Proceedings of the
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Research Conference 2010

Adding Value Through Research

24 - 26 November 2010
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Proceedings of the
New Zealand Tourism and
Hospitality Research Conference, 2010

“Adding Value Through Research”

24 - 26 November, 2010
School of Hospitality and Tourism
and
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Auckland
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Mark Orams, Michael Lück, Jill Poulston and Sharon Race - Editors

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Acknowledgements

Organising the conference and producing these proceedings were tasks contributed to by a wide range of people and organisations. I thank all the people who submitted papers, abstracts and presentations for consideration for the conference. I also acknowledge and thank the wide range of people who freely gave of their time and expertise to review the papers and abstracts submitted. The support from a wide range of people at AUT University has been significant and very important in ensuring the conference was a success. I particularly thank Nigel Hemmington, Dean of the Faculty of Applied Humanities, Linda O’Neill, Deputy Dean and Head of the School of Hospitality and Tourism, and Simon Milne, Director of the New Zealand Tourism Research Institute and Associate Head of School (Research) at the School of Hospitality and Tourism.

The wonderful staff, students and interns in the School of Hospitality and Tourism and the New Zealand Tourism Research Institute were all supportive and willing to pitch in and help when needed. A wider range of staff throughout AUT University were also involved in a variety of capacities and have my thanks and gratitude.

Thanks also to our keynote speakers at the conference; Kevin Bowler, Alison Morrison and Norm Thompson and to James Blake and Alistair Aicken at the conference dinner. We have had helpful support from sponsors: Auckland Adventure Jet, Restaurant Association of New Zealand, Hospitality Standards Institute, Explore NZ, The Observatory - Sky City, PrintSprint, Voyager NZ Maritime Museum and Piko and Four Seasons Restaurants at AUT University.

The Conference Organising Committee and Academic Review Committee, who are named earlier in this publication, have taken on roles and responsibilities and have delivered. I thank and acknowledge their important contributions.

Finally, it is appropriate that we acknowledge our conference co-ordinator, Sharon Race – a master’s student at AUT who has worked tirelessly to ensure this conference was a success. Thanks Shazz, you’re awesome!

Mark Orams

Conference Chair
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*Footprints Waipoua: Using interpretation to develop tourism opportunities for local communities.*  
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Preface

The NZTHRC, 2010 conference is the 9th New Zealand Tourism & Hospitality Research Conference, with the first held at Massey University, Palmerston North in 1994. The University of Otago (1996 and 2006) and Lincoln University (1998 and 2008) have each hosted the conference twice, and Victoria University of Wellington (2004) and Wairariki Polytechnic Institute (2002) have hosted once each. AUT University first hosted the NZTHRC in 2000 and is proud to host the conference for a second time. The NZTHRC, 2010 conference is a joint effort and a partnership between the School of Hospitality and Tourism and the New Zealand Tourism Research Institute at AUT University.

The NZTHRC has been and will continue to be dependent on the willingness of institutions and, in particular, individuals within those institutions to organise, promote and host the event. The conference is not ‘owned’ by any organisation, rather it continues by an informal arrangement and commitment to rotate (in turn) around tertiary education institutions that have significant tourism and hospitality higher education and research activities.

For this year’s conference, our local organising committee made an early decision around the philosophy we wished to use. We felt that one of the most important contributions this conference could make is to provide an opportunity and a forum for post-graduate research students and early career researchers to receive constructive feedback on their research and to offer a supportive environment at which to present their research (including their ideas, planning and initial results). As a result of this approach we provided a heavily subsidised registration fee for students (including part-time students) and offered a working paper stream whereby works in progress and research exploration, pilot studies and initial findings could be reviewed and presented. We are extremely pleased with the uptake of this opportunity and feel that our decision to support students and early career researchers (of whom there are many in our fields) was a worthy one.

In keeping with the philosophy of supporting post-graduate students and early career researchers we decided to follow the Kiwi tradition of dispensing with titles and qualifications when referring to authors/presenters and all involved in the conference. As a consequence you will not see such designations in the conference proceedings and similarly, we used an informal first name approach throughout the conference itself. Through this we hoped that the atmosphere was less intimidating and, indeed, supportive of those who are beginning their journeys as researchers.

We also made a decision to promote a better link between research, academia and the tourism and hospitality industries. As a consequence, we adopted the theme for the conference of “adding value through research”. We deliberately invited three keynote speakers who have strong credentials and background in industry and with a good understanding of the importance of research for successful practice in tourism and hospitality. Kevin Bowler, Chief Executive of Tourism New Zealand; Alison Morrison, Professor of Hospitality at the University of Surrey, UK; Norm Thompson, Deputy Chief Executive of Air New Zealand and Chair of the Tourism Industry Association of New Zealand. We thank them sincerely for their willingness to contribute to the conference.
The NZTHRC, 2010 committee is pleased to have received over 100 papers, each independently reviewed. Delegates attending the conference come from a diverse range of countries including: Australia, Austria, Bangladesh, Cameroon, China, Denmark, Finland, Malaysia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Philippines, Slovakia, South Korea, Sweden, Taiwan, UK, and the USA.

This proceedings publication shows the diverse range of research activities undertaken in the hospitality and tourism fields. Papers submitted for this conference were considered and reviewed under three categories. First, full papers; they are approximately 5,000 word representations of a completed research project or study. Each was independently and anonymously refereed and, depending on the outcome of these reviews, conditionally accepted-revised-accepted, changed to a working paper or rejected. Second, working papers; these papers represent research planned, underway or the initial results of research completed. The working papers were submitted as 250 word abstracts and these were reviewed by our conference Academic Review Committee. Depending on the outcome of this review, the abstract was accepted, amended and consequently accepted, or rejected. Authors then had the opportunity to submit an extended abstract (up to approximately 1,500 words) of this working paper if they wished. Extended abstracts were also reviewed by our conference Academic Review Committee and amended if necessary before acceptance.

Finally, we recognised that the process of academic review and the nomenclature of full papers, working papers and abstracts are foreign to many within industry and we wanted to ensure we provided an opportunity for those within industry to present to the conference. As a consequence, we provided a ‘presentation only’ option. This option required potential presenters to submit a 250 word summary of their presentation to the conference. This summary was reviewed by the conference Academic Review Committee and then accepted, accepted with revisions required or rejected.

We have, therefore, adopted a robust and thorough review process for the papers submitted for the conference. We think this quality control process is reflected in the calibre of papers presented and which are published here in these conference proceedings. We thank the many reviewers who provided constructive feedback on the papers, abstracts and summaries submitted. We hope that those who submitted their work for consideration have found these reviews helpful in improving their work.

Mark Orams, Michael Lück, Jill Poulston and Sharon Race

Editors of the Conference Proceedings
Theme: Accommodation

Managers’ perspectives on the implementation of environmental management systems in New Zealand hotels.
(Full paper).
Burzis Ustad, Hilton Hotel Auckland, Claire Liu and Warren Goodsir, AUT University, NZ.

The search for intimacy: The demand for Taiwanese ‘love boutique motels’.
(Full paper).
Janet Chang, Chinese Culture University, Taiwan, Chris Ryan, University of Waikato, Cheng-Tsang Tsai, National Taiwan Normal University and Hsuan-Ying Wen, Cathay Life Insurance, Taiwan.

What were they looking for? Understanding commercial accommodation attribute preferences among international young leisure travellers.
(Working paper abstract).
Nadiah Anuar, Anthony Brien and Joanna Fountain, Lincoln University, NZ.
THE MANAGER’S PERSPECTIVES ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS (EMS) IN NEW ZEALAND HOTELS

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THE MANAGER’S PERSPECTIVES ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS (EMS) IN NEW ZEALAND HOTELS

ABSTRACT

Hotel businesses consume significant amounts of natural resources, expel large amounts of raw and solid waste and affect the sustainability of the natural environment in which they are developed and operate. To reduce the negative impact on the environment, much of the hotel sector worldwide has embarked on a course of implementing environmental management practices, often through the use formal environmental management systems (EMS). Despite the growing interest in examining the importance of EMS and reasons for adopting EMS, the environmental efforts of the New Zealand hotel industry are rarely investigated. The purpose of this paper is to present the findings from a quantitative survey conducted in the New Zealand hotel sector. Ninety-four managers from 36 hotels within New Zealand participated in the research in 2009. The study aimed to identify the managers’ awareness of EMS and sustainable programmes that have been implemented in New Zealand hotels. It also explored the hotel managers’ perceptions of the benefits and barriers associated with the adoption and implementation of EMS. The findings of this study reveal that hotels in New Zealand showed greater involvement in energy, water and waste management practices than hotels examined by previous researchers in different geographical areas. It was noted that New Zealand hotel managers have a limited understanding of the term EMS and that EMS is not currently being widely used as a management tool, but rather as a framework for implementing environmental management practices. This paper provides some of the first practical evidence about New Zealand hotel managers’ perceptions of EMS implementation. Implications of the findings are discussed while recommendations concerning the implementation of EMS in the hotel sector are made.

Keywords: EMS, quality management, Qualmark, ISO 9000, New Zealand hotels

INTRODUCTION

The development and future success of the hotel industry depends on the availability of natural resources required. Hotels consume significant amounts of energy and water resources while also generating large amounts of waste (Bohdanwicz, 2005). The New Zealand (NZ) tourism industry is considered to be the second largest major contributor to NZ’s overall economy. It was estimated that the tourism industry directly contributes three point eight percent of total annual gross domestic product (GDP). Furthermore, it is reported that the tourism industry provides a significant share (18.2%) of export earnings and is an important source of foreign exchange earnings to the NZ economy (Bascand, 2010). The tourism industry comprises of highly integrated sectors including airline, accommodation, tour operators and travel agents (Pansiri, 2008). The 2008 Lonely Planet traveller’s pulse survey found that NZ ranked fifth as the most popular traveller’s destination in the world (New Zealand Herald, 2010). To meet tourist and business demand the NZ commercial accommodation sector consists of over 3,852 establishments including hotels, motels and backpackers (Ministry of Tourism, 2010).
Furthermore, the sustained success of the tourism industry is largely dependent on the tourism sub-sectors operating in harmony with the natural environment (Page & Thorn, 1997). Research which focused predominantly on the driving forces, costs and benefits of environment management systems (EMS) began in the late 1990s. The hotel industry has also been showing increasing concern and commitment towards sustainable tourism by adopting various tools which include codes of conduct, EMS, best environmental practices, and eco-labels (Ayuso, 2006). Considerable research has been undertaken in the hotel industry globally to examine the types of EMS and certification schemes, the reasons for the adoption of EMS standards and initiatives, and factors influencing the implementation of environmental management. However, to date, there has been no significant exploration of the adoption of EMS in the NZ tourism industry. Given the growing interests in sustainable environmental management, it is therefore considered useful to examine the current state of environmental management and the challenges encountered when implementing EMS in the NZ hotel industry.

A quantitative study involving general managers, owner managers and departmental managers was conducted in NZ in 2009. The research adopted a similar approach to previous research, using a questionnaire survey as the main research instrument (e.g. Kirk, 1998; Mensah, 2006; 2007; Chan & Wong, 2006). This study offers several benefits to the NZ hotel industry. First, it provides comprehensive data on environmental management in the hotel sector. Second, it provides a greater understanding of environmental management systems in use in NZ, as well as information on the level of awareness of EMS amongst hotel managers. Third, the study provides information on what motivates hotel managers to adopt and implement EMS, as well as the factors which facilitate and constrain the process of EMS implementation. This paper outlines the literature pertinent to the development of environmental management systems and environmental management practices in the hotel industry. It also describes the methods of data collection and analysis and presents the findings of this exploratory research conducted through a quantitative survey in NZ.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Two significant environmental management programmes during the 1990s included the development of the International Hotel Environmental Initiatives (IHEI) and Agenda 21. These programmes further led to the development of voluntary systems such as environmental management systems and eco-labels (Kirk, 1998; Tzschentle, Kirk & Lynch, 2004). The literature to date also indicates that EMS is the most preferred voluntary system adopted by hotels all around the world. However, different definitions, although similar, have appeared for environmental management systems. One of the most accepted definitions of EMS describes it as “a framework for implementing environmental management into an organisation’s activities, products and services” (Meade & Pringle, 2001, p. 149). Furthermore, it is also referred to as a problem solving tool that can be put into practice by the employees in many different ways to incorporate environmental management practices in an organisation’s activities (Lakshmi, 2002; Tinsley & Pillai, 2006;).

An EMS is a continual cycle which includes policymaking, planning, implementing, reviewing and improving the environmental performance of an organisation. In order to comply with the EMS cycle, hotels started complying with different certifiers who help organisations to verify
their environmental management systems. The most common certifiers that were adopted by hotels are ISO 14001 and Green Globe 21. These two EMS frameworks are those most accepted by hotels worldwide because they improve environmental performance and compliance with environmental legislation (Penny, 2007). It has been found that implementation of both frameworks among different accommodation sectors has rapidly increased worldwide. It has also been observed that many hotels have undertaken various green initiatives and have adopted environmental management systems (Mensah, 2006; Penny, 2007).

Previous studies reported that EMS is a reliable and workable tool that helps hotel organisations to achieve their environmental targets (Tinsley & Pillay, 2006; Lakshmi, 2002; Meade & Pringle, 2001; Park, 2009). Some researchers further specified that the implementation of EMS can bring benefits to a company not only in financial terms but also by improving the company’s image with the general public and other stakeholders (Kirk, 1995; Kirk, 1998; Mensah, 2006). Research undertaken by Chan and Wong (2006) and Ann, Zailani and Wahid (2006) also found that many hotels initiated green measures because of financial considerations, while some others were motivated more by government regulations than concern for guests. It is further observed from past studies that some hotels may adopt EMS purely to improve their environmental performance, others may utilise EMS to gain marketing advantage, and some want the benefit of an improved public image (Kirk, 1995; Rivera, 2002). Thus, the motives of the hotels that implement EMS are still not clear.

Despite the potential benefits for adopting EMS, some research has identified barriers to the implementation of EMS (Hillary, 2000; Chan, 2008). For example, Chan (2008) stated that barriers can be divided into two broad categories: internal (organisational) or external (industrial). The review of literature also indicated that hotels are normally hindered by both internal and external barriers, but found that it is the internal barrier that plays the most significant role in impeding the progress. It is evident from past studies that implementation cost, lack of professional advice and lack of knowledge and skills were considered as the most important barriers impeding the adoption and implementation of EMS (Chan, 2008). However, there has been limited study undertaken on identifying the barriers to implementing EMS for the hotel industry.

The importance of EMS in the tourism industry has greatly increased in recent years. However, in contrast to the other sectors of tourism, hotels have been slow to adopt EMS in their daily operational activities. Research indicates that an EMS should not be limited to being a tool for preserving and conserving resources, but rather it should be viewed as a specific tool used to manage hotels’ environmental efforts to gain better overall results. It is a holistic framework that helps hotels integrates sound environmental management practices. Moreover, hotels that have developed environmental management systems to assist their environmental management efforts have shown improvements in operational activities, products and services (Meade & Pringle, 2001).

As EMS has matured in the hotel industry, standards and certification programmes have been developed resulting in a variety of EMS certification schemes available to the industry, among which ISO 14001 and Green Globe21 are the most common to be adopted (Lakshmi, 2002; Griffin & Delacey, 2002). Various studies have shown that the adoption and implementation of
certified environmental management systems have increased rapidly and have also helped hotel properties achieve environmental targets. For instance, Meade and Pringle (2001) studied five Caribbean hotels and examined their implementation of EMS. A similar study conducted by Lakshmi (2002) also indicated that hotels were more effective in their environmental efforts and were able to achieve better results when they implemented EMS.

While research has been undertaken on environmental management systems over the years (e.g. Meade & Pringle, 2001; Lakshmi, 2002; Tinsley & Pillay, 2006; Park, 2009), no comprehensive study has been undertaken in NZ to explore the adoption of EMS and the associated challenges encountered by the hotel industry. This study seeks to address this gap while also looking into the perceived motivations for EMS adoption and the benefits and barriers for EMS implementation from the hotel manager’s perspective.

METHODS

The main purpose of this research was to identify the current state of environmental management system (EMS) implementation in NZ hotels and to identify hotel managers’ understanding of the various factors affecting EMS adoption. The objectives of the research focused on determining NZ hotel managers’ awareness of EMS; identifying sustainable programmes that have been implemented in NZ hotels; and exploring hotel managers’ understanding of the benefits and barriers that associated with the adoption and implementation of EMS.

The research instrument used for this study was a self-administered questionnaire survey. There are 18 questions which were developed based on the research objectives and were pilot tested before distributing to the final participants. The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section included five questions that aimed at identifying the characteristics of the hotel at which the responding managers worked, the number of employees, the hotel’s ownership and the respondent’s position in the hotel. The second section of the questionnaire addressed whether the hotel currently had an environmental policy and also asked the managers to highlight the activities that were included in their written environmental policy. The remaining questions concentrated on whether hotel managers were familiar with the concept of EMS and asked them to explain their understanding of EMS. Respondents were also asked if EMS has been implemented in their operations and what certifications their hotel held. Finally, respondents were asked to indicate the various eco-friendly practices that were used in their hotel and were allowed to tick more than one option for some categorical questions. The third section of the questionnaire concentrated on manager’s perspectives by asking questions about reasons to implement EMS, their perceptions of the benefits of and barriers to adopting EMS and their understanding of the current state of environmental management practices in their hotels.

This study targeted a population which was spread throughout NZ. Questionnaires were distributed via post as this helps to increase the response rate in some instances, compared with the likely rate for electronic or telephone surveys (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). In order to achieve the research objectives, the sample included general managers, owner managers and departmental managers. Including departmental managers was seen as important as they contribute to the senior decision making within hotels and are also responsible for actual implementation of the EMS in their departments. Furthermore, this addressed a gap in the
previous research (such as Kirk, 1998; Deng & Ryan, 1992; Sloan, LeGrand & Chen, 2004) which focused only on general managers.

