriali per la progettazione e il re-design dei processi che originano dalle teorie di BPM e BPR (Hammer e Champy, 1993; Ozcelik, 2010; Pyon et al., 2011): il caso di studio verte infatti sull'applicazione dello schema di flowchart, il quale costituisce uno degli strumenti fondamentali per la gestione e rielaborazione di un processo aziendale e che costituisce un primo passaggio prodromico all'applicazione dello strumento noto come "blueprint". La tecnica del flowchart, in particolare, rappresenta una soluzione utile per ottenere una visione d'insieme delle attività che costituiscono un processo. Tramite elementi visivi viene infatti resa più agevole la comprensione delle componenti di processo e della sequenza di attività alla base delle operations aziendali, facilitando quindi il re-design e il re-thinking di processo da parte dei manager interessati (Aguilar-Saven, 2004).

La Figura 1 riporta la metodologia adottata all'interno del presente elaborato. In questa prospettiva, l'elaborato fornisce gli strumenti per addivenire ad una approfondita analisi in merito agli elementi potenzialmente critici e alle possibili soluzioni in relazione alle operations che attengono la gestione dei flussi e dei processi all'interno del terminal crocieristico "Stazioni Marittime" nel Porto di Genova. Pertanto, l'attività di ricerca ha seguito un preciso percorso metodologico, effettuando, dapprima, un'indagine volta a identificare i diversi servizi offerti da Stazioni Marittime, ovvero servizi di accoglienza, controlli di sicurezza, check-in, gestione bagagli, e degli altri servizi erogati nelle aree del terminal, ma non gestiti direttamente da Stazioni Marittime (ad esempio, ristorazione, punti informazione turistica, e trasporto taxi). In seguito, sono stati analizzati i molteplici flussi gestiti dal terminal, ovvero flussi di crocieristi in imbarco, sbarco e transito, nonché dei relativi flussi informativi.

Fig. 1 Metodologia



Fonte: ns elaborazione

Nell'ambito della metodologia è stata realizzata una mappatura dell'area del terminal, evidenziando la destinazione d'uso delle diverse infrastrutture materiali ed immateriali impiegate nella realizzazione dei servizi. In ultima analisi, sono state investigate, sulla base dei flowchart realizzati, possibili applicazioni e/o integrazioni di nuove tecnologie in relazione ai fabbisogni manifestati degli utenti, e capaci di fornire al soggetto gestore del terminal crociere anche utili dati e informazioni funzionali a assicurare un adeguato "feeding" del sistema informatico ed informativo aziendale, nonché funzionali ad assicurare un maggiore livello di soddisfazione dei crocieristi. La ricerca è stata supportata da colloqui ed interviste con i principali manager di Stazioni Marittime, finalizzati ad approfondire, e successivamente a validare, le analisi condotte ed i flowchart realizzati.