The sample population for this research covered hotels of New Zealand selected from the current Qualmark membership listing which was used as a sampling frame. This decision was made based on the fact that the listing comprised a total of 183 hotels spread throughout NZ and also provided further hotel categorisation from two to five star rating. The Qualmark hotel list also provided the necessary contact details including postal addresses, e-mail addresses, direct telephone numbers and web page links. Ethical approval was obtained from the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) prior to the data collection to ensure the confidentiality and privacy of the participants. The participants were initially sent an e-mail and then contacted by telephone to obtain their consent to take part in this research. In total 141 managers from 41 hotels agreed to participate. All participants were sent postal questionnaires, together with participant information sheets and pre-paid return envelopes. From the 141 questionnaires sent to hotel managers, 94 were completed leading to a 67% response rate. The process of distribution and collection of questionnaires took four weeks during September to October, 2009.

In order to enhance the response rate, two environmental kits were offered as an incentive. Participants were entered into a draw and once all the questionnaires were received, two participants were randomly selected to receive the kits. Each kit included items that were environmentally friendly, including body products that were endorsed as being made from recycled materials.

The research used a quantitative approach and aimed to achieve the set research objectives through descriptive statistical analysis which included calculation of frequencies and percentage of all constructs and independent items. The collected data were presented in tables, charts and graphs to show the distribution patterns that emerged after applying statistical tests. The advantage of running frequency and percentage distribution was that it helped build the profile of respondents which was later useful to describe the sample in reporting the results (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). Qualitative information collected from open-ended questions was used to enhance the interpretation of the research results.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

*Participant characteristics*

The results indicated that most hotels in NZ are fairly new properties. Out of the 36 hotels that replied, 11 (31%) had been operating for less than five years, while there were 10 hotels (28%) that had been operational for six-ten years. Only a small numbers of hotels (17%) had operated for 11–15 years and nine (15%) had been operating for more than 16 years. The majority of respondents were departmental managers (72%), followed by general managers (23%) while only four percent were owner managers. As part of the data analysis, departmental managers were further classified into specific categories including operations manager, business development manager, technical service manager, chief concierge, sales/marketing manager,
executive chef, executive housekeeper, food and beverage manager, front office manager, finance manager, human resource manager, purchasing manager and reservation manager.

Seventy-six percent (76%) of the participants indicated that their hotel was part of an international chain or group. Fifteen percent (15%) of the hotels were locally owned and operated properties. A small number of the participants (6%) stated that their hotel was part of locally operated chain or group, whereas foreign owned and operated hotels that were not part of a larger chain comprised only three percent of the total of 94 responses. More than half (62%) of the properties represented a mid-range (three star hotels) category, while 27% of the hotels belonged to luxury category and only nine percent were budget hotels. Only a small number of respondents described their property as four-star plus, as rated by the New Zealand Qualmark quality accreditation programme.

Hotel managers’ awareness and understanding of EMS

Ninety-six percent (96%) of managers surveyed indicated that they were aware of having an environmental policy in their hotel and only a small number of participants (4%) were unaware of having an environmental policy in their hotel. Among the 36 hotels that participated in the research, 35 (97%) had an environmental policy in place (only one hotel did not have an environmental policy). The results show a range of different activities which were covered by the hotels’ environmental policies. The majority of the hotels which responded had included environmental management practices such as efficient use of energy (94%), recycling of waste (93%), minimisation of waste (86%), and support for the local community (80%) in their environmental policy. Less than one third of the hotel managers (28%) indicated that control of air emission was included in their hotel’s environmental policy.

The respondents were asked to indicate their familiarity with the term ‘EMS’. Results show that over half the respondents (57%) were familiar with the term ‘environmental management system’ but 41% of them responded that they had no idea about it. Two percent (2%) of hotel managers did not respond to this question. The respondents who were familiar with the term EMS also provided detailed explanations of their understanding of EMS. These answers were grouped into four different categories based on the pattern of the responses. The first category includes responses that showed a clear understanding of the term EMS. The responses under this category (35%) described the concept of EMS as a system to improve operational efficiency and provide guidelines for best business practices. The second category highlights those responses that show a basic understanding of the term EMS. The responses under this category (26%) showed their understanding of EMS as a specific operational tool. The third category highlights responses that showed little knowledge or understanding of EMS as a concept. The responses under this category (18%) considered internal environmental management measurement as part of EMS. The last category of responses is labelled as ‘in-depth understanding’ in which the respondents considered EMS to be a tool for measuring environmental performance (21%). It can be concluded from the study that the majority of the respondents showed more than a basic understanding of the EMS concept.
EMS practices in New Zealand hotels

The questionnaire asked the managers whether they had implemented EMS in their hotels. The results show that more than half of the respondents (55%) had implemented EMS. However, a small number of hotels (17%) surveyed did not have EMS in place to monitor their environmental practices yet. The respondents were asked to specify the type of certification that their hotel holds. The analysis shows that the majority of the hotels (81%) surveyed were certified as Qualmark Green for their environmental practices. Meanwhile, results also show that 36 percent of the hotels were Green Globe 21 certified, while there were a small number of hotels (6%) that were ISO14001 certified (see Figure 1).

The results also show that there were hotels certified with more than one certification and thus the data were further analysed to show the total number of EMS certifications that were held by each hotel. It was found that 44 percent of the hotels surveyed hold only one certification. However, 31 percent of the hotels were certified with two types of certifications and a further eight percent of hotels were observed to have three environmental certifications in place. The results also reveal that 17 percent of hotels did not hold any environmental management certification. The hotel managers were asked to indicate eco-friendly practices that they had implemented in their hotel. The most popular eco-friendly practices were: recycling of glass, plastic bottles and cans (99%), use of energy saving bulbs (98%), reuse of towels (87%), reuse of paper (83%), reuse of bed sheet linen (79%), minimisation of food waste (79%), use of low flow shower heads (73%) and use of low flush toilet (64%). The results indicate that energy saving and water management programmes were considered as the second most important activity after recycling programmes in NZ hotels. These activities helped the hotels to reduce their overhead cost and also helped to conserve resources.

Figure 1: The distribution of hotels surveyed that hold EMS certifications
Motivations for EMS adoption and implementation

Respondents were asked to indicate more than one reason that would have encouraged them to implement EMS. As shown in Figure 2, the majority of hotel managers (69%) thought that conserving natural resources was the most important reason for them to implement EMS in hotel operations. It was further observed that 63 percent of hotel managers considered that the adoption and implementation of EMS would bring potential cost saving benefits for the organisation and thus it was the second most important reason among managers in the surveyed hotels to implement EMS. Over one third of the hotel managers (35%) had implemented EMS in their hotel because they felt the need to keep up with competitors, while 29 percent of managers indicated that pressure and demand from guests was also one of the reasons for the hotel to adopt and implement EMS in their hotel operations. Twenty percent (20%) of hotel managers indicated that compliance with government regulations was one of the reasons they had to implement EMS. The results show that 19 percent of the hotel managers agreed that pressure from stakeholders was not the main reason that would lead to implementation of EMS and only 13 percent of hotel managers believed that pressure and demand from employees was a reason to implement EMS.

Figure 2: Reasons for EMS implementation

Perceived benefits of EMS implementation

The majority of the respondents (96%) strongly agreed or agreed that a benefit of EMS is the improved public image in the market. A small number of respondents (4%) did not have any idea whether EMS would bring a good public image for the hotel. Ninety-one percent (91%) of the managers surveyed also strongly agreed or agreed that they were able to increase their marketing opportunities because of their proper commitment towards EMS practices. The results show the third perceived benefit was that EMS leads to cost saving opportunities. The analysis of results
reveals that out of 94 respondents, 89 percent strongly agreed or agreed that an EMS can provide cost saving opportunities for the organisation, and that they were able to increase their competitiveness with other hotels in the market, respectively. A significant number of respondents (88%) strongly agreed or agreed that an EMS can improve the financial performance of the organisation. Of the six factors that were listed as benefits from implementing EMS, government incentives were the least meaningful to participants. Almost 70 percent of hotel managers surveyed indicated that it was the least expected benefit.

The results further reveal that hotels in NZ did not consider government regulations as one of the important reasons for implementing EMS. This finding contrasts with studies conducted in Costa Rica in 2002 and Malaysia in 2006 (Rivera, 2002; Ann, Zailani & Wahid, 2006), as in both cases hotels were encouraged to implement EMS because of government grants.

**Perceived barriers to EMS implementation**

The results show that 70 percent of the managers strongly agreed or agreed that the high implementation costs act as a significant barrier for organisations in establishing EMS. At the same time, 14 percent of the managers did not see the implementation cost as a barrier for the organisation and 15 percent had no idea whether high implementation could be a barrier. More than half of the managers (51%) strongly agreed or agreed that lack of technology in the hotel was a barrier for the implementation of EMS in hotel operations. However, 33 percent of managers strongly disagreed or disagreed to the same proposition. Less than one third of the respondents (27%) strongly agreed or agreed that there are no potential benefits from adopting EMS. However, over half of the participants (52%) believed that there are potential benefits from implementing an EMS practice. The result also shows that 21 percent of the managers were unsure about whether EMS was necessary.

Less than half of the managers (47%) found that the process of EMS was time consuming and required additional time and effort to maintain control of and keep records of the process. This finding was similar to that in previous research which noted that EMS is an on-going process, requiring continual management support to ensure its effectiveness (Chan & Ho, 2006). Thirty-nine percent of participants found it difficult to understand the concept of EMS and felt that EMS is too complicated and that lack of knowledge has prevented them from adopting EMS in the organisation. Thirty-nine percent of the participants also claimed that EMS requires a lot of paperwork during and after the process of implementation. Some participants (38%) considered the renewal cost of certification too high. Although 40 percent of the hotel managers surveyed disagreed with the statement that human resource constraints can be a barrier preventing the implementation of an EMS, 35 percent believed that a lack of human resources was a problem. Looking at the overall responses, the most important barriers according to the majority of the respondents are excessive implementation cost, lack of technology, the time consuming process, and infrastructure change that is difficult, excessive paper work, lack of knowledge and high cost of certification renewal. Lack of human resources and no potential benefit were not seen as significant barriers by the majority of respondents.
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study adopted a descriptive survey approach to investigate the current state of environmental management in NZ hotels. To date there has been limited research directed towards environmental management practices in NZ hotels and none that had sought to investigate the factors that act as benefits and barriers for NZ hotel managers in implementing EMS. This study provides some interesting results which can be explored further to gain a better understanding of current practice and perceptions of hotel managers about EMS implementation.

Hotels that participated in this study showed a greater involvement in energy management, water conservation and waste management practices than hotels examined by previous research in different geographical areas (e.g. Ayuso, 2006; Chan & Wong, 2006; Kirk, 1998; Mensah, 2006). However, a return on investment is a major concern for hotel managers who are considering investing in ‘green’ programmes for their property.

This research demonstrates that under current economic conditions, as a way of reducing operating cost and increasing efficiency, energy, water and resource conservation practices are receiving more attention from hoteliers. An objective of this research was to identify the eco-friendly practices that are currently performed by NZ hotels. The study found that recycling and waste management programmes were fundamental aspects of a hotel’s environmental management programme. It was also found that hotel businesses have been taking environmental steps to maintain New Zealand’s clean and green image as well as their reputations as environmentally friendly organisations.

The results show that NZ hotel managers that participated in this study were aware of EMS as a concept. However, while some respondents were very well informed about EMS, others had a limited level of understanding. Additionally, some participants were very enthusiastic about EMS and others were unsure about the benefits. It is further suggested that in order to achieve meaningful improvement, hotel managers must obtain adequate knowledge and develop appropriate understanding for the effective implementation of environmental management systems.

In terms of EMS certification, NZ hotels in this study showed a strong commitment to national programmes, however, there was less interest in adopting internationally recognised EMS certification programmes such as ISO 14001 and Green Globe 21. This finding was not surprising since the majority of the hotels surveyed are Qualmark certified. Therefore, it may be desirable for NZ hotels to intensify their efforts towards adopting more formal EMS certification programmes. It is further recommended that such efforts will help organisations to develop effective training programmes for staff and guests, establish job responsibilities and help monitor environmental activities. This is because the certification programme provides a useful framework for developing in-house policies, procedures and programmes.

NZ hotel managers were aware of the possible benefits associated with implementing environmental management systems and were willing to make changes to accommodate the environmental programmes. Barriers to EMS implementation cited by the NZ managers were consistent with those identified in the literature. In addition, the participants identified high costs
of implementation, high costs of certification renewal and the time-consuming processes as challenges for EMS implementation.

This study has several limitations. Firstly, the study utilised the Qualmark membership directory as a sampling frame. By virtue of their membership in Qualmark, there is a possibility that the hotel may have already adopted some form of environmental practices or acquired some sort of certification for their environmental efforts. As a result, the sample may not have included organisations that are not interested in environmental initiatives and this might have restricted the ability to generalise the findings of this study to the NZ hotel industry as a whole. Secondly, this study involved relatively large numbers of international chain hotels and there was a limited participation from small independent hotels. This also affects the representativeness of the findings. Furthermore, this study was purely descriptive and did not include statistical testing such as correlation analysis among different variables due to the exploratory nature of the research project. This limitation has made it difficult to explain the research results in a more comparative manner.

The survey undertaken among NZ hoteliers casts some light on the perceptions about environmental issues within the NZ hotel sector and on factors affecting the implementation of EMS. The hoteliers that participated in this study recognised that their facilities influence the natural surroundings, although the magnitude of the impact was often underestimated. The findings contribute new knowledge about the current state of environmental management awareness in the NZ hotel industry and should be viewed as a preliminary step to understanding the approach of NZ hotels towards environmental issues and factors affecting the implementation of EMS. Questions raised by the findings, recognition of the limitations of the current study, coupled with the background provided by the literature reviews should provide useful directions for further research on this important topic.

REFERENCES


THE SEARCH FOR INTIMACY: THE DEMAND FOR TAIWANESE ‘LOVE BOUTIQUE MOTELS’

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ABSTRACT

In Taiwan many families live in small homes that may be inter-generational. Within such homes an additional feature may be relatively poor sound proofing between rooms. These factors may inhibit sexual relations between couples while younger people may feel a sense of embarrassment or otherwise be inhibited if wishing to have sex with partners within their parents’ home. One means by which such people are able to enjoy sexual relations is to go to what the Taiwanese term ‘love motels’. Derived from Japanese ラブホテル (rabu hoteru) these may be rented by the hour and do not require an over-night stay. There is a legal implication, for in Taiwan any stay in commercial accommodation over-night requires the need to show ‘ID’ papers. However, stays that do not require overnight accommodation are not subject to this law. Consequently ‘love motels’ are also used for extra-marital affairs or casual encounters. The commercial gain is that an operator may be able to rent a room several times a day. Many of the motels are furnished to a high standard. The research presented in this paper is based upon theories of leisure constraints and a sample of 877 respondents of whom 395 were female and 482 male. Of these 84 were married and 134 lived alone – the majority (53 percent) being between 18 and 25 years of age. A five point scale was used where 5 represented the highest degree of agreement and leading reasons for use of a love motel include wanting to avoid ‘uncomfortable’ places for sex.

Keywords: Hospitality, sex, motels, Taiwan

INTRODUCTION

This paper studies the motives of those staying at ‘love motels’ in Taipei, Taiwan. For the most part, as illustrated in Figures 1 to 3, these motels offer a high degree of furnishings and luxury in quiet areas, and it is possible to reserve the use of these rooms for a few hours. This has a legal implication in Taiwanese law as it means that since an overnight stay is not involved, there is no need to show an identity card upon registration. In many countries high levels of usage of motels/hotels on an hourly rental basis is construed as involving prostitution. However, this is in many instances is not the case in Taiwan, for the reasons described below. The paper is structured as follows: (a) there is initially a description of Taiwanese love motels as part of a wider Asian phenomenon, (b) a review of literature centred on the concepts of constraints on given sets of behaviour, (c) a description of the research undertaken, (d) the results of that research and finally (e) a summary, discussion and conclusion.

The concept of the love motel seemingly was initiated in Japan, and is to be distinguished from a brothel (Caballero & Tsukamoto, 2006; Chaplin, 2007; Alexander, Chen, MacClaren & O’Gorman, 2010). Their origins lie in the Edo Period (1600-1868) based on tea houses where accommodation and tea was served to couples before leaving them in private. Historically prostitution was associated with such tea houses, and this became even more so in their early twentieth century successors, the maichiai that provided minimal services (primarily just a room and a tatami mat, and the sobaya that were rooms in noodle houses that could be rented by the hour (Chaplin, 2007; Alexander et al., 2010). Caballero and Tsukamoto (2006) describe how, in
the period until the Second World War, Japanese couples would engage in love making in parks and bath houses, but from the 1930s the immediate predecessor of the modern love motel appeared, known as the enshuku that were better furnished rooms that could be rented by the hour for one yen, and which were commonly used by couples. By the 1960s the modern love motel became part of the Japanese landscape (West, 2002; 2006), and today it is estimated that the sector has a turnover of 4 trillion yen and 500 million annual visits (Chaplin, 2007).

In Taiwan Alexander et al (2010) argue that love motels have progressed through a four stage evolution. Initially, in the 1960s, Taiwan adopted the U.S. pattern of motels as offering rooms without restaurant facilities at motorway junctions and outside cities. Indeed some motels on the motorway continue to be in business and ‘love petrol stations’ can be found and are known as locations where businessmen may take their mistresses, being perhaps only about 30 to 45 minutes from the downtown office areas. Historically these motels were used by couples by reason of the privacy they offered. In the 1990s the more luxurious motels emerged, often themed and often incorporating spa baths and pools, and built on two storeys with the ground floor being a garage (complete with door to avoid number plates being seen) that provided access to the upper floor. By the end of the twentieth century with the introduction of five day working weeks, recreational use of these motels increased and in the last decade and a liberalisation of attitudes toward sexual matters, the love motels not only advertise, but competition has increased, meaning that often operators compete on both price and facilities including offering more themed rooms. Indeed, the standards are often comparable to five star hotels, but at cheaper prices as shown in Figures 1to 4.

Another feature of developments in the last decade has been the provision of rooms with more overt sexual overtones. Should a couple wish, the themed rooms may have bondage or other titillating themes. Sex toys are made available as are pornographic movies. On the other hand there are also family rooms where couples with young children may rent a large unit that provides the couple with privacy while the children have a play area, also possibly with a theme. Such units are often rented overnight to families so that the parents can enjoy being with each other while the children may be sleeping in their own themed room.

In addition to the greater acceptance of the love motel has been the fact that prices are being now eroded by greater competition. At one sample love motel a range of five offers existed ranging from NT$1660 to NT$4760 dependent on the size of unit, numbers of coupons and offer selection chosen.

Therefore, the reasons for the patronage of love motels by a couples market are thought to be explained by a number of factors that include:

a) For many Taiwanese their homes and apartments are, by western standards, quite small and are often in multi-generational occupation. In addition, standards of sound proofing may not always be of the highest between rooms in a given apartment or house. This means that many may feel embarrassed by having sexual intercourse where they may be overheard by parents or children. Love motels thus offer not only comfort but privacy;

b) For students and teenagers, questions of pre-marital sex may arise, and thus having access to low cost privacy and comfort offered by the love motel offers convenience;
c) The past societal restrictions on having sex outside of marital relationships have, as in many societies, become more relaxed, and this combined with more leisure time and higher discretionary income, has also enabled love motels to be at least silently condoned by Taiwanese society. Historically Chinese standards of sexuality have differed from those in the west through a system of concubinage, but economic growth has provided more sexual opportunities to more people than in the past.

d) In spite of a growing tolerance of different sexual desires, Taiwanese society generally does not accept public displays of intimacy between couples, although this is being slowly challenged by a younger generation with more access to an international media. Love motels thus offer, apart from the act of love making, opportunities for couples to be privately intimate with each other – and in a sense are stages for an individualism contrary to the norms of collectivity that are often thought to characterise Asian cultures (Hofstede, 1980; 1983; 1991).

From an economic perspective, the operational costs of Taiwanese love motels are beginning to change. Originally, as described above, construction costs were minimised by building on green field sites, and hence another factor that made possible the emergence of the modern love motel was a growing ownership of motor cars that commenced in the 1960s. However, increasing land costs, competition and the need to provide better facilities while not increasing prices implies a potential squeeze on profitability. In addition the costs of servicing a room are higher than those of a conventional hotel or motel when the room may be let between four to six or more times a day. The proprietor-manager of one love motel noted that the total investment in 56 units, that had been built in two stages (the first of 40 units the second of 16) had cost in total NT$200 million. Of these, half had been raised through family funds and the remainder through commercial bank loans. In 2008 he was able to obtain an average of five lettings a day, but by 2010 this was down to three because of increased competition. He was still considering a third small extension, but the only reason why it might prove commercially viable was because he already owned the land.

THE RESEARCH

Literature review

Given the relativity scarcity of literature on love motels, it was thought that concepts derived from modelling constraints on leisure might be appropriate. There is obviously a significant literature on hotel patronage, but much of that is associated with the demand for overnight stays and travel away from home. Hence, while it is obvious that demand for and success of love motel operations are dependent upon factors such as comfort, cleanliness and service – the nature of room provision and service required of love motels possesses features not required by a normal hotel four to six times a day per room.

Certainly issues related to leisure constraints have been widely discussed. Leisure constraints are often linked with leisure preferences and leisure participation (Jackson, 1991). Crawford and Godbey (1987) believed that leisure constraints occur in situations in which one is not able to participate in a leisure activity due to the lack of privacy or hindrance by other factors. Jackson (1988) indicated that leisure constraints are any hindering factors that intervene between leisure preferences and participation i.e. leisure constraints cause people to stop or discontinue
participation. Furthermore, reduction in leisure participation can also result from leisure constraints. There are thought to be three types of constraints: 1) intrapersonal, 2) interpersonal and 3) structural (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). The first refers to any personal factors that prohibit an individual from attending leisure activities such as lacking capabilities or interests, or suffering from pressure. The second results from interactive factors such as lack of companionship or the company is not in the mood to engage in the same leisure activities. This type of constraints is, as Yeh, Ryan and Liu (2009) indicated, also referred to as social constraints e.g. intra-family disapproval. The last constraint applies to other hindering factors such as the lack of time, space and money, or laws governing morality.

A paradox of modern Taiwanese society is that legislation is being introduced to reduce the formal working week, as elsewhere, for many professional people that time is eroded by growing work pressures. In part those pressures may emanate from an ever increasing linkage of countries as components with a 24 hour daily global economy, but additionally it is suggested that pressures also mount from needs to adhere to higher standards of corporate social responsibility, good human resource management, environmental practices and needs to monitor performance across other than just business transactions. These pressures of work and social position add to the restraints imposed by some inhibiting factors at home, such as limited space, the presence of others and poor soundproofing. People thus negotiate constraints on participation in intimate leisure activities by changing the venue of those activities (Jackson, 1991; Crawford & Godbey, 1993; Jackson, 1997; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Hudson, 2000).

Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, (1991) stated that social class has an important influence on leisure participation. For instance, the higher the income or educational background of respondents possess, the fewer leisure constraints, both internal- and intra-personal, they are likely to encounter (Crawford et al., 1991). On the other hand, as noted above, professional people may experience more intrusions on their home life, while also the boundaries between work and non-work lives become increasingly fuzzy and porous (Ryan, 2003). Consequently a concern about life-balance emerges whereby the higher income, professional groups feel stress at work, but equally are not subject to the same income or impositions that arise from structured work times that are imposed on lower skilled and income groups. Hence the professional groups have a push motivation to patronise a love motel, and simultaneously have easier access from the dimensions of time and money.

Jackson (2000) further stressed that among various demographic variables, the age effect on leisure constraints is particularly strong: younger people often feel the non-intrapersonal constraints resulting from lacking of companishionships or cost, while older people tend to feel the limitations of structural constraints such as time and working environments, or an intra-personal constraint such as family responsibilities (Jackson, 2000). Furthermore, females have stronger responses toward the intra-personal constraints than males (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Henderson, 1991; Henderson, Bedini, Hecht & Schuler, 1995; Hudson, 2000; Little, 2002; Raymore & Godbey, 1994; Shaw, 1994; Shaw, Kleiber, & Caldwell, 1995).

With specific reference to the Taiwanese motel sector Hsieh and Hwang (2004) segmented Taiwan motel users into various groups and noticed that the most important groups were named as ‘excitement and adventure-seekers’ and the ‘free-style younger generation’: they were aged from 20-29 years old, dominated by singles, and were likely to be short-time rather than overnighters. After the data had been collected in 2009 the findings of Alexander et al. (2010)
from their focus groups relating to Taiwanese love motels was published. Their work supports the broad societal trends outlined above, but they also note that while love motels have a generally positive image, there remain some concerns because of media reports about drug usage, and illicit affairs. Certainly the Taiwanese press has its own parrapazi and occasionally popular media carry stories about newsworthy people patronising the love motels. Basing their analysis on the notion of ‘experience economy’ (Pine Jr., & Gilmore, 1999) Alexander et al. (2010) report that in many instances the motels exceeded the expectations of the group with reference to the quality of rooms, service provided (meals can be prepared for patrons) and privacy granted. Additionally they note that their informants still expressed the view that they would be reluctant to discuss love motels with their friends in spite of the fact their own experiences had put to rest many of their own concerns. Consequently they conclude that “the success of this product lies in the facilitation of a taboo activity in Asian culture” (Alexander et al. 2010, p.205). They continue ”Rather than catering for seedy peccadilloes, or even the darkest innermost desires, love motels can also be seen to provide a genuinely escapist activity” (Pine & Gilmore, 2000; Williams, 2006) which successfully transcends authentic experience (which at the sexual level it probably is) into a truly fantastic experience; one which allows couples to enter into and explore their fantasies (Alexander et al., 2010).

Thus, it is reasonable to assume that significant differences in leisure constraints exist among love motel users in association with personal attributes and consumption patterns. As such, the research hypotheses were developed as follows:

H1: Significant differences in intra-personal constraints exist in association with users’ personal attributes and consumption characteristics.

H2: Significant differences in inter-personal constraints exist in association with users’ personal attributes and consumption characteristics.

H3: Significant differences of structural leisure constraints exist in association with users’ personal attributes and consumption characteristics.

*Questionnaire Construction*

Conceptually, the basis of the questionnaire was based on the study of Raymore, Godbey, Crawford and Von Eye (1993) which examines perceived constraints to leisure arising from social factors such as the views of family, friends and work colleagues, a lack of time and income and degrees of adherence to social group norms of conformity. The rationale for adopting this questionnaire was that it has been modified and re-applied in various leisure activities such as skiing and walking. Further to this, Walker (1999) described how patronage of varied theme motels has now become a ‘trendy’ leisure activity, something thought pertinent given the growing number of such motel rooms in the Taipei region. After informal interviews with love motel managers in Taipei and discussions with various tourism academics, out of the initial 21 questions, 13 items were added and 7 deleted. Consequently, 27 questions were included in the survey instrument. The Likert 5-point scale was used to elicit responses to statements: 5 for completely agree; 1 for completely disagree. With reference to background information, respondents’ gender, age, marital status, educational background, career, monthly income, and domicile situation were included. Information was sought on the following consumption characteristics of love motel users: the company, types and total amount of
expenditures, food and beverage consumption, transportation, and time and frequency of use. The back-translation method was adopted in an effort to attain data correctness and equivalence between English and Mandarin (Brislin, 1970; Sin, Cheung & Lee, 1999). Consequently the survey used in this study included three sections: the first posed questions about leisure constraints consumers perceived prior to their patronage of love motels; the second part sought information about consumption characteristics such as frequency of patronage and levels of expenditure and the third collected socio-demographic details.

Research Results

To obtain the data the questionnaires were left in the rooms of four different love motels in the Taipei region and informants self-selected as to whether to complete the questionnaire or not. For a study such as this where the nature of the target population is unknown, it was thought necessary that a large sample size was required to permit meaningful statistical analysis across demographic groups. The sample is a convenience sample given the nature of data collection, but the love motel managers confirmed that the socio-demographic profile was congruent with their expectations. The data were collected over a four month period. Consequently the total sample for this study comprised 482 males and 395 females. The great majority of these (793) stated that they were single, and 455 were under 25 years of age. The ages and marital status of the sample are shown in Table 1. A check was made on marital status by subsequently asking respondents to state with whom they lived, and 18 respondents were found who had stated they were single but who later indicated that they were married, but had no children. This does not itself indicate an intention to mislead as such respondents may be in the process of separation, but given that such a number represents only two percent of the total sample, it was decided to retain marital status as a variable for analysis. With reference to income levels 19.2 percent indicated they had income of below NT$20,000, and the great majority (541) indicated an annual income of NT$20,000 to NT$40,000 with the remainder of the sample earning above that figure. The annual per capita income of Taiwan is NT$477,188 in 2009 (DGBAS, 2010).

Table 1: Age and Marital Status of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Age Less than 25 years</th>
<th>26 - 35 years</th>
<th>36 years and older</th>
<th>Total Less than 25 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married with no children</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married with children</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>468</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>877</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As described above, the main component of the questionnaire comprised 27 items, and the mean scores and standard deviations are provided in Table 2. Probably the most notable aspect of the results is the low level of agreement with the items, with only four items obtaining scores above 3.0 (the ‘neither agree nor disagree’ option on the scale). Respondents tend not to be shy about sex, and generally disagree with the statement that ‘sex is not necessary’ – but given the locale of data collection this is probably a statement of the obvious! It is also obvious that people are tending not to select love motels because of family or peer group pressures on the acceptability
of their (sexual) partner. Similarly, generally, work concerns do not appear to be a motive for the patronage of the motel. However, while the scale tends towards expressions of disagreement it can be noted that the standard deviations tend to a value of one, indicating therefore a sub-sample that does express some agreement with the items, while there is a marginal overall tendency to agree with the statement that ‘Taking into account social norms and restrictions, I prefer to go to a love motel’ (mean = 3.30, sd = 1.35). Given this the next stage was to further analysis the data to better understand these differences.

With reference to data reliability the alpha coefficient was 0.82, and the split half reliabilities were in excess of 0.71. Testing for item to scale correlations indicated that deletion of an item still meant that the alpha coefficients tended to be in excess of 0.80, but the item to scale correlations varied from 0.3 to in excess of 0.6. However two items showed very low item to scale correlation (less than 0.1) and these were the items relating to one’s partner having enough money to permit visits to a love motel to enjoy oneself, and a willingness to wait for a love motel room to be available. Consequently the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic of sampling adequacy fell below the generally desired value of 0.8 being 0.71 (see Hair Jr, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). On the other hand the communality scores (that show the total variance within an individual ‘explained’ by principal components or factors) tended to be above 0.65 and all were above 0.5 – implying that the data were suitable for further analysis. Examination of the item to item correlations also showed this to be the case.

Table 2: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I chose the motel because I do not enjoy sex in uncomfortable places</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I could not have sex with my partner unless I knew him/her well</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking into account social norms and restrictions, I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if I have to wait (during the holidays) I still prefer to go to a well equipped love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I share living space with others I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My partner does not have much time with me, so we use love motels to enjoy ourselves</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I usually have sex at places acceptable to my friends such as a love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of poor sound proofing at home I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the weather is not good, then my desire to go to a love motel is affected</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of restricted space at home I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My partner does not like being sexually adventurous</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I usually have sex at places acceptable to my family such as a love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I normally do not chose to have a variety of positions for sex</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My partner has enough money so we go to love motels to enjoy ourselves</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>1.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have much time alone with my partner, so we use love motels to enjoy ourselves.</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have enough money, so we go to love motels to enjoy ourselves</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When we have sex at home my partner feels work responsibilities, so we use love motels</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not likely to have sex with my partner unless he/she is acceptable to my family</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When we have sex at home my partner feels family responsibilities, so we use love motels</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use love motels for sex because at home I feel pressure from work responsibilities</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not that keen on sex, but to satisfy my partner I will go to love motels</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have a car and therefore it is not convenient to go to a love motel</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>1.191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I use love motels because I feel 'pressure' from my family if I have sex at home 877 2.16 1.024
I am not likely to have sex with my partner unless he/she is accepted by my friends 877 2.16 1.129
My partner does not have a car and so love motels are convenient 877 2.11 1.124
I am shy and not used to sex outside of my home 877 1.95 1.080
I rarely have sex and do not consider it necessary 877 1.95 1.042

Given this it was thought that a cluster analysis was appropriate, but in addition it was also felt that the socio-demographic variables would have a role to play. Consequently a two-step cluster analysis was undertaken and 5 clusters emerged. Cross tabulating cluster membership with the variables of age, gender, income, and education provided chi-squared

Table 3: Determinants of Cluster Membership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables included</th>
<th>Percent of respondents ‘correctly’ allocated to cluster membership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables only</td>
<td>75.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus being male</td>
<td>89.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus being female</td>
<td>87.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus being under 25 years of age</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus being 26 to 35 years of age</td>
<td>86.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus being single</td>
<td>75.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus an income of less than NT$20,000</td>
<td>98.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus an income of NT$20,001 – NT$30,000</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus an income of NT$30,001 – NT$40,000</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus an income of NT$40,001 – NT$50,000</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus an income of over NT$50,001 (n=)</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudinal Variables plus an university</td>
<td>78.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
tests of the distribution that were all statistically significant at levels of $p<0.001$ – implying therefore that these were possible determining variables. Further analysis confirmed the importance of the socio-demographic variables and the credibility of the 5 cluster solution. PASW permits logistic multinomial regression analysis to be undertaken and this generated a Cox and Snell Pseudo Coefficient of Determination of 0.95 where $p<0.001$, but with a warning that the Hessian matrix contained ‘irregularities’. Consequently all socio-demographic variables were found to be statistically significant. Recourse was made to multiple discriminate analysis without the use of socio-demographic variables and the classification table showed a goodness of fit where 75.8 percent of respondents were correctly allocated to the given cluster. However the software permits the addition of values for individual nominal data and this permits a recalculation of allocations respondents to the cluster groupings. Table 3 provides an indication of how this process improved the allocations of the respondents to the correct cluster membership. The table indicates that while the psychographic profiles based on the attitudinal items ‘explain’ about 78 percent of cluster membership, gender, income, age and education also have a role to play, as is described below.

The clusters that emerged can be described as follows. In describing the clusters it should be noted that the terms ‘older’ or ‘younger’ are used with relation to respondents being under or over 25 years of age.

Cluster One: Lower income singles with conventional tastes.

This cluster accounts for 162 respondents (20.4 percent of the sample) who indicate a preference for love motels because of social norms and restrictions (4.02). They have the highest score for being shy (2.88) of the clusters, and the highest scores on agreeing about a lack of sexual adventurousness (e.g. scoring 3.35 for not generally choosing to have a variety of sexual positions). Of this group 90 percent are below the age of 25 years and half of them are either students or working in retail or services. Only 14 percent earn more than NT$40,000 per month. They also have the lowest score for having sex outside the home.