Risultati. *La Figura 2 e la*

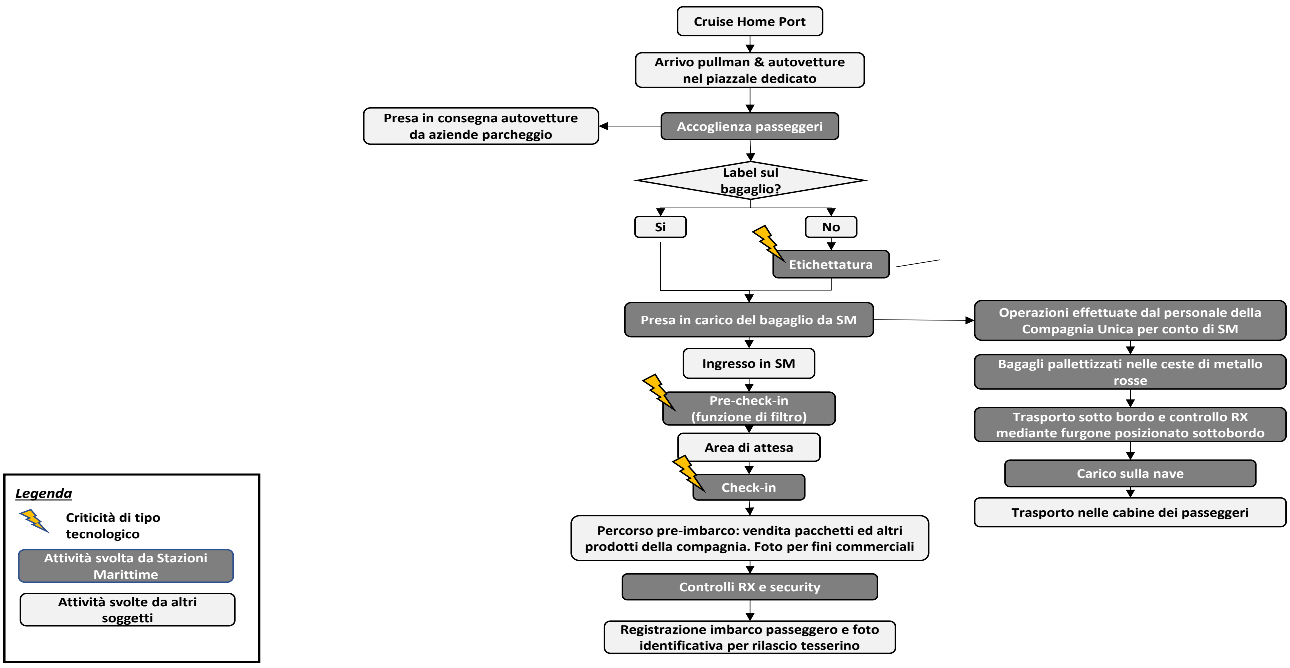
Fig. *3 mostrano i risultati empirici connessi all'applicazione dei costrutti teorici e dei tool manageriali propri del BPR e del BPM. In particolare, le due figure richiamate mostrano gli schemi flowchart relativi ai processi di imbarco, sbarco e transito di passeggeri gestiti da Stazioni Marittime. All'interno di ciascun schema flowchart si riportano, in grigio, le attività direttamente espletate da Stazioni Marittime, mentre in bianco vengono identificate le azioni che non ricadono nella sua sfera di competenza, ma che sono svolte in autonomia, dai passeggeri (secondo la logica di co-produzione del servizio), oppure dal personale della compagnia crocieristica o, ancora, da soggetti terzi che operano*

[1] Porto scelto dalle compagnie crocieristiche come scalo di partenza e di arrivo, nel quale viene imbarcato e sbarcato il maggior numero di passeggeri.

nell'ambito del porto e che assolvono funzioni di fornitori rispetto alla value chain complessiva del soggetto che gestisce le facilities crocieristiche .