Cluster Two:

This cluster numbers 212, of whom 96 percent are single and just over a quarter earn more than NT$40,000. They tend to be older than cluster one, but still tend to be relatively young, with only 42 percent being older than 25 years. They differ from cluster one by being more sexually adventurous, although not the most sexually adventurous of the clusters. They are the highest scorers on the item ‘My partner has enough money, so we go to love motels to enjoy ourselves’, although given that 96 percent are single the nature of the partner relationship remains a little unclear, except that in this instance half of the respondents are female – the second highest female composition of all the clusters. The group also has the second highest score on the item of choosing love motels because they do not enjoy sex in uncomfortable places (3.88).
Cluster Three: Older comfort seeking and sexually adventurous

This group accounts for 14.1 percent of the total (n=124), and 86 percent are above the age of 25 years, and over 30 percent earn more than NT$40,000 per month. They do not consider themselves shy about sexual matters (1.80) and do not agree that sex is unnecessary (1.33). They admit that one reason for patronising love motels is because they have relatively little time with their partners (3.51) and they use love motels because they are acceptable among their circle of friends (3.97). About a third of this group are married.

Cluster Four: Single people under the age of 25 years

This group was distinguished by being wholly single with the highest proportion of males (64.4 percent approximately). They have a low score on having sex with someone acceptable to family members (1.99) and tend to disagree with the perceived constraints of restricted space or a lack of sound-proofing at home or using love motels for reasons of pressure from work or family. They have one of the larger proportions of being under the age of 25 years. And it thereby appears that they use love motels with current partners in pre-marital relationships. The cluster numbered 275 individuals, the largest cluster, and accounted for 31 percent of the sample).

Cluster Five: Older single females

In this cluster 70 percent are female and 78 percent are over the age of 25 years, but they are among the higher income earners. They have the lowest scores on physical constraints, have one of the lowest scores for not having sex outside the home and for refuting the notion that they do not choose a variety of positions for sex. Interestingly 60 percent of this group state they live with their family. Inasmuch as love motel management gave various estimates to a maximum of 18 percent where they thought clients were with mistresses or sex workers it might be thought this cluster could include within its number females who fell into these two categories. This cluster numbered 104 accounting for 11.9 percent of the sample.

Examination of the plots of the canonical discriminant functions indicates that two dimensions accounted for the plots of the clusters and their relative locations, these being degree of sexual conventionality (conventional vs. adventurous) and comfort seeking; a finding wholly consistent with the nature of the love motel offering and the research by Alexander et al (2010). Together these two dimensions account for 83.2 of the variance (with 59 percent explained by function 1 – sexual conventionality) and the structure matrix confirmed this analysis with the item such as ‘I rarely have sex and do not consider it necessary’ accounting for the largest absolute correlation with dimension scores.

CONCLUSION

As noted above, research in this subject area presents several difficulties. Alexander et al (2010) chose to use focus groups to research this topic, and while this has strengths in identifying potential key variables the nature of the sample does not permit any ability to generalise, particularly as in their study the number of informants was only 20. This study sought to build upon the themes they elicited by reference to constraint theory identifying various social and physical constraints that are thought inherent in the nature of Taiwanese social norms and the pattern of housing. Table 1 shows that the sample tended to slight disagreement that family and
work pressures or crowding or poor sound proofing at home were factors that ‘pushed’ the respondents to the choice of a love motel. On the other hand two factors operated as facilitators of usage of love motels. These were first the standard of accommodation being offered with agreement being expressed by respondents that motels were being chosen in preference to ‘uncomfortable places’ (3.79), and, at least for this sample, a lack of shyness about sexual issues that arguably would predispose them to at least experiment with patronage of a love motel. This was subsequently confirmed by a canonical discriminate function analysis that identified two functions accounting for 83 percent of variance in five clusters – the dimensions being sexual conventional-adventurousness and comfort seeking. Third, although the evidence is weak from the empirical data, wider evidence from other sources such as Alexander et al (2010) and observation of the growing numbers of love motels would seem to indicate a growing level of tolerance for this accommodation sector within Taiwan.

With 793 respondents the sample still suffers from problems relating to adequacy as measured by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of 0.71 and additionally issues pertain to the Hessian matrix when seeking to determine cluster construction, so the cluster analysis can only regarded as indicative rather than affirmative. The data therefore imply that attitudes as measured in the survey instrument account for about 75 percent of variance but socio-demographics have a role to play in explaining the remainder of the data. This is partly self evident with a bias within the sample toward single and younger people, and it might be thought that it would be this group that may be more accepting of the love motel concept. There exists a possible paradox within the dataset. It would be younger, single income with a tendency to lower incomes who would most benefit from access to affordable, high quality and private accommodation for intimate occasions and who would be most adversely affected by small homes with either multi-generational or multiple occupation – thereby generating clear ‘pull’ and ‘push’ factors for the selection of love motels. However, when such factors itemised in the questionnaire the respondents tend not to agree with these factors as being an influence in their decision taking. However, they do tend to disagree quite significantly with statements about sex not being necessary in their lives and being shy about sex (other than cluster one), and they mildly disagree with the statement that they do not select a variety of sexual positions. The implication is thus that, being younger, they are less worried about constraints on sexual behaviour because, possibly, access to love motels means those constraints are less pressing and can be circumvented, but are drawn to the implicit promise of the love motel that patrons can enjoy sexual experiences in comfortable, private and exotic rooms that appeal to fantasy with showers, pools, and if required, pornographic and fetish tastes being satisfied.

Taken as a whole the sample confirms a view that Taiwanese love motels succeed by offering couples privacy, comfort and an opportunity for sexual adventure with partners, and are far removed from the connotations associated with the western style massage parlour in (a) being far from seedy, (b) meeting primarily the needs of people in partnerships and not simply those associating with sex workers, and (c) offering high levels of comfort and service on a par with five star hotels. Hence, within a Taiwanese setting the research tends to confirm anecdotal evidence, but within the wider academic literature relating to hospitality the work sheds some light on a niche established initially in Japan, but perhaps now being extended toward other Asian nations such as Korea and of course, Taiwan.

REFERENCES

Alexandris, K., & Carroll, B. (1997). Demographic differences in the perception of constraints on recreational sport participation: Results from a study in Greece. *Leisure Studies*, 16(2), 197-125.


**APPENDICES**

Data relating to clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I chose the motel because I do not enjoy sex in uncomfortable places</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I could not have sex with my partner unless I knew him/her well</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking into account social norms and restrictions, I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if I have to wait (during the holidays) I still prefer to go to a well equipped love motel</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I share living space with others I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My partner does not have much time with me, so we use love motels to enjoy ourselves</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I usually have sex at places acceptable to my friends such as a love motel</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of poor sound proofing at home I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the weather is not good, then my desire to go to a love motel is affected</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of restricted space at home I prefer to go to a love motel</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My partner does not like being sexually adventurous</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I usually have sex at places acceptable to my family such as a love motel</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I normally do not chose to have a variety of positions for sex</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My partner has enough money so we go to love motels to enjoy ourselves</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have much time alone with my partner, so we use love motels to enjoy ourselves</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have enough money, so we go to love motels to enjoy ourselves</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have sex at home my partner feels work responsibilities, so we use love motels</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not likely to have sex with my partner unless he/she is acceptable to my family</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When we have sex at home my partner feels family responsibilities, so we use love motels</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use love motels for sex because at home I feel pressure from work responsibilities</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not that keen on sex, but to satisfy my partner I will go to love motels</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have a car and therefore it is not convenient to go to a love motel</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use love motels because I feel ‘pressure’ from my family if I have sex at home</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not likely to have sex with my partner unless he/she is accepted by my friends</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
My partner does not have a car and so love motels are convenient
I am shy and not used to sex outside of my home
I rarely have sex and do not consider it necessary
Percent under the age of 25 years
Percent earning above NT$40,000 per month
Percentage who are single
Percentage who are female
Number

2.70  2.44  1.31  2.07  1.57
2.85  1.94  1.44  1.80  1.56
3.40  1.80  1.33  1.72  1.33
61.7  58.0  14.5  67.6  39.4
14.2  26.4  31.4  5.1  34.6
90.1  96.7  68.5  100  78.8
36.4  50.4  46.7  35.6  70.1
162  212  124  275  104
WHAT WERE THEY LOOKING FOR? UNDERSTANDING COMMERCIAL ACCOMMODATION ATTRIBUTE PREFERENCES AMONG INTERNATIONAL YOUNG LEISURE TRAVELLERS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Young travellers represent one in five international travellers worldwide and are important to the future of the tourism industry. However, there is a paucity of research that attempts to understand the needs of this traveller segment when selecting commercial accommodation. Furthermore, very little is known about this market and its impact for the New Zealand commercial accommodation sector. This paper reports on the decision making process of 432 international young travellers (18-34 years old) when choosing commercial accommodation on their trips to New Zealand. The interviewer-completion surveys were conducted at the international departure lounge of Christchurch International Airport between January and March 2010. Findings reveal that in general, young travellers rated that accommodation ‘cleanliness’ was the most important attribute while ‘on-site restaurant’ availability was the least important in selecting accommodation. However, there were differences in preferences based on the characteristics of the travellers. For example, frequent travellers rated a greater number of attributes as important in decision-making when compared to infrequent travellers, implying more expectations by those with higher levels of travel experience. Similarly, those married or living with partners and those currently employed had a larger number of important attributes affecting their accommodation decisions compared to singles and unemployed travellers respectively. The information obtained from travellers in this study provides important insights to the accommodation sector to enable the development of a suitable marketing strategy for this market.

Keywords: commercial accommodation, attributes, leisure travellers, New Zealand.
Theme: Asia and Tourism

A comparison of reporting tendency between conservative and progressive Korean newspapers towards travel to Australia.
(Full paper).
Hong Chul Lee, Michael J. Gross, University of South Australia and Sang Ho Lee, Pusan National University, South Korea.

A cultural framing of nature: Chinese tourists’ motivations for, expectations of, and satisfaction with their New Zealand tourist experience.
(Full paper).
Joanna Fountain, Stephen Espiner and Xiaoyan Xie, Lincoln University, NZ.

Imitated host, authentic host and guest: A case study of Kanas Tuva people settlements of North-West China.
(Full paper).
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Medical tourism: Bangladeshi consumers' choice of destination country.
(Full paper).
Rubaiyet Khan, North Shore International Academy, Auckland, NZ and Santus Kumar Deb, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Representations of Australia’s tourism destination image: Regional differences in narration themes and topics by Korean travel agents in Australia.
(Full paper).
Hong Chul Lee and Michael J. Gross, University of South Australia, Australia.

Indigenous cultural tourism in Pahang: With reference to the upriver tribe (Jakuns)
(Working paper abstract).
Salbiah Abd Rahman and Haliza Mohd Said, Universiti Tun Abdul Razak (UNIRAZAK), Malaysia.

Tourism research in Asia with minimal statistical data: The politics of numbers.
(Presentation summary).
Dylan Redas Noel, Sarawak Convention Bureau, Malaysia.
A COMPARISON OF REPORTING TENDENCY BETWEEN CONSERVATIVE AND PROGRESSIVE KOREAN NEWSPAPERS TOWARDS TRAVEL TO AUSTRALIA

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A COMPARISON OF REPORTING TENDENCY BETWEEN
CONSERVATIVE AND PROGRESSIVE KOREAN NEWSPAPERS
TOWARDS TRAVEL TO AUSTRALIA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to examine the differences of the reporting tendency of Korean newspapers towards overseas travel, focused on Australia as a comparison of both conservative and progressive newspapers using the key words, “Travel to Australia”. This study analysed reporting articles about Australia’s destination image employing Content Analysis and compared perspectives of Korean leading daily newspapers classified conservative and progressive newspapers. This study selected ‘Chosun Ilbo’ and ‘Donga Ilbo’ as conservative newspapers as well as ‘Kyunghyung Shinmun’ and ‘Hankyoreh’ as progressive newspapers based on previous research and theoretical discussions. Data were collected using the “Korea Press Foundation” database and 353 articles from January 1993 to December 2009. Statistical analysis methods employed were frequency, cross-tab, t-test, and MANOVA. Four analysing units of topics, attitudes, cognitive attribute frames and five news frames were analysed. The findings showed there are significant differences in topics and attitudes, cognitive attribute frames and five news frames between conservative and progressive newspapers. Specifically, reporting attitudes in progressive newspapers showed more critical perspectives than conservative newspapers towards travel to Australia by Korean tourists. Cognitive attribute frames differed as conservative newspapers used thematic frame, however progressive newspapers used more episodic frame. In addition, these newspapers differed in two news frames: responsibility and conflict frames. The findings of this study may be helpful to identify the influence that newspaper reporting has on outbound travel to Australia.

Keywords: Reporting tendency, Korean progressive and conservative newspapers, travel to Australia, content analysis

INTRODUCTION

Although South Korea outbound tourism has a relatively short history, South Korea has become one of the major outbound tourist generating countries in Asia and Pacific region in recent decades (Cho, 1998). Overseas pleasure travel was prohibited until 1983; however, after the 1988 Olympics in Seoul, the number of overseas trips by Korean tourists increased from 725,000 in 1988 to nearly 12 million in 2008. Korea has emerged as one of Australia’s fastest growing tourism markets in this decade (Cho, 1998) and as an overseas holiday and pleasure travel destination, Korea is Australia’s 5th largest inbound market (Australian Tourism Commission, 2010).

The reasons for the increase in interest and overseas travel are South Korea’s economic success as well as the impact of the media. Since 1988, South Korea’s news media have experienced unprecedented freedom to report news without significant governmental interference and have been developed for 30 years. Recently, the impact of newspapers on travel industry significantly influenced Koreans, especially the younger generations (Korean Association of Newspaper,
2010). In addition, media coverage seems to play an important role in the process of destination decision-making (Castelltort & Mader, 2009). Several researchers (Ajagunna, 2006; Gartner & Shen, 1992; Hanefors & Mossberg, 2002) have emphasised that newspapers are highly credible and easily accessible by potential tourists and this media has a considerable effects on overseas travel. Newspapers are undoubtedly an important source of tourism information because they provide tourists with up-to-date news about a destination which other sources, such as travel guide books cannot do.

In Korea, there are two significant trends in newspapers; conservative and progressive newspapers (Cho & Park, 2008; Hwang & Lee, 2010; Kang, 2006; Kim & Hamilton, 2006; Lee & Koh, 2009; Logan, Park & Shin, 2004). They have reported similar phenomenon with different perspectives and have different classes of readers. The majority of readers from progressive newspapers consisted of relatively younger generations, clerical workers and students, while conservative newspapers have a wide range of readers due to conservative newspapers being the mainstream of Korean media (Hwang & Lee, 2010). The major reasons of reporting articles with different perspectives are closely related in the history of the democratic media movement and civic journalism, which was developed as a reform movement among the media in the United States (Kern & Nam, 2008).

Contrary to other developed countries, the Korean democracy in media experienced a rapid consolidation after the military dictatorship in 1987. After the alteration to democracy, the autonomy of the media was a more essential issue in society campaigns in South Korea. Although restrictions and censorship were abolished after democratisation, the Korean newspaper market has not entirely recovered from the dictatorial precedent and is supervised by a censorship agency. Consequently, the political left repeatedly complain about restricted access to public issues (Kern & Nam, 2008) and due to the impact of civic journalism, many progressive newspapers specified that newspapers should refocus the news coverage on policy issues and abstain from scandal coverage, whereby creating new public places for citizens to meet and discuss issues (Sirianni & Friedland, 2001). Despite the democratic movement of newspapers in the 1990s (Carroll & Hackett, 2006) most conservative newspapers reported their articles with representing the position of the government. In this situation, the Citizens’ Coalition for Democratic Media (CCDM) supported the establishment of the progressive daily Hankyoreh in 1988 as an alternative to the conservative mainstream press. According to Song (2007), clear differences were identified in the mainstream between progressive and conservative newspapers’ coverage in terms of the composition of news sources, reporting topics and attitudes and the frames used to make sense of the specific issues. Additionally, several studies (Cho & Park, 2008; Hwang & Lee, 2010; Logan et al, 2004) pointed out these two kinds of newspapers have reported analogous issues with different perspectives using diverse discourse in terms of their political views.

Even though it is necessary to identify the different reporting tendency between progressive and conservative newspapers, past research on this issue has been limited. Moreover, there is no research employing news frames in tourism literature even though various studies have been conducted in media and communication literature (Iyengar, 1992; Iyengar & Simon, 1993; Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000; Valkenburg, Semetko & Vreese, 1999). In such mainstream research, a theoretical understanding and research of the impact of the newspapers regarding travel and tourism are needed to examine how Korean conservative and progressive newspapers report their articles on the topic of travel to Australia and how different reporting tendencies
between conservative and progressive newspapers have influenced Korean tourists’ travel to Australia.

This study examines the differences of the reporting tendency of Korean newspapers towards overseas travel on the assumption that these two kinds of newspapers have reported tourism related overseas travel, especially travel to Australia using the key words, “Travel to Australia”. Specifically, the research objectives are to identify the differences between conservative and progressive newspapers: (1) reporting topics and attitudes; (2) cognitive attribute frames and in five news frames towards destination images of Australia. Based on previous research (Hwang & Lee, 2010; Iyengar, 1992; Iyengar & Simon, 1993; Lee & Kwon, 2003; Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000; Valkenburg et al, 1999) and theoretical application, the research hypotheses are: (1) There are significant differences in reporting topics and attitudes towards travel to Australia between conservative and progressive newspapers; (2) There are significant differences in cognitive attribute frames towards travel to Australia between conservative and progressive newspapers; (3) There are significant differences in five news frames towards travel to Australia between conservative and progressive newspapers.

BACKGROUND AND RESULTS

Previous research comparing conservative and progressive newspapers

Content analysis of newspapers has been conducted as a popular topic in various disciplines especially media and communication studies (Bogart, 1993; Lee & Koh, 2009; Menashe & Siegel, 1998). Hong (2010) identified how to distinguish between conservative and progressive newspapers’ perspectives and suggested three dimensional methods. Firstly, the study pointed out politically conservative and progressive newspapers in terms of their ideological basis. According to this perspective, these newspapers can be divided into ideological content and grounds. Conservative newspapers emphasised Nationalism, National Security and free market, while progressive newspapers stated Internationalism, neighbourliness policy and economic equality. Secondly, these newspapers are distinguished in terms of discourse; discourse focuses on the social effects of language. For example, progressive newspapers prefer to use ‘labour’, whereas conservative newspapers frequently use ‘worker’, whilst the meaning between ‘labour’ and ‘worker’ is nearly the same, the effects in discourse are significantly different. Lastly, these newspapers are distinguished based on the logic of language. In other words, they report similar phenomenon with different angles. For instance, an accumulated deficit on tourism revenue has been reported as ‘ruinous’ and ‘need strong policies’ on progressive newspapers, however, conservative newspapers usually reported ‘intelligent consumption’ and ‘improvements’.

Lee (2007) analysed and compared the ideological tendencies in six Korean daily newspapers; Chosun Ilbo, Donga Ilbo, Joongang Ilbo, Kyunghyang Shinmun, Seoul Shinmun and Hankyoreh. According to the study, Chosun Ilbo has the most conservative tones, then Donga Ilbo, while Hankyoreh had the most progressive colour and Kyunghyang Shinmun followed. In addition, Chosun Ilbo, Donga Ilbo and Joongang Ilbo showed strong ties in ideological tendencies and their tones were consistent with each other, whereas Kyunghyang Shinmun, Seoul Shinmun and Hankyoreh did not always share the same views, especially regarding rather sensitive issues.

perspectives between conservative and progressive newspapers. Lee & Koh (2009) analysed conservative and progressive newspaper articles regarding the image of the United States with the issue of beef imports. According to their results, progressive newspapers have shown more negative reporting than conservative newspapers, especially from experts, NGOs, and citizens, while the conservative newspapers used more positive information towards overall images of the United States. With a critical discourse analysis approach, Achugar (2004) identified the differences between conservative and progressive newspapers. The conservative newspaper tried to re-define Uruguayan history to maintain the coherence between its ethical arguments at the international and national level. However, the progressive newspaper contested this re-interpretation of history and pointed out the incoherence and double-standards of the conservative groups when trying to redefine their local politics to maintain a liberal democratic argument for the international issue at hand.

As the Internet has become a popular media, its impact of the media has attracted considerable attention and has been recognised as an alternative media in recent decades. Kim & Hamilton (2006) and Song (2007) analysed Ohmynews as the internet media and compared the roles of progressive online news services with those of mainstream newspapers. Kim & Hamilton (2006) revealed Ohmynews viewpoints, in relation to Korean newspapers’ structure of progressive and conservative ideologies, represented the progressive newspapers’ perspectives.


Tourism and media studies

In tourism literature, the analysis of media, specifically tourism based studies, is considered by several researchers (Castelltort & Mader, 2009; Park, Byun & Xuan, 2008; Stepchenkova & Eales, 2010; Xiao & Mair, 2006; York & Zhang, 2009). Xiao & Mair (2006) analysed the images of China as a tourist destination through the representational narratives of major English newspapers. The finding provides an alternative to the interpretation of representational frames or patterns prevalent in the academic discourse with regard to the portrayal of culturally different tourist destinations. Park et al (2008) examined and compared images of Korea in Chinese newspapers as well as images of China in Korean newspapers. A total of 4,179 articles were collected from Korean and Chinese newspapers and significant differences were noted between Korean and Chinese newspapers.

Castelltort & Mader (2009) examined the extent, sources and nature of reporting about Spain as a tourist destination among Swiss German newspapers based on the Monetary Publicity Value (MPV). According to the authors, the media coverage is quantified to arrive at a positive image of Spain among German and Swiss print press. York & Zhang (2009) examined the factors that
lay behind the development of the Golden Week holiday system in China in 1999 and 2007. Using 45 official documents, they adopted the Content Analysis approach which indicated that while little relationship existed between the demands of tourism and public policy in both 1999 and 2007, the requirements of social policies and a greater role being attributed to public participation in the policy making were more emphasised in 2007. Stepchenkova & Eales (2010) quantified media messages about a tourist destination using articles about Russia published in three influential U.K. newspapers (the Times, the Guardian, and the Independent) from 1993 to 2007. They found four dynamic destination image indexes were significant factors in destination choice.

In addition, there have been several research studies related to “Images of Mega Sports Event” (Lee & Kwon, 2003), “Leisure and Tourism” (Cho & Park, 2008) and “Images in specific countries” (Lee, 2005; Yarmy, 1992) using content analysis. Lee (2005) identified Spain’s nation image in a Hexagon model: tourism, products, government, investment, culture and citizen analysing National Brand Index (NBI) presented by Anholt-GMI and Korean newspaper, Donga Ilbo. This research suggested positive nation images formed by newspaper reporting significantly influenced the six sectors. Lee & Kwon (2003) analysed 12 local newspapers using content analysis of the 2002 FIFA World Cup football games held in Korea and Japan and found the perspectives of topics and attitudes of reporting showed significant differences among 12 local newspapers.

Framing Theory

The framing theory can be utilised and understood in a topic from various perspectives (Chong & Druckman, 2007). Framing means the process of developing a particular concept an issue - the main principle of framing theory is an issue that can be analysed from various perspectives and be interpreted as having implications for multiple values or considerations (Chong & Druckman, 2007). Shah, Watts, Domke and Fan (2002) define framing as particular definitions and interpretations of political issues while Semetko & Valkenburg (2000) identifies trends, compared coverage and examined distinction of several media types with framing theory. Valkenburg et al (1999) defined media as a particular method in which journalists create news accounts to optimise understanding by the audience and suggested that news reporters utilise certain frames to maintain the interest of the audience. In this instance, audience frame is described as a scheme of clarification which facilitates readers to organise and identify with information (Pan & Kosicki, 1993; Valkenburg et al, 1999). The audience frame was further developed to five news frames by Semetko & Valkenburg (2000) and Valkenburg et al (1999).

Entman (1991; 1993) explained framing theory selects aspects of a perceived reality and makes them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation and moral evaluation. In a similar context, Gitlin (1980) defined media frames as persistent patterns of cognition, interpretation and presentation of selection, emphasis and exclusion by which symbol-handlers routinely organise discourse, whether verbal or visual. With theoretical consistency, studies have contributed to the understanding of framing effects and theory (Gamson, 1996; Ghanem, 1997; Iyengar, 1992; Iyengar & Simon, 1993; Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000; Valkenburg et al, 1999).

Studies in media literature (Entman 1991; 1993; Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000) have investigated the predominance of specific frames and examined how specific topics and issues have been framed. Iyengar (1992) identified and examined cognitive attribute frames to
investigate the effect of three frames, such as episodic, thematic and mixed frames in television news. ‘Episodic frame’ usually depicted public issues in terms of concrete instances or specific events, for example, crimes, international terrorism, poverty, unemployed worker and racial inequality. In contrast, ‘thematic frame’ placed public issues in general or abstract context in a conceptual situation. Lastly, ‘mixed frame’ has had a compounded formation. Gross (2008) emphasised that episodic frame generates more emotional replies than a thematic frame. Moreover, Iyengar (1992) found that episodic frames created individual attributions for political issues and thematic frames shaped societal attributions for political ones.

As illustrated above, Semetko and Valkenburg (2000) and Valkenburg et al (1999) identified five news frames based on Ghanem’s (1997) work to enhance general public interest: Responsibility Frame, Human Interest Frame, Conflict Frame, Morality Frame and Economic Consequences Frame. The responsibility frame has typically dealt with problems in social topics in order to ascribe responsibility to government or specific groups. Iyengar (1992) argued TV news frequently encouraged ordinary people to provide solutions for social problems. The human interest frame focused on the emotional perspectives and on the management of issues or problems. Framing with human interest is a technique to personalise and emotionalise the particular news. The conflict frame highlighted the level of conflict between groups and organisations. According to Semetko and Valkenburg (2000), newspapers’ five frames were analysed about political news and identified that significant differences were found between sensational (e.g., the telegraaf) and serious (e.g., the Volkskrant and the NRC) types of media. More specifically, it was recognised that sensational media usually used more human interest frame, while serious media frequently employed more responsibility frame and conflict frame. Hwang and Lee (2010) examined the differences in low birth rate issues between conservative and progressive newspapers with cognitive attribute frames by Iyengar (1992) and five news frames by Semetko and Valkenburg (2000) and Valkenburg et al (1999). Yu and Hwang (2006) investigated contrary perspectives in three Korean newspapers with regard to the administrative capital, unconstitutionality based on ‘episodic–thematic frame’. Although research has been conducted in various other areas, no studies in tourism literature were found that used media news frame.

The framing theory was employed as the theoretical basis of this study towards the media reporting regarding Australia’s destination image and overseas travel to Australia by Koreans. Based on the theoretical framework illustrated above, this study will identify the differences of the reporting tendencies towards overseas travel on the assumption that these two kinds of newspapers have reported overseas travel, especially travel to Australia with different perspectives, such as topics, attitudes and frames.

Methodology

This study employed a quantitative content analysis of the frames and sample articles were drawn from four leading daily newspapers in Korea: Chosun Ilbo, Donga Ilbo, Kyunghyang Shinmun and Hankyoreh. These newspapers were selected based on their large circulation and their reputation for offering readers a national coverage of news. Chosun Ilbo and Donga Ilbo were chosen as conservative newspapers and Kyunghyang Shinmun and Hankyoreh as progressive newspapers (Cho & Park, 2008; Hong, 2010; Hwang & Lee, 2010; Kim, Park & Lee, 2008; Yu & Hwang, 2006).
These newspapers were searched on the “Korea Press Foundation” database which is similar to LexisNexis Academic. This study chose “Travel to Australia” as the main key words between January 1993 and December 2009. The reason for selecting this period is to identify the overall trends towards travel to Australia in typical Korean newspaper articles. A total of 1,539 articles were located and after an independent and combined filtering process to assure each article was relevant to the study objective, a total usable sample of 353 newspaper articles was selected. Quantitative content analysis was employed for data analysis. This technique provides an objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication (Krippendorff, 1980).

To test hypotheses “analysing units” were established. The standard for an analysing unit must meet five conditions: 1) reflect the research purpose, 2) be mutually exclusive, 3) be exhaustive, 4) be independent, 5) consist of a single classification principle. The analysing units were made up of four units, 1) 24 topics, 2) three attitudes, 3) three cognitive attribute frames and 4) five news frames, which were examined to address the hypotheses. Four analysing units were satisfied with five conditions - more specifically, 24 units were categorised after an independent and combined filtering process by researchers, three attitudes were quantified recommended by the previous research (Cho & Park, 2008; Hwang & Lee, 2010; Lee & Kwon, 2003; Park et al, 2008), three cognitive attribute frames and five news frames were also employed from prior studies (Iyengar, 1992; Hwang & Lee, 2010; Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000; Valkenburg et al, 1999; Yu & Hwang, 2006). Particularly, these attitude and specific frames were employed as final specific analysing units and used as coding standard directly (Cho & Park, 2008; Hwang & Lee, 2010; Kim et al, 2008; Lee & Kwon, 2003; Yu & Hwang, 2006).

Table 1. Analysing Units and CR in this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Final Analysing Units</th>
<th>Final specific analysing units</th>
<th>Holsti CR</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Nn*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Topics</td>
<td>Introduce destination, Tour program and event, Honeymoon, Backpack travel, Special program (working holiday and wwooof, etc), Golf tour, Tourism Resources in Australia, Marketing and promotion, Tour experiences, Travel expense, Travel income and expenditure, Travellers' manner and attitude, Current state of travel industry, Travel trend, Tourism policy, Tourism development, Mutual cooperation, Travel and environment, Positive cases, Negative cases, Culture (including culture shock), Australia’s visa, Economic crisis, Change of trend</td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Attitude</td>
<td>Negative, Neutral, Positive</td>
<td>0.867</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cognitive attribute Frames</td>
<td>Episodic frame, Thematic frame, Mixed frame</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Five news Frames</td>
<td>Responsibility Frame, Human Interest Frame, Conflict Frame, Morality Frame and Economic Consequences Frame</td>
<td>0.803</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nn: the number of articles of agreements by two coders

This study also analysed reporting tendencies, such as topics and attitudes and frames. Topics were investigated as to whether both conservative and progressive newspapers had shown differences in selecting and reporting topics and if there were differences, which distinctions were shown in the newspapers. Attitude was identified by examining the extent to which reporting coverage had been illustrated in the articles. Several studies (Cho & Park, 2008;
Hwang & Lee, 2010; Lee & Kwon, 2003; Park et al, 2008) employed these measurement skills using three point scales: negative (-1), neutral (0), positive (1). The same method was utilised in this study. According to prior studies (above) a total of 353 sample articles were measured and evaluated using the three point scale. Additionally, this study used cognitive attribute frames—‘episodic’, ‘thematic’ and ‘mixed’ frames (Iyengar, 1992). Several studies (Hwang & Lee, 2010; Kang, 2006; Kim & Nam, 2008; Yu & Hwang, 2006) adopted news frames to analyse the differences of reporting perspectives. Finally, this study identified ‘five news frames’ which were based on the theoretical basis (Hwang & Kwon, 2010; Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000; Valkenburg et al, 1999; Yu & Hwang, 2006).

Following the procedure of content analysis (Shoemaker & Reese, 1996), a code book was made to establish clear classifications. Using the code book, the researchers input data to the SPSS for testing inter-coder reliability. To measure the reliability, different calculations can be undertaken (Krippendorff, 1980). To compute the coefficient of reliability (CR), this study employed “Holsti coefficient of reliability”: $CR = \frac{2M}{N_1 + N_2}$, and this can range from 0.00 (no agreement) to 1.00 (complete agreement). Krippendorff (1980) pointed out over 0.8 CR is an acceptable level. Using the process of CR, two researchers selected articles from 1993 to 1995 and from 2007 to 2009 with four analysing units as a pilot study for measuring CR with 158 articles. These CR scores in this study from .803 to .924 met the appropriate level suggested by Krippendorff (1980). The number of articles not agreed by the two coders were recorded. The results of the pilot study indicated the inter-coder reliability was sufficient to proceed with the main study. The statistical methods used in the main study were frequency, cross-tab, t-test, and MANOVA.

Results and discussion

This study analysed 353 sample articles in four Korean newspapers. The number of conservative newspapers was 154 (43.6%) and the total number of progressive newspaper articles was 199 (56.4%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table2. Total samples of newspapers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative newspapers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive newspapers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency analysis of topics showed the most frequent topics were ‘introduce destination’ (11.9%), ‘tour program and event’ (10.2%) and ‘marketing and promotion’ (8.5%). These three topics occupied 30.6% and 108 cases of the study and suggested that Korean newspapers endeavoured to promote Australia as one of the most important outbound destinations. Reporting attitudes consisted of ‘neutral’ (47.9%), ‘positive’ (36.5%) and ‘negative’ (15.6%). Neutral and positive articles were calculated as 84.4% of the study. The impact of newspapers on travel and the image of Australia in reports have significantly influenced Koreans to travel to Australia, thus these reporting trends towards Australia have lead to favourable image for potential Korean tourists.

Cognitive attribute frames, ‘thematic frame’ accounted for 46.5%, ‘episodic frame’ 40.0% and ‘mixed frame’ 14.3%. Hwang & Lee (2010) stated that more frequent thematic frame is a further
analytical and desirable frame which leads to more advanced formation of media reporting. Therefore, this study asserted that Korean newspapers have logical and beneficial reporting frames towards travel to Australia. Lastly, in five news frames, most Korean newspaper articles expressed ‘responsibility’ and ‘human interest’ frames more frequently, while ‘economic consequences’, ‘conflict’ and ‘morality’ frames were shown as less frequent. It is assumed that the dilemma of reporting articles about travel to Australia can be addressed because morality frame which provide solutions to settle social problems and conflict frame which can offer developmental motive and discussion regarding opposite point of view and conflict of opinion in the organisations were shown as insufficient levels.

Hypothesis 1

H1 proposed that there are significant differences in reporting topics and attitudes towards travel to Australia between conservative and progressive newspapers. To test H1, this study adopted a cross-tab analysis to determine whether topics are chosen and reported differently between conservative and progressive newspapers and used an independent sample t-test to identify whether different reporting attitudes are represented. After a stringent filtering process and in accordance with the code book and previous research (Cho & Park, 2008; Lee & Kwon, 2003), 24 topics were categorised relating to travel to Australia.

The results of the cross-tab analysis (see Appendix 1) indicated Chi-square and p-value in topics ($\chi^2 = 36.567, p=.036$) between Korean conservative and progressive newspapers showed significant impact on the affect at the p < .05 significance level.

Conservative newspapers mainly reported ‘tour program and event’ (25 cases, 16.2%) while progressive newspapers reported ‘negative cases’ (18 cases, 9.0%), compared with conservative newspapers (6 cases, 3.9%). Progressive newspapers also dealt with less positive cases (1 case, 0.5%) than conservative newspapers (7 cases, 4.5%). ‘Travellers’ manner and attitude’ (8 cases, 4%) was reported more in progressive newspapers than in conservative newspapers (2 cases, 1.3%).

After the 1997 IMF economic crisis, progressive newspapers focused on ‘travellers’ manner and attitude’ and ‘negative cases’, whereas conservative newspapers have shown that their perspectives was to seek alternative plans in overseas travel. Between 1998 to 2000, progressive newspapers reported ‘special programs’ (working holiday or wwoof) for the younger generation and the basic points of reporting perspectives changed from encouragement of overseas travel to discouragement (mainly from excessive consumption and due to the transformation of the behaviour in the younger generation due to the economic crisis which lasted until 2000). For example, Chosun Ilbo (03 Sep 1998) reported ‘utilise the tourism as a breakthrough of unemployment in IMF period’, whilst Hankyoreh (11 Jun 1998) accounted for ‘there are many places to sleep in case of changing one’s mind’. The results indicated the perspectives of these newspapers significantly influenced the selection of articles to report topics, whereas each newspaper had reported a diverse range of topics in this period.