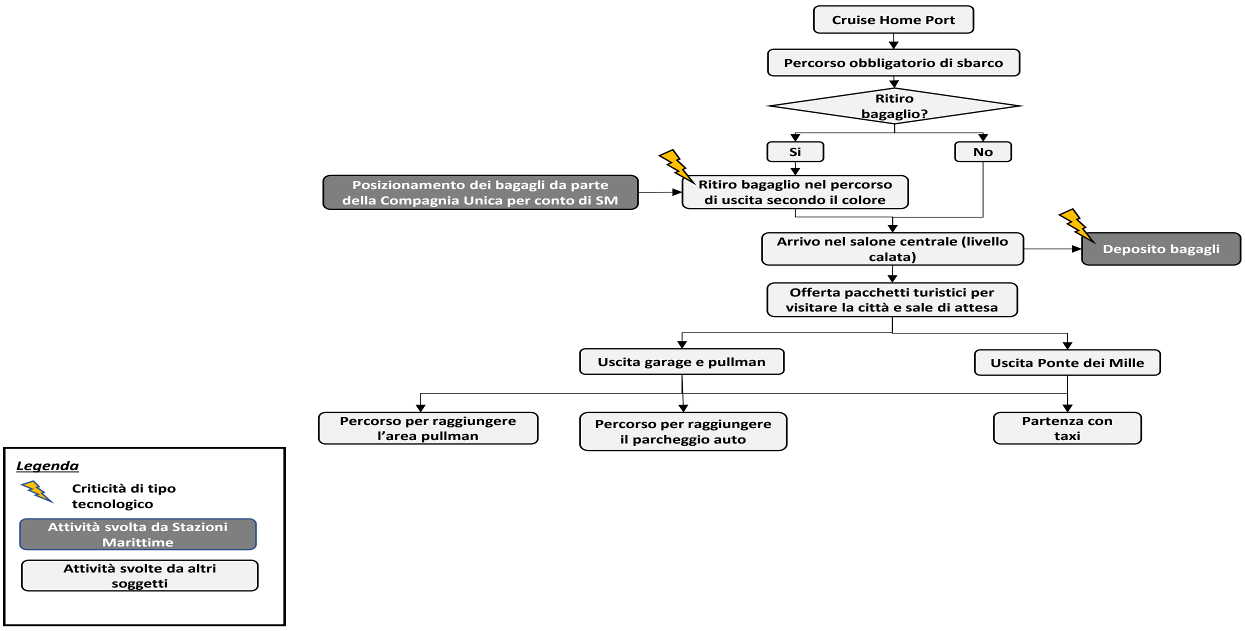
Gli schemi richiamati evidenziano anche le fasi del processo, le specifiche attività e le aree fisiche del sistema di erogazione ove è possibile si registrino momenti particolarmente rilevanti per la definizione del livello di qualità del servizio dal punto di vista del cliente, quelli di maggiore interazione cliente-fornitore, e quelli dove è possibile si registino maggiori criticità. Sotto questo profilo, in particolare, per mezzo di apposite icone, si evidenziano le fasi e le attività a maggior profilo di rischio, dove quindi possono verificarsi colli di bottiglia o altre problematiche, con particolare attenzione alle criticità di natura tecnologica. Detta tipologia di analisi, invero, favorisce l'identificazione di opportunità di intervento dal punto di vista della ri-progettazione dei processi e dell'introduzione di soluzioni tecnologiche volte a rispondere ai bisogni specifici dei clienti interessati alle attività in oggetto, che consentano anche al tempo stesso di definire un sistema tecnologico, informatico ed informativo capace di offrire all'imprese che eroga i servizi di gestione del terminal crocieristico in oggetto informazioni utili ad assumere le migliori decisioni aziendali funzionali alla gestione dei processi e delle operations di propria pertinenza.

Fig. 2. Schema di flowchart procedura di imbarco



Fonte: ns. elaborazione

Fig. 3. Schema di flowchart procedure di sbarco e transito



Fonte: ns. elaborazione

Limiti della ricerca. *Nonostante l'analisi empirica condotta fornisca utili stimoli di riflessione sia dal punto di vista del dibattito accademico circa la rilevanza dell'impiego dei modelli concettuali e degli strumenti manageriali che trovano nelle pratiche di BPM e BPR le fondamenta teoriche di riferimento, sia dal punto di vista dei practitioners, come meglio specificato nella successiva sezione, lo studio presenta alcuni limiti. In primo luogo, le indagini empiriche condotte secondo la metodologia nota come case study analysis ha riguardato un solo ambito applicativo relativo al settore crocieristico. Il caso in oggetto, peraltro, si focalizza sulla ri-progettazione dei servizi e dei processi che riguardano le attività a terra svolte nell'ambito dei servizi crocieristici forniti dai terminal crociere. Sotto questo punto di vista sarebbe quindi particolarmente utile estendere le analisi ad altri casi di studi che attengano sempre all'impiego dei suddetti strumenti gestionali ma con riferimento, per esempio, ai processi e alle operations che riguardano le imprese crocieristiche o le imprese di servizi turistici coinvolte nell'ambito dell'erogazione di tour package a terra. L'inserimento di diversi casi relativi al medesimo settore ma focalizzati su diverse tipologie di fornitori di servizi, invero consentirebbe di identificare le principali analogie ma anche le principali differenze alla base dell'impiego degli strumenti manageriali oggetto di approfondimento da parte di vari attori operanti nella medesima supply chain e potrebbe anche favorire una visione integrata e sinergica dell'utilizzo di questo tipo di tool manageriale nell'ambito di una gestione delle attività del network del valore che valorizzi logiche di stakeholder relationship management in relazione a tutti gli attori economici rilevanti.*