The independent sample t-test (Appendix 2) examined whether different reporting attitudes were represented between conservative and progressive newspapers and showed statistical significance (T=8.862, DF=351, P=.009) at the p < .01 significance level. The mean score of the conservative newspapers (.55) was much higher than that of progressive newspapers (.05). This different reporting attitudes suggested the differences stretch back to the history of media (Kim, Chung & Son, 2010; Rhee, 2005) and different perspectives of the viewpoint towards the travel
phenomenon. Most conservative newspapers reported their articles by representing the position of the government, even though political barriers, against the establishment of media companies, have been removed. Moreover, it seems that most progressive newspapers were established as an alternative to the conservative newspapers, so their editorial direction and ideological basis is different. Specifically, articles related to overseas travel have tended to be reported with different perspectives. For example, an accumulated deficit on tourism revenue has been reported as ‘ruinous’ and ‘need strong policies’ on progressive newspapers, however, conservative newspapers reported ‘intelligent consumption’ and ‘improvements’. Based on these findings, H1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2
To test the second hypothesis, this study began by performing a cross tabulation analysis using Chi-square. H2 assumed that there are significant differences in cognitive attribute frames towards destination images of Australia between conservative and progressive newspapers.

This study analysed whether these newspapers have reported with different thematic, episodic and mixed frames regarding travel to Australia. The findings (Appendix 3) illustrated that the scores ($\chi^2 = 41.012, p=.000$) suggested Korean conservative and progressive newspapers used different cognitive attribute frames. Conservative newspapers reported using more ‘thematic frame’ (65.6%) and progressive newspapers reported using lesser ‘episodic frame’ (49.2%).

It is presumed that conservative newspapers have sustained long term strategies for developing the tourism industry, suggestions for overcoming the economic crisis and cooperation schemes and relationships between Korea and Australia, however, progressive newspapers have shown their perspectives through articles using ‘episodic frame’, ‘economic crisis’, ‘control travel expenditure’, ‘current state of travel industry’ and ‘change of travel trend’. These differences demonstrated significant distinctions.

Hwang and Lee (2010) stated that more frequent thematic frame is further analytical and desirable frame and a more advanced formation of media reporting and asserted that conservative newspapers had reported their articles with more thematic frame than episodic frame. Yang (2001) regarded medical disputation and Kim (2002) related to prostitution demonstrated that more episodic frame was observed, and research by Kim and Cho (2005) on the subject of the life science proposed the same rate between thematic and episodic frames. However, Hwang and Lee (2010) illustrated and asserted newspaper reporting on the topic of low fertility had shown more advanced and analytical news formation and suggested this is a desirable direction for news media’s reporting tendency. This study showed strong consistency with prior studies’ findings. As an example of this, it is presumed that conservative newspapers, Chosun Ilbo and Donga Ilbo have usually sustained long term strategies for developing the tourism industry, implications for marketing and promotion, travel and environment, mutual cooperation schemes and relationships between Korea and Australia by using more ‘thematic frame’. Progressive newspapers, Hankyoreh and Kyunghyang Shinmun have shown their perspectives through articles using ‘episodic frame’, such as ‘economic crisis’, ‘control travel expenditure’, ‘current state of travel industry’ and ‘change of travel trend’. According to the findings, this pioneering study on the theme of tourism literature has revealed consistencies with previous research and future directions of news reporting about tourism related phenomenon. Hence, this study identified these newspapers have a tendency to reflect the perspectives of each
newspaper with different frames. Therefore, based on these findings and theoretical basis, H2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3

To test the last hypothesis, this study employed MANOVA analysis. H3 assumed that there are significant differences in five news frames towards destination images of Australia between conservative and progressive newspapers. ANOVA tests usually have one dependent variable and as this hypothesis has five dependent variables this study used MANOVA. As Appendix 4 and 5 show, newspaper articles contained minimum more than one frame of five frames by suggested by Hwang and Lee (2010) and Semetko and Valkenburg (2000). Classification between conservative and progressive newspapers affects the overall frequency to five news frames (F=2.167, p=.018), however, the effect is not significant (Partial Eta Squared=.030). ‘Responsibility’ (p=.036) and ‘conflict frames’ (p=.022) demonstrated significant differences at the p < .05 significance level. Conservative newspapers (.73) dealt with more responsibility frame than progressive newspapers (.39), while progressive newspapers (.48) treated more conflict frame than conservative newspapers (.25). ‘Human interest’, ‘morality’ and ‘economic consequences’ frames did not present statistical differences. ‘Human interest’ (.58 and .49 respectively), ‘morality’ (.06 and .16 respectively) and ‘economic consequences’ frames (.42 and .36 respectively) were represented in both conservative and progressive newspapers, however, there were not significant differences.

As a main discussion with regard to the five news frame, this study suggests some implications. Firstly, the most important characteristics in this study have illustrated a low feature in morality frame. In adopting this news frame, morality frame has to be used frequently to report overseas travel, especially travel to Australia. Morality frame can deal with solutions to settle social problems and usually contains social prescriptions for solving certain problems, such as extravagant phenomenon and negative evaluation - Koreans were recognised as ‘ugly Korean’ in local newspapers (e.g. Kyunghyang Shinmun on 14 Jan 2004). Both conservative and progressive newspapers used the morality frame infrequently (.06 in conservative and .16 in progressive newspapers). Progressive newspapers reported more negative cases, travel expense and travellers’ manner and attitude than conservative newspapers, so progressive newspapers emphasised behaviour and perceptive problems in the case of overseas travel by Korean tourists. These problems, such as ‘ugly Koreans’, were frequently pointed out and reported in other countries’ media. As a result of this impact, progressive newspapers aroused the consciousness of the Korean tourists by reporting this type of article. Secondly, in a same context, conflict frame is also discussed more frequently, particularly in conservative newspapers. Conflict frame recommends developmental drive and argument regarding contradictory points of view and a disagreement of opinion in society. However, this frame in conservative newspapers was used .25 which indicated the insufficient level (Hwang & Lee, 2010). Newspapers in society should play a crucial role to form public opinion regarding specific social phenomenon. Therefore, when these five frames show an appropriate level, Korean newspapers can have a suitable function in reporting overseas travel related articles. Basically, perspectives of both conservative and progressive newspapers are significantly different on five news frames by Hwang and Lee (2010) and Semetko and Valkenburg (2000), therefore, based on these findings and theoretical basis, H3 was partially supported.
CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences of the reporting tendency of Korean newspapers towards overseas travel, focused on Australia as a comparison of both conservative and progressive newspapers, using the key words, “Travel to Australia”. Significant differences were found in topics and attitudes between Korean conservative and progressive newspapers in H1. It is assumed that each newspaper had different perspectives on the topics and in the different sections of the newspaper according to their stances to view Australia’s travel. The results indicated perspectives between conservative and progressive newspapers significantly influenced the selection of articles to report topics. The results also suggested that reporting attitudes of conservative newspapers were much more positive than those of progressive newspapers. It seems that this different reporting attitude can be explained through the Korean history of the media (Kim et al, 2010; Rhee, 2005) and their different perspectives towards the travel phenomenon. Even though press freedom had been acquired, conservative newspapers have tended to report articles with a stand towards the government. Furthermore, it is presumed that progressive newspapers were established as an option to the conservative newspapers, therefore their perspectives and ideological foundation are different. With regard to the result of H2, this study used cognitive attribute frames by Iyengar (1992). The findings illustrated that the scores in cognitive attribute frames ($\chi^2 = 41.012, p=.000$) can be regarded as statistically different between Korean conservative and progressive newspapers. Although conservative newspapers have reported using ‘thematic frame (65.6%)’, progressive newspapers have accounted for ‘episodic frame (49.2%)’. It is assumed that conservative newspapers have had long term strategies for developing tourism industry, suggestion for overcoming the economic crisis and cooperation schemes and relationships between Korea and Australia, however, progressive newspapers have shown their perspectives through articles using ‘episodic frame’, for example, ‘economic crisis’, ‘control travel expenditure’, ‘current state of travel industry’ and ‘change of travel trend’. Lastly, this study conducted a MANOVA analysis to investigate the differences in five news frames by Hwang and Lee (2010) and Semetko and Valkenburg (2000) towards travel to Australia between conservative and progressive newspapers. According to the results, H3 was partially supported (Wilks' Lambda=.940, F= 2.167, P=.018). Specifically, conservative newspapers have dealt with more responsibility frame than progressive newspapers, while progressive newspapers have treated more conflict frame than conservative newspapers.

In order to report articles and reflect public opinions of overseas travel phenomenon, it is suggested that Korean newspapers should use morality frame and conflict frame more often. Morality frame can contain social prescriptions for solving certain problems, such as ‘ugly Korean’. Both conservative and progressive newspapers used the morality frame infrequently. Also, conflict frame should be discussed more frequently, particularly in conservative newspapers. Conflict frame suggests developmental argument regarding contradictory points of view and disagreement of opinions in society.

This study has two limitations: Firstly this study only selected four representative newspapers among 304 newspapers in Korea to examine the findings and the sample size is only 353, thus more samples are needed, to increase the validity and reliability of the study. Secondly, the data may be subject to bias as the viewpoints may differ according to the coders, although researchers try to remain objective. In the future, it is necessary to analyse various newspapers for example, online newspaper, ohmynews. In this way, future researchers can contribute to the tourism.
industry, especially between Korea and Australia. Lastly, this study can contribute to future studies to further theorise the understanding of media studies related to tourism literature. Furthermore, as the number of Korean tourists travelling to Australia increases, there will be a need for further research contributions analysing the Korean media.

REFERENCES


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**APPENDICES**

Appendix 1. Topics between conservative and progressive newspapers (χ²= 36.567, df=23, p=0.036)

| Topic 1  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | Total |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|------|
| conservative | 20 | 25 | 13 | 4 | 9 | 2 | 7 | 10 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 7 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 154 |
| progressive  | 22 | 11 | 14 | 11 | 10 | 1 | 12 | 20 | 11 | 5 | 1 | 8 | 9 | 8 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 10 | 1 | 18 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 8 | 199 |
| Total       | 42 | 36 | 27 | 15 | 19 | 3 | 19 | 30 | 16 | 7 | 3 | 10 | 16 | 12 | 9 | 11 | 7 | 15 | 8 | 24 | 6 | 6 | 2 | 10 | 353 |

Appendix 2. Reporting attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reporting attitude</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conservative</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>8.862</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progressive</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 3. Cognitive attribute frames (χ²=41.012, df=2, p=.000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frames</th>
<th>Thematic frame</th>
<th>Episodic frame</th>
<th>Mixed frame</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conservative</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progressive</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 4. The result of Mean and SD in five news frames

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Responsible frame</th>
<th>Human interest frame</th>
<th>Conflict frame</th>
<th>Morality frame</th>
<th>Economic consequences frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative (N=154)</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.494</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive (N=199)</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.489</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.499</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 5. Result of MANOVA in five news frames

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Sum of Squares Error</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility Frame</td>
<td>1.277</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td>2.904</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>76.696</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Interest Frame</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>1.135</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>86.578</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict Frame</td>
<td>1.712</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.856</td>
<td>3.876</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>77.099</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morality Frame</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>1.552</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35.017</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Consequences Frame</td>
<td>.580</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.290</td>
<td>1.224</td>
<td>.295</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>82.772</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Wilks' Lambda: .940, F=2.167, Hypothesis df=10.000, Error df=690.000, Sig =.018*
A CULTURAL FRAMING OF NATURE: CHINESE TOURISTS’ MOTIVATIONS FOR, EXPECTATIONS OF, AND SATISFACTION WITH THEIR NEW ZEALAND TOURIST EXPERIENCE

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A CULTURAL FRAMING OF NATURE: CHINESE TOURISTS’ MOTIVATIONS FOR, EXPECTATIONS OF, AND SATISFACTION WITH THEIR NEW ZEALAND TOURIST EXPERIENCE

ABSTRACT
Over the past decade, the Chinese holiday market has become very important to the New Zealand tourism industry, and now represents its fourth largest source of visitors. Understanding Chinese tourist motivations for, expectations of, and satisfaction with their tourism experience is, therefore, crucial for the future development of the market. Existing research suggests that for Chinese visitors, like other market segments, the natural landscape has a big influence over the decision to travel to New Zealand. There is an emerging concern, however, that the country’s tourism product must diversify if it is to continue to attract an increasingly sophisticated and discerning market, and attention is now shifting to utilize the appeal of culture and heritage attractions in New Zealand, particularly those centred on Māori cultural products. This paper reports on research into Chinese tourists’ motivations, expectations and behaviour with respect to their travel in New Zealand. Particular emphasis is given to an exploration of the relative importance of nature and culture to Chinese tourists in New Zealand. Data were collected via a self-completed questionnaire administered to 181 Chinese tourists visiting Queenstown. The findings suggest that the Chinese market may be particularly suited to a culturally-oriented experience of New Zealand, but one based less on Māori culture as it is often portrayed to tourists (e.g. cultural performances, experiencing a hangi), and more on the opportunities to learn about Māori stories and legends as part of visiting natural environments. The implications of these findings for shaping the Chinese tourist gaze in New Zealand are discussed.

Keywords: Chinese tourists, New Zealand, motivations, expectations, nature, cultural tourism

INTRODUCTION
Over the past two decades, outbound tourism demand from mainland China has become an important focus for destination managers and marketers and tourism academics (Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline & Wang, 2010). The Chinese government’s loosening of restrictions on outbound travel since the 1980s has continued with the expansion of the Approved Destination Status (ADS) scheme so that today ADS had been granted to more than 130 countries (Ministry of Tourism, 2010a; Sparks & Pan, 2008). This relaxation of travel restrictions has been accompanied by swift economic development which has resulted in a growing middle class with the means and desire to gain first-hand experience of the rest of the world (Arlt, 2006; Ministry of Tourism, 2010). Today China is seen by observers as one of the two most important tourist-generating markets worldwide with the potential to have a massive influence on the marketing of tourism and destination development in coming years (Kim, Guo & Agrusa, 2005).

Between 1993 and 2002, the average rate of annual growth was 20 percent (Kim et al, 2005) and by 2007 outbound travel by Chinese residents had reached 40 million trips annually; a quadrupling in ten years (Ministry of Tourism, 2009). There has been a corresponding growth in expenditure; in 2005 Chinese nationals spent US$22 billion on tourism abroad, an increase from US$3.6 billion ten years earlier (Arlt, 2006). This growth has slowed somewhat in the past few years; in 2008 visitor numbers dropped slightly as a consequence of the Beijing Olympics and, a few months’ later, the Sichuan earthquake, while in 2009 the global economic down-turn, and concerns surrounding the Influenza A H1N1 (Swine Flu) pandemic, also affected visitors numbers. Notwithstanding these recent setbacks, the Chinese outbound market is expected to exceed 51 million in 2010 (Ministry of Tourism, 2010).

The Chinese visitor market has become very important to the New Zealand tourism industry, and now represents its fourth largest source of visitors (Ministry of Tourism, 2010). Most tourism by mainland Chinese to New Zealand has occurred since 1999, when New Zealand became one of the first western counties to be granted ADS status. A simplified passport application process and direct air-links between
China and New Zealand since 2006 have aided visitation from China. To the year ending June 2010, there were 105,191 Chinese visitors to New Zealand, accounting for approximately five percent of total annual overseas visitors (Ministry of Tourism, 2010), and forecasts suggest that visitation from China will continue to grow (Ministry of Tourism, 2010).

Given the emerging importance of the Chinese visitor market to New Zealand tourism, it is crucial to understand their expectations of and satisfaction with their tourism experience in this country. To date there has been somewhat limited research on this topic, however this is increasing (eg. Becken, 2003; Chan, 2009; Cone, 2005; Mohsin, 2008; Ryan & Mo, 2001; Tian, 2008; Zhao, 2006; Zhu, 2006). Existing research suggests that for Chinese visitors, like other market segments, the natural landscape has an important influence over the decision to travel to New Zealand (Chan, 2009; Cone, 2005; Zhao, 2006) and that they are reasonably satisfied with their experiences in New Zealand, although levels of satisfaction within the Chinese visitor market to New Zealand is generally lower than that of other markets (Ministry of Tourism, 2010).

Therefore, the purpose of this research has been to explore Chinese tourists’ motivations, expectations and behaviours with respect to a range of attractions and activities in which they participate on their travel in New Zealand via a self-completed questionnaire administered to 181 Chinese tourists visiting Queenstown. This paper reports, in particular, on the relative importance of natural attractions and cultural elements to Chinese tourists during their time in New Zealand.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Understanding tourists’ expectations and preferences when they make travel decisions is fundamental to effective destination management and marketing. Similarly, being aware of how tourists interpret the experiences they encounter, and how these experiences compare with their expectations, provides important insights to tourist satisfaction. Generally, in the consumer behaviour literature, customer satisfaction is seen as a function of performance expectations and expectancy disconfirmation (Eagles & McCool, 2002; Jacobson, 2001; Latu & Everett, 2000; Oliver, 1980; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985), with the general assumption being that “satisfaction increases as the performance/expectation ratio increases” (Oliver, 1980, p. 460). Satisfaction arises from the individual’s subjective evaluation of an experience, relative to his or her expectation of that involvement (Moore, 1995; Rollins & Robinson, 2002).

There is growing recognition of the importance of the role of one’s cultural background in determining how one’s expectations are established, how an experience is perceived and explained and therefore how satisfied one is with an experience (Caneen, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Mok & DeFranco, 1999; Reisinger & Turner, 2002). Expectations come from a number of sources, which include the qualities and perceptions acquired from a particular cultural background (Li et al., 2010; Oliver, 1980). How one perceives and assesses a situation will be influenced also by one’s cultural background, including the position of one’s culture in terms of power distance, individualism and masculinity dimensions (Chang, 2008; Hofstede, 2001). In this context, therefore, it is important to recognise that “Chinese travelers may have particular travel expectations, preferences, and requirements that are not yet well understood by Western marketers” (Li et al., 2010, p.3).

One useful way to assess satisfaction and some of its associated concepts is the EPI (Expectations-Perceptions-Importance) approach (Latu & Everett, 2000). This approach requires respondents to evaluate the importance of some predefined feature or attribute, as well as their perception of the extent to which this feature or attribute met their needs; if the perception of the experience is lower than expectation then this is used as a measure of dissatisfaction. The significance of any discrepancy between perception of the experience and expectation can be established by determining the respondents’ assessment of the importance of each feature. The formula for assessing satisfaction therefore is ((Perception-Expectations)*Importance) (Latu & Everett, 2000). The EPI methodology can be used as a
comprehensive, flexible and economic way to provide data suitable for management decisions (Espiner, Higham & Corbett, 2006).

A number of studies globally have explored the motivations and expectations of travellers from mainland China. What is known is that, as yet, they are relatively inexperienced travellers, who tend to prefer to travel on package tours and for whom value in their travel experience is very important. This value is sometimes determined on the basis of the number of destinations or sites that can be experienced on one trip, which means, on the whole, Chinese visitors do not spend long in each destination (Becken, 2003; Chan, 2009; Cone, 2005; Guo, Kim & Timothy, 2007; Ministry of Tourism, 2009). The preference for package tours also reflects the Chinese market’s concern for safety (Kim et al., 2005; Weiler & Yu, 2006).

In terms of the travel experiences they seek, the key destination attributes for Chinese travellers are reported as being the scenic beauty and natural wonders of the destinations they visit (Cone, 2005; Kim et al., 2005; Weiler & Yu, 2006). Similarly, research on Chinese visitors to New Zealand suggests the primary reasons for choosing to visit revolve around its natural beauty, scenery and its ‘clean and green’ and unpolluted environment (Cone, 2005; Ryan & Mo, 2001; Zhao, 2006), although safety is also an important consideration (Becken 2003; Coventry, 2008; Ryan & Mo, 2001).

Most of the studies of the Chinese outbound market suggest they are interested in experiencing different historical and cultural resources including local customs (Becken, 2003; Kim et al, 2005; Li et al, 2010; Weiler & Yu, 2006), with some researchers suggesting that Chinese tourists place a higher priority on gaining cultural experience than other markets (Caneen, 2004; Kau & Lim, 2005; Xu, Morgan & Song, 2009). There is some evidence that high-end travellers rate experiences of culture and history more highly than the market as a whole (Cone, 2005). Research in the New Zealand context supports this cultural interest with an important motivation for Chinese visitors being to experience the country’s unique culture, history and customs. While some studies have found experiencing Māori culture to be a significant and satisfying element of Chinese visitors’ experience of New Zealand (Ryan & Mo, 2001), in assessing the attractiveness of various destination attributes of New Zealand to residents of three cities in China, Moshin (2008) found no activity associated with Māori culture appearing in the top ten list of attributes. This finding, however, may relate to lack of knowledge about the activities as much as lack of interest.

Studies which examine the activities of Chinese visitors in New Zealand are generally hard to compare because of the differing ways in which the activity categories are framed. Chan (2009) reports that the main activities undertaken are sightseeing, shopping, visiting historic sites, attending a Māori cultural performance and visiting a botanical garden. By comparison, Ministry of Tourism (2009) data suggest the top activities are walking and trekking, visiting volcanic/geothermal attractions; visiting lookout or viewing platforms, cultural attractions and other land based sightseeing. Ryan and Mo (2001) report that during their time in New Zealand Chinese tourists place a great deal of importance on sightseeing and experiencing new places. They derive satisfaction from sightseeing in nature-based settings (visiting national parks and viewing gardens and farms) and in cities and on boat cruises, and enjoy experiencing Māori culture (Ryan & Mo, 2001). Generally Chinese visitors to New Zealand are more interested in a passive enjoyment of New Zealand’s natural scenery; that is via ‘sightseeing’ rather than active involvement, although younger visitors are more interested in active experiences (Ryan & Mo, 2001).

Chinese tourists tend to leave New Zealand with lower satisfaction than other markets, including the lowest satisfaction ratings for food and beverage and accommodation, and significantly lower satisfaction ratings than the ‘all markets’ average for activities undertaken in New Zealand (Ministry of Tourism, 2010). A similar finding is reported in Australia (Weiler & Yu, 2006; Pan & Laws, 2001). This lower level of satisfaction has been blamed partly on a tendency in the past for Chinese tour operators to cut costs on food, accommodation and activities on tours in Australasia, or to prioritise shopping in order to obtain kickbacks (Keeping them happy, 2005; Tourism New Zealand, 2010; Weiler & Yu, 2006).
Globally, Chinese travellers tend to be influenced by good quality service and tourism facilities, with accommodation and food and beverage quality and service frequently mentioned as very important (Li et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2005; Weiler & Yu, 2006). The length of most Chinese holidaymakers’ trips to New Zealand, for whom the average length of stay was just 5.1 days in 2008 (Ministry of Tourism, 2009), also means, for many Chinese visitors, much of their experience of New Zealand is spent travelling between destinations, or having to visit attractions in a rushed and superficial way, which may reduce satisfaction with the experience (Chen, 2002; Rowan, 2005; see also Weiler & Yu, 2006). There is also some evidence to suggest that Chinese visitors interpret their New Zealand itinerary as an expensive ‘add-on’ to a trip to Australia, which may negatively affect satisfaction levels (Cone, 2005). The proportion of Chinese visitors travelling to both Australia and New Zealand on a single trip is declining but still represents 77 percent of all visitors (Ministry of Tourism, 2010). The lack of satisfaction in the market may also reflect a failure in the industry to understand Chinese visitors’ needs fully.

One of the difficulties in most research on Chinese tourists’ motivations and activities in New Zealand is a presumption that there is a relatively clear separation between what might be called ‘natural’ and ‘cultural’ activities. For example, a number of studies report an interest by Chinese tourists in the “good natural environment” (Chan, 2009) or the fact that New Zealand is “clean, green, fresh, peaceful” (Zhao, 2006). However, this may reveal a lack of understanding of Chinese culture and philosophy in which such a separation between culture and nature is not straightforward. The definition of a cultural experience for Chinese tourists is not an experience removed from nature; for cultural experiences are critical and found everywhere, including in wildlife and landscapes. Little tourism literature to date has explored the cultural reasons behind Chinese tourists’ expectations and travel decisions, although there are some interesting exceptions to this (Arlt, 2006; Li, 2005, 2008; Mok & DeFranco, 1999).

The importance of culture to Chinese tourists might be explained by their more than 5000 years of history, which has created abundant cultural resources for China. However, the close relationship between man and nature comes also from the key principles of Confucianism and Taoist philosophy, described by Li (2005) as “Chinese common knowledge”. One of these central principles is the concept of harmony. A basic Confucian assumption is that humans exist in relation to other people, and in relation to nature (Mok & DeFranco, 1999). In human relationships, this leads to a prioritising of respect for authority, face, group orientation and interdependence. In relation to nature, human beings are regarded as part of nature, and a harmonious relationship between nature and humans is central to Chinese culture (Li, 2005). The belief is that “nature without man and man without nature were incomplete” (Li, 2008, p.499). Because nature is imperfect, humans need to improve on it with buildings and other constructions in order to create harmony. What this means is that the Western conception of ‘wilderness’, as unmodified and untouched nature, is foreign to a Chinese mindset, and the concept has rather negative connotations. In other words, for any natural landscape to be meaningful to Chinese “the physical landscape must be permeated with human cultural and historic heritage” (Li, 2008, p.501). There must be evidence of that harmonious relationship between man and nature; it must be a “culture-scape” (Li, 2008, p.494).

Confucius taught that human beings should learn from nature, with people of different characters gaining different knowledge and experience from nature around them (Arlt, 2006). Similarly, Taoism suggests that man should follow nature, integrate with nature and search for aesthetic values from nature (Arlt, 2006), so the attractiveness of nature is evaluated by its connection with legend, stories, poems, history or famous people, not only natural beauty. For example, Li (2008) reports that the Chinese know the names of about 100 pine trees which have been made famous through many poems – these are important tourist attractions, but Chinese visitors go there for their cultural value, not any botanical significance. She reports also that many of the most famous ‘natural’ tourist sites in China are renowned not for their scenic attractions but for their comprehensive links to China’s cultural heroes – poets, historical leaders and so on. She argues that without this cultural validation many of these sites would not have been developed as
tourist destinations. In other words, these differences based on common Chinese knowledge results in a distinctive “Chinese tourist gaze” on nature (Li, 2008).

Clearly, in a New Zealand context, a cultural tourism experience does not exclude the natural environment or vice versa. In fact, a cultural experience can ‘add value’ to the experience of the country and landscape, and interpretation of New Zealand’s natural heritage from a Māori perspective is recognised as offering a unique point of difference for New Zealand tourism operators (Colmar Brunton, 2003; McIntosh, 2004; Molloy, 1993; Wilson, Horn, Sampson, Becken & Hart, 2006). As Carr states the “intangible aspects of cultural significant landscape features are often elusive” (2006, p 83) but visitors may become aware of them through promotional literature, place names or through interpretation which relates local stories, myths and history. Increasingly, tourism operators are adding a cultural aspect to interpretation of the natural environment, and Wilson et al. (2006, p.65) report that tourists feel that incorporating historical stories into their New Zealand experience offers a “richer dimension to the experience”. The issue at the forefront of the present research is whether the Chinese tourist experience of New Zealand currently satisfies their tendency to desire a cultural framing of nature.

METHODS

This research project relied on a self-completed survey, conducted with Chinese visitors to Queenstown. Queenstown was chosen as the location for data collection due to its importance on the itineraries of Chinese visitors to New Zealand and the fact that it is usually the penultimate destination for Chinese visitors, meaning it is a good place for them to reflect on their trip to New Zealand. The respondents were selected by means of convenience sampling in three areas of Queenstown; outside the reception of the Skyline Function Centre, in the Queenstown Mall and in the cruise harbour. These three places were chosen due to their popularity with tourists and the fact that these were all places where tourists might be waiting (to take a cruise, the skyline gondola) or had free time (Queenstown Mall). The researcher stationed herself in these locations and approached people of obvious Asian descent, asking each potential respondent an initial question to determine whether they were international tourists from mainland China and within the target age range. Once eligibility was established, the researcher and research project were introduced and participation in the research project was sought. Where willingness was confirmed, the respondent was given a copy of the questionnaire to complete. The next respondent was approached once the questionnaire had been accepted by the previous participant.

All data collection took place over a week in November 2009 during daylight hours. Data were collected from 181 respondents over 18 years of age who identified themselves as international tourists. Over the sampling period, 272 international tourists were asked to take part in the research, resulting in a response rate of 66.5 percent.

The survey contained three sections and 19 close-ended questions. Section one focused on general information related to respondents’ travel to New Zealand. Section two was more specific about the Chinese tourists’ perspective of their experiences in New Zealand. Section three collected respondent profile information, including age and gender. The questionnaire was designed in English and translated into Chinese (Mandarin) and the translation was verified by another Chinese/English speaker and pre-tested with a small number of Chinese students before implementation in the field. The questionnaire took approximately five minutes for each visitor to complete. Data were entered into an Excel spreadsheet before being transferred to SPSS 17 for analysis.

FINDINGS

Profile of the sample and visit characteristics

An analysis of age distribution of the sample reveals that respondents were considerably younger than the national average for Chinese visitors as reported in Ministry of Tourism (2009) data (Figure 1),
particularly amongst the youngest age group, 19 to 29 years (35.9%); it should be noted that the national data for this age group excludes 19 year olds. Those aged 60 to 69 years are also somewhat overrepresented in the sample. The age groups most underrepresented are the middle aged (40-59 years).

The gender split of the sample is relatively even (males 48.1%; females 51.9%), which means a slight over-representation of females who constituted 45 percent of all Chinese visitors in 2008 (Ministry of Tourism, 2009).

In terms of length of stay, respondents’ visits to New Zealand were much longer than the national average (Figure 2). While 79 percent of all Chinese visitors to New Zealand stay one week or less, just over a quarter of this sample (28.2%) were in the country for one to seven days, with the largest proportion of the sample (37%) staying between one and two weeks and a further 19 percent staying between two and three weeks. Of the 16.1 percent of respondents who were staying for more than four weeks, five respondents (2.8%) were staying for almost a full year. Excluding these five respondents, the average length of stay for the sample was 13.3 days.

The respondents to this survey were fairly experienced travellers; a third of the sample (33.1%) had visited New Zealand before, compared with only 16 percent of all Chinese visitors to New Zealand (Ministry of Tourism, 2009).
Table 1 outlines the travel party of the Chinese tourists interviewed in the survey. Half of all respondents (53.6%) were travelling with family members or their spouse, with most of the remainder travelling with friends (42.0%). A very small proportion of respondents were either travelling alone (2.8%) or with business associates (1.7%).

Table 1: Travel party

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel party</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travelling alone</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling with family/spouse</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling with friends</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling with business associates</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More than half the sample reported that they were travelling independently (55.6%) rather than as part of an organised group (44.4%; Table 2). The proportion of respondents travelling independently is much higher than amongst this market as a whole, where approximately 71% of the total market is travelling in an organised group (Ministry of Tourism, 2009).

Table 2: Travel type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel type</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travelling as part of organised group</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling independently (FIT)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some interesting differences are apparent when the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents travelling independently (FIT) are compared with those respondents travelling in an organised group (Figures 3 and 4). While 86.3 percent of those on an organised tour were visiting New Zealand for two weeks or less, only half of those respondents travelling independently were in the country for 14 days or less, with a 21 percent staying for four weeks or more.
Similarly there were marked differences in the age distribution of those on organised tours versus independent travellers, with those on organised tours generally being the older visitors. Three-quarters (76.9%) of those under 30 years of age were travelling independently. The age groups most likely to be travelling on organised tours were aged 40-49 years (65.8%) and 60-69 years (63.6%).

Respondents were presented with a list of 32 destinations and asked which of the places they had visited on their trip to New Zealand, with a visit defined as a stay in the place for an hour or more. The top 20 responses are listed in Table 3. Given the location of the survey in Queenstown, it is not surprising that most of the top ten destinations are in the South Island, the exceptions being Auckland and Rotorua. It is interesting to note that of the destinations listed, 13 out the 14 lowest-ranked destinations were national parks. Chinese tourists did visit national parks when they visited some of New Zealand’s most iconic attractions, but it seems they may not have been aware of the national park status of the location. For example while 40.9% of the Chinese tourists stated they had visited Fiordland National Park (location of Milford Sound, which over half of the respondents said they had visited), less than one percent mentioned that they had visited Westland National Park (location of the Franz Josef and Fox Glaciers).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Queenstown</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christchurch</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auckland</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rotorua</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Franz Josef or Fox Glacier</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milford Sound</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>50.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lake Tekapo</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiordland National Park</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunedin</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanmer Springs</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mt Cook</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wellington</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaikoura</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akaroa</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lake Wanaka</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lake Taupo</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waikato</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greymouth</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arthurs Pass National Park</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawkes Bay</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of activities engaged in during their visit, over 80 percent of respondents stated that they had viewed natural landscapes, shopped, visited a museum, taken a scenic boat cruise and learned about Māori culture (Table 4). Learning the stories behind nature was an activity reported by just over half of all respondents (54.1%), while nature-based adventure activities, such as hiking, mountain biking, horse trekking and bungee jumping, generally ranked much lower.

Table 4: Activities engaged in while in New Zealand
Motivations, expectations and satisfaction

In order to understand the destination attributes that brought these visitors to New Zealand, respondents were asked to rank how important a number of attributes in New Zealand were to their reason to visit on a scale where 1 was ‘not important at all’ and 7 was ‘very important’ (see Figure 5). The two most important reasons for Chinese travelling to New Zealand are ‘natural scenery’ (6.52) and ‘New Zealand’s clean and green image’ (6.44); these responses are clearly ahead of any other reasons. The ‘stories behind nature’ (4.99), ‘wildlife’ (4.69) and ‘Māori culture’ were the only other responses to have a mean over 4 (neutral), with adventure sport (2.62) and Chinese heritage (2.6) the lowest rated reason for travelling to New Zealand.
The Chinese tourists were asked what they expected to experience during their time in New Zealand, and were asked to rank a number of potential experiences on a scale of 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”. Expectation generally relates to previous knowledge or marketing and promotion of a place, however expectations can change based on actual travel experiences. For this reason respondents were asked about the importance of certain aspects of this trip to them, reflecting actual experience, rather than prior expectation, and asked to rate these on a scale of 1 ‘not important at all’ to 7 ‘very important’. Respondents were also asked how satisfied they had been with these same aspects of their experience on a scale where 1 was ‘very dissatisfied’ and 7 was ‘very satisfied’. These results are presented in Table 5.

‘Viewing New Zealand’s nature’ was clearly the most expected aspect of their trip to New Zealand, also recording the highest importance and satisfaction levels. Interestingly, ‘learning the stories behind New Zealand’s landscape’ was the second highest expectation, and became more important during their trip, although satisfaction with this aspect of their experience was particularly low; the only satisfaction level rating lower was ‘learning about the history and stories of New Zealand wildlife’. By comparison, the lowest expectations of these Chinese tourists’ trip to New Zealand related to Māori culture – ‘Learning about New Zealand Māori history and culture’ (mean 3.23) and ‘experiencing New Zealand Māori cultural practices’ (mean 3.10) were somewhat unexpected of the trip, but grew in importance during the trip and the tourists reported relatively high satisfaction ratings.