In secondo luogo, l'elaborato considera un particolare caso di servizio turistico contraddistinto da livelli di interazione cliente-fornitore particolarmente elevato (servizi ad alto contatto), dove peraltro si osservano l'esistenza di numerose attività nell'ambito delle quali il cliente diviene "pro-sumer". Successive analisi empiriche, pertanto, dovrebbero verificare l'effettiva possibilità di generalizzare i risultati dello studio anche ad altre tipologie di servizi turistici, soprattutto nel caso di servizi a bassa intensità di contatto.

Implicazioni pratiche. *Lo studio condotto e i risultati empirici a cui il medesimo consente di pervenire evidenziano il ruolo di rilievo che l'applicazione dei costrutti teorici e degli strumenti di BPM e BPR possono ricoprire nell'ambito della gestione di imprese di servizi operanti nel settore turistico, usando come specifico ambito applicativo il caso dei terminal crocieristici e focalizzando l'attenzione sull'esame e la progettazione dei processi e delle operations attinenti ai servizi a terra svolti all'interno delle facilities funzionali alla gestione dei flussi di crocieristi in ambito portuale. Il ricorso a forme di gestione e riprogettazione dei processi secondo gli schemi concettuali e gli strumenti manageriali sopra richiamati consente si riesaminare ogni componente costitutiva dei processi, valutandone l'utilità ai fini dell'esito finale, il valore complessivamente creato e le eventuali criticità che essa può generare.*

Questa attività porta necessariamente a una successiva razionalizzazione dei processi, attraverso interventi di modifica di fasi inefficienti, l'eliminazione di elementi non necessari e lo sfruttamento di potenzialità non considerate in precedenza. Per i manager di questo tipo di imprese, l'introduzione di pratiche e strumenti propri del BPM e del MPR appaiono pertanto funzionali alla corretta realizzazione di attività di ri-progettazione dei processi allo scopo di conseguire cost savings, di migliorare l'efficienza nella gestione dei diversi flussi che si concretizzano nello svolgimento delle attività del terminal, che siano di persone, bagagli, informazioni o flussi finanziari ma anche di incrementare il livello di servizio erogato a favore dei turisti che transitano nelle strutture gestire (ovvero i crocieristi). La riformulazione dei processi, infatti, può avere ricadute significative anche sul livello di soddisfazione dei passeggeri, che possono così beneficiare di procedure, alle quali loro stessi sono spesso chiamati a prendere attivamente parte, più semplici e lineari. Una riprogettazione dei processi può garantire al cliente un livello di sicurezza maggiore, attraverso l'efficientamento delle procedure di safety & security e fornire informazioni più chiare e dettagliate circa i servizi offerti dallo stesso terminal, quali punti informazione, bar, ristoranti e servizi di trasporto, per rendere la permanenza presso le strutture del terminal un'esperienza il più possibile piacevole.

L'incremento nel livello di soddisfazione del turista può essere considerato anche sotto un altro profilo: la riprogettazione dei processi, infatti, può costituire un'occasione per migliorare le modalità con cui il terminal fornisce al passeggero informazioni e mezzi per poter esplorare la destinazione raggiunta. In questo caso, la soddisfazione del passeggero non riguarda semplicemente la service experience, che si realizza presso il terminal, ma si estende all'intera cruise port destination, migliorando l'esperienza turistica complessiva, incentivando un approccio positivo all'intention to return e all'intention to re-purchease e al passaparola positivo in merito alla destinazione visitata e al servizio di cui ha fruito.

Le pratiche di BPM e BPR favoriscono inoltre una migliore gestione delle fasi critiche di "service encounter", fornendo chiavi di lettura critica e dettagliata dei profili, spaziali e temporali connessi ai momenti di interazione cliente-fornitore: ciò si traduce in opportunità di gestione snella e rapida da pare del management delle imprese di servizi turistici in merito alla definizione di KPI puntuali atti al monitoraggio e al miglioramento delle performance operative, di mercato, ed economico-finanziarie. Con specifico riferimento al caso oggetto di studio, ovvero il soggetto gestore delle operations a terra in relazione ai terminal portuali dedicati ai flussi crocieristici, tali fasi costituiscono momenti in cui il cliente, soprattutto qualora si tratti di un passeggero first timer che non ha dunque familiarità con i processi di imbarco e sbarco, necessita di indicazioni precise e di maggiore assistenza da parte del provider del servizio. Non avendo avuto modo di maturare una conoscenza circa le attività a lui richieste per consentire lo svolgimento del processo, un cliente alla prima esperienza potrebbe trovarsi in una situazione di disagio, temendo di commettere errori o tenere comportamenti errati quando chiamato a collaborare alla produzione del servizio, rischiando di compromettere la qualità del servizio fruito da lui e dagli altri passeggeri. Il flowchart e gli strumenti più evoluti di BPR e di BPM, quali il blueprint, da questo punto di vista, non solo consentono di "isolare" le fasi e i *momenti più rilevanti ma consentono di individuare "at a glance" anche possibili soluzioni gestionali funzionali al superamento delle suddette criticità.*

Dal punto di vista, delle principali implicazioni pratiche connesse allo studio in esame, appare, peraltro utile evidenziate come il caso empirico riportato fornisce utili spunti di riflessione a favore dei manager di imprese che operino nel settore turistico circa l'utilità del flowchart non solo al fine di acquisire una panoramica completa delle componenti di servizio e delle sequenze attraverso cui esso si articola, ma anche al fine di individuare i principali profili di criticità, di varia natura, che possono compromettere il risultato di servizio, le performance del provider e la soddisfazione del personale e dei fruitori.

Originalità del lavoro. *L'elaborato rappresenta un primo tentativo di applicare in modo empirico al contesto dei servizi turistici di tipo crocieristico i costrutti teorici e gli strumenti manageriali riconducibili al BPM e al BPR, mostrando le molteplici opportunità che questo tipo tool consentirebbero di generare per le imprese del settore in relazione alla rivisitazione al ripensamento delle principali operations aziendali e dei relativi processi. Il tema, peraltro, appare ancora più rilevante se si considera il particolare momento storico che il settore sta vivendo. Il settore crocieristico, infatti, messo già a dura prova dalle restrizioni normative che originano dalla situazione sanitaria internazionale, sarà comunque chiamato nei prossimi mesi ed anni a ripensare in modo significativo i processi e le operations con un sempre maggiore orientamento ai temi della safety & secutity e del customer care, anche se grandi sforzi sono già stati richiesti in tal senso alle imprese del settore che operano in tutta la supply chain complessiva: dalle compagnie crocieristiche ai gestori dei terminal crociere. Sotto questo profilo, pertanto, le pratiche e gli strumenti esaminati all'interno dell'elaborato possono rappresentare uno stimolo a gestire i processi di ri-progettazione dei processi secondo logiche manageriali formalizzate e più sofisticate che possono quindi supportare i manager del settore nell'espletamento delle attività in oggetto.*

Key words*:* *BPR; BPM; servizi turistici; terminal crocieristici; flowchart; processi.*

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