Table 5: Comparison between expectation, importance and satisfaction with activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Expectation mean</th>
<th>Importance mean</th>
<th>Satisfaction mean</th>
<th>Gap score ((S-E)*I)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learn about New Zealand Māori history and culture</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>+8.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience New Zealand Māori cultural practices</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>+8.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View wildlife in its natural habitat</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>+3.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gap analysis is a tool that can help compare tourism products in terms of the actual performance and its potential performance. It is used in this study to analyse the gap between the expectation and importance of eight attributes and respondents’ perceptions of the performance of each. This analysis reveals that the two measures of Māori culture had the most positive gap score, followed by the two measures of learning about and experiencing New Zealand European history and culture. The only gap score which was clearly negative, suggesting expectations have not been met, relates to the highly important attribute ‘learning stories behind New Zealand’s landscape’.

The difference between expectation, importance and satisfaction is revealed graphically in Figure 6, where ‘1’ on each measure is the most negative response, and ‘7’ is the most positive response. This figure reviews high expectation and even higher importance ratings, but much more moderate responses on satisfaction. By comparison on the attributes ‘Learn about Māori history and culture’ (Figure 7) and ‘Experience New Zealand Māori cultural practices’ (Figure 8) expectations are generally low, while importance is moderate and satisfaction high.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Expectation</th>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Performance</th>
<th>Gap Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viewing New Zealand’s nature</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about history and stories of New Zealand wildlife</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>+1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn stories behind New Zealand’s landscape</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>-2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about New Zealand European history and culture</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>+6.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience New Zealand European cultural practices</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>+6.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Learning stories behind New Zealand’s landscapes
DISCUSSION

The findings of this research support previous studies which suggest that the main reasons for Chinese travelling to New Zealand are the destination’s natural scenery and clean, green image (Chan, 2009; Cone, 2005; Ryan & Mo, 2001). This reflects the motivations of most of the country’s international visitors, 90 percent of whom chose New Zealand as a holiday destination due the natural landscape and scenery (Colmar Brunton, 2003).

In terms of their New Zealand experience, it seems that, generally, these Chinese visitors were very satisfied with their experience of the natural scenery, and viewing natural landscapes constituted an important element of their experiences; virtually all respondents stating they had viewed natural landscapes during their trip and 86 percent reporting they had taken a scenic boat trip. Given their desire to view natural scenery, it is interesting to note that the top four destinations visited were urban centres and, apart from visits to New Zealand’s iconic sites such as Aoraki/Mt Cook and Milford Sound, there was little visitation to national parks around the country.

New Zealand’s culture and history is not reported as an important reason for visiting the country amongst this sample, in contrast to previous studies (Cone, 2005; Ryan & Mo, 2001). ‘Māori culture’ ranked
higher than ‘European culture’ as a reason for visiting, but was still relatively unimportant, and neither type of cultural experience was an expected outcome for these tourists. Having said this, it is clear that, during their trip to New Zealand, experiencing and learning about both Māori and European culture grew in importance, with a museum visit and learning about Māori culture being experienced by over 80 percent of respondents. Furthermore, satisfaction levels with cultural experiences were higher than for all other experiences apart from viewing natural scenery. This reflects the fact that satisfaction can be often based on positive unexpected outcomes, as much as expectations (Bowen & Clarke, 2002). These findings suggest that, perhaps, these Chinese tourists have little knowledge about the culture of New Zealand before visiting; a finding reported elsewhere (Mohsin, 2008). Given their obvious satisfaction with this aspect of their visit, more publicity and promotion of the history and culture of New Zealand, both European and Māori, by Tourism New Zealand and tour operators seems warranted.

One aspect that has not been studied in relation to Chinese tourists’ experience of New Zealand in the past is the degree to which New Zealand’s natural landscapes are connected to the culture of the place, and in particular the stories, histories, myths and legends. As stated above, an important element of common Chinese knowledge is the connection between nature and culture in Chinese philosophy, and the sense that landscape without culture is incomplete (Li, 2008). While these Chinese visitors express high levels of satisfaction with their experiences of viewing natural scenery, and seem satisfied with their experiences of New Zealand European and Māori culture, the tourist product they are being offered may lack a connection between the ‘nature’ they are experiencing and the ‘culture’ they expect. This is evident in these respondents’ evaluations revealing generally low levels of satisfaction for ‘learning the stories behind New Zealand’s landscape’ – ranked by respondents as the third highest reason for choosing New Zealand as a tourist destination and second highest for expectation of what they would experience during their trip. Only about half of respondents (54.1%) reported that they were able to learn ‘the stories behind New Zealand’s landscape’, and this experience scored one of the lowest levels of satisfaction – the only category rating lower was ‘learning stories about wildlife’. This deficiency in clearly imparting the ‘stories behind nature’ (landscape and wildlife) appears to offer an important opportunity for the New Zealand tourism industry.

The opportunity to provide deeper connections between nature and culture must also be acknowledged by New Zealand’s Department of Conservation (DOC). In the past, DOC, as the formal steward of more than 30 percent of New Zealand’s terrestrial area, and responsible for the management and administration of most natural attractions (including New Zealand’s 14 national parks), has favoured natural heritage interpretation emphasising geological and ecological processes (Molloy, 1993). Without a more obvious cultural dimension, such emphases may not be attractive to, or relevant for, the Chinese tourist gaze. Active engagement with the ‘culture-scape’ of these natural resource areas through interpretation, and more publicity about the nature-culture interaction, may add greater appeal for this market. While nature and natural areas remain strong attractions for visitors, there is growing recognition of the need to diversify New Zealand’s tourism product beyond the ‘clean green’ image to further realise the potential of cultural tourism.

The New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015 highlights scope for growth of Māori tourism opportunities, asserting that “Māori culture provides a distinctive element” which, combined with our natural attractions, “gives New Zealand its unique position as a tourist destination” (Ministry of Tourism, 2007, p.20; McIntosh, 2004). A secondary motivator for 40 percent of international visitors to New Zealand is the desire to experience the culture and history of the country, with much of this interest focused on Māori cultural products (AC Neilson, 2002, cited in Wilson et al., 2006, p. 8). The current research suggests that more efforts to connect New Zealand’s culture and history – both Māori and Pakeha – to the natural landscape could strengthen the experience for Chinese visitors to the country. This could take the form of telling more stories about the human history of connection to the natural settings as well as embedding more of the Māori myths and legends to provide a ‘richer dimension to the experience’ of landscape (Wilson et al., 2006, p.65). Stakeholders in New Zealand’s tourism industry must identify
appropriate ways to engage meaningfully with Chinese visitors in order to maximise the benefits associated with an emergent tourist segment with considerable growth potential.

CONCLUSION

This research is based on a sample of Chinese tourists in Queenstown which is likely to differ, in a number of ways, from the wider Chinese visitor market in New Zealand. In summary, the sample reported here is made up of respondents who are younger, more likely to be travelling independently, and who spent longer in the country than is typical of the Chinese market as a whole. The extent to which these findings reflect the motivations and experiences of all Chinese visitors to New Zealand could be explored by undertaking a national survey of the market. Qualitative research with Chinese visitors might also provide a more comprehensive understanding of gaps in the existing New Zealand tourist product and further opportunities to provide a cultural framing of nature for this market.

REFERENCES


IMITATED HOST, AUTHENTIC HOST AND GUEST: A CASE STUDY OF KANAS TUVA PEOPLE SETTLEMENTS OF NORTH-WEST CHINA

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IMITATED HOST, AUTHENTIC HOST AND GUEST: A CASE STUDY OF KANAS TUVA PEOPLE SETTLEMENTS OF NORTH-WEST CHINA

ABSTRACT

In tourism destinations, a minority culture that has particular features will be attractive to tourists but may not be the chief beneficiary from tourism. Other ethnic groups, who may also belong to minorities, may take advantage of the situation to obtain profits from the tourism derived from promoting another group’s culture. The interaction of these minorities and the underlying reasons for the phenomenon will be demonstrated in the case of Kanas in north-west China where Kazakh people provide Tuva performances and engage in Tuva Home Visits in the name of Tuva people to cater for tourist preferences. One framework for analyzing the interaction of minorities in multiple minority destinations is proposed and applied in this study of Kanas in China. Also, this study suggests variations in the definition of ‘host’, and therein extends the study of ‘host and guests’.

Keywords: tourism, multi-minority, host, guest

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to describe the patterns of tourism product that is being offered in the Kanas region of China. The emphasis thus lies on description, yet this description is encapsulated in a proposed framework redolent with questions for future analysis. The nature of that questioning is thus an outcome of this paper and thereby signposts future analysis. The paper is structured to describe the problem being examined, to provide a framework of analysis and to describe the positions of the respective stakeholders in the process of imitated cultural performance as one minority ethnic group takes on the persona of a second, seemingly less market aware or concerned, ethnic group.

Globally, tourism destinations that are inhabited by more than one minority are not unknown. For example Amish and Mennonites are neighbours in Crystal Side, Clear Brook, in the United States (Cong, 1991; 1994) and Tuva and Kazakh people are found in the Kanas Scenic Area in China (Wang, Yang, Chen, Yang & Li, 2009). Consequently the interaction among local minorities in tourism destinations requires attention from researchers if a better understanding of the social and culture impacts of tourism is to be developed. As expected, a minority culture that is special and has particular features will be attractive to tourists; but questions arise as to what extent is a given minority the chief beneficiary from tourism, especially in multiple minority areas? In Crystal Side the Amish unique lifestyle has become attractive to tourists; yet another minority group, the Mennonites, who possess a life style closer to modern society and who do not have as many religious restrictions as the Amish, are arguably the main beneficiaries of a developing tourism industry (Cong, 1991).

What are the characteristics of those minorities obtaining more benefits from tourism than others? How do other minorities take advantage of the attractiveness of the minority? In the case of Kanas in northwest China where the first author is currently completing a one-year ethnographic study, these questions will be further researched, and one framework of analyzing...
the interaction of minorities has been established and applied in this context.

**CASE AREA**

*Kanas Nature Reserve (KNR) and Hanas village*

Kanas Nature Reserve (KNR) is located in Alertai region of Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region, China, at E85°60'-87°35', N48°25'-49°51'. It is bordered by China, Kazakhstan, Russia and Mongolia. In the Mongolian language, “Kanas” means “fair, rich and mysterious land”. Kanas Scenic Area covers an area of 10,030 square meters, including seven natural scenic areas and three cultural landscapes. There are mountains, forests, rivers and lakes, fauna and flora. The winter lasts seven months from October to April of the next year, and the road from Kanas to the nearest county is commonly blocked by snow in winter. The three main settlements that serve as the main cultural landscapes are Hanas Village, Hemu Village and Baihaba Village, with a total of 729 households and a population of 2,760, more than 70% of which are Tuva people.

*Figure 1: Location of Kanas Scenic Area*

Kanas Lake, China's deepest fresh water lake, is located in Hanas village and is famous in China as a tourist attraction for its beautiful changing colours; therein Hanas village was the earliest village among the three to participate in tourism.

*Figure 2: Location of three Tuva settlements in Kanas Scenic Area*

It was founded in July, 1985 as the previously nomadic life style came under various pressures including the political. According to the Hanas Village Committee, there are 212 families and 836 people in 2010 and more than 70% are Tuvas. The average income per person was 2957 yuan in 2007. The economy means are mainly animal husbandry and tourism. Locals raise cows, horses, and goats, and make dairy food.
**The ‘authentic’ host – the Tuva people**

Tuva people, also known as “Tuva”, “Dewa” or “Kukumenqiak”, have a long history. Kanas Nature Reserve is the main residential area for Tuva people in China. The total number of Tuva is only around 230,000 worldwide, and most live in Russia and Mongolia. Less than 2,000 Tuvas live in the Alertai region of China’s Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region and the three villages in Kanas Scenic Area are their main settlements. Tuvas speak the Tuva language among themselves, speak Kazakh language with Kazakhs and Hui people, and speak Mongolian with Mongolian people. Because of the relatively isolated geographical location of Kanas, the Tuvas have maintained their own beliefs, customs, religions and codes, means of sustenance and nomadic lifestyle, which attracts curiosity seekers.

**The ‘Imitation’ Host---Kazakh People in Tuva Home Visit Operations**

Tuva people and their culture are attractive to tourists but because of the gap between Tuva and tourists in terms of language, culture, habits and behaviour, the commonalities between the two are few. Because of this asymmetry between the Kanas Scenic Area and tourist generating zones, Tuva do not understand why there are many visitors coming from so far away to gaze at them. Under this circumstance, the Kazakh minority people and some Mongols from the neighboring townships and counties act as intermediaries between Tuvas and tourists. They have a higher educational background, superior business acumen and better communication skills than the Tuva and can speak Chinese and thus communicate better with the Han tourists. As noted above they come to Kanas to participate in tourism through operating Tuva Home Visits and renting horses to tourists for recreational riding.

Among the 10 Tuva Home Visit properties in Hanas Village in 2009, only two were operated by local Tuvas resident in Hanas Village, the other eight are all operated by outsiders, of which five are operated by Han, two by Kazakhs and one by a Mongolian. In these eight Tuva Home Visit businesses most performers are Kazakh or Mongolians from neighbouring townships.

All the Home Visit operations in Hanas Village provide similar tour activities which take a total of about 30 minutes. Three or four staff are involved: one guide, one Suer player and one singer, and in some operations the guide also plays the role of singing and dancing. First, the guide introduces Tuva culture for 5-10 minutes. Then, the player plays the traditional Tuva musical instrument, the Suer, and a Kazakh traditional instrument, the Dombra. After that, the singer sings for guests and proposes a toast to the guests. Lastly, all the performers dance with tourists. Normally, the singers sing two songs that represent traditional throat singing. The tasting of dairy alcohol and snacks is also part of the visit. The price for the Tuva Home Visit activity was 30 RMB per person until 2008 and it rose to 40 RMB per person in 2009.

Some Kazakh performers actually tell the tourists that they are Tuva, since it is the Tuva culture that is being sold as an attraction to the tourists who cannot distinguish between Kazakh and Tuvas from their physical appearance. The Kazakh performers dress in the traditional clothes of Tuva, welcome tourists in the way of Tuva people, and play the traditional Tuva musical instrument. Some Tuva Home Visit properties combine Kazakh culture with Tuva culture, for example, some performers dress in traditional Kazakh clothes and the players also play a Kazakh
traditional instrument Dombra in addition to the Suer. The performers also dance Kazakh style dances. On the wall of Tuva Home Visit operations are hung both Mongolian and Kazakh style minority clothes, and in one Home Visit operation the first author even found Uygur (the largest minority in number in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region) style clothes. These Kazakhs ‘work’ in Hanas Village during the tourism season and return to their neighbouring townships and counties in the non-tourism season. On the other hand, many authentic Tuva people move outside the village in the summer to cut grass for their domestic animals and to maintain their traditional lifestyle. What tourists obtain from the Tuva Home Visit is arguably an inauthentic Tuva cultural experience.

**Guests**

In the late 1990s, the development of Kanas was listed as an important project by Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Regional Government. Subsequently large-scale infrastructure construction for tourism commenced. Tourists come to this beautiful area each year in increasing numbers as shown in Figure Three. Tourist activities include sightseeing, boating, mountain-climbing, hiking, horse riding, visiting ‘Tuva’ homes, and purchasing local foods.

![Figure 3: Tourist numbers and ticket income in the Kanas Scenic Area](image)

**Note:** The rapid decrease of tourist number in 2008 and 2009 could be largely attributed to the impacts of Olympic Games in 2008 and the terrorism event on 5th July in 2009 at Wurumuqi, the capital city of Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region.

**RESEARCH METHODS**

This paper focuses on the findings of a study that involved fieldwork research carried out by the first author spanning 12 months from spring 2009 to autumn 2010. The specific research methods adopted were ethnographic participant observation in seven Tuva Home Visit properties and the village life, unstructured interviews with stakeholders of Tuva Home Visit properties and authorities, and content analysis of the documents from authorities.

The study also involved the first author in visiting seven Tuva Home Visit properties with tourist groups. The performance provided and tourists’ reactions towards the experience were observed.
Thus tourists’ behaviour, interaction with the ‘imitation’ host, and communication with themselves prior to, during and after their visit were all observed in order to explore their expectations and experiences of this tour activity. These observations were supplemented by data derived from “spontaneous chats” (Selanniemi, 1999). In addition to these meetings with tourists, in formal terms, 50 additional people were interviewed, including Tuva people who do not operate Home Visits, Tuva who do operate such visits, Kazakh people operating a Tuva Home Visit, Kazakh people renting horses to tourists, Han people operating Tuva Home Visit, the governors of Hemu and Hanas Township Government, officials of Kanas Management Committee, and tourists. Some were interviewed on more than one occasion, while the formal interviews were complemented by observations drawn from daily contact and participation in village life.

The question “what are the conditions for ‘imitation hosts’ providing ‘inauthentic staged’ performances to tourists?” was explored in this research. A framework is proposed for analyzing the interaction amongst the minorities in these areas, and is used to analyze the “imitated host” phenomenon in the case study as shown in Figure Four.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 4:** Framework for analyzing the interaction amongst minorities in multi-minority tourism destinations

The interaction of minorities in multiple minority tourism areas is hypothesised to be largely influenced by the attractiveness of the area, the degree of tourism development present in the area, the characteristics of minorities, the role of the public authorities, tourists’ motives, outside...
operators (if present), tour agencies and tour guides, and the physical, economic, social and political environment of the community. The attractiveness of the area decides the type of the destination, tourist types and tourist demands and expectations of the area, and how locals, authorities and outsider operators utilize it to develop tourism. Tourism development of the area, including the stage of development, tourist types, tour activities provided, locals’ participation in tourism, etc, provides a context for the interaction of minorities. The characteristics of each minority are the intrinsic factors deciding the interaction. Authorities, on the other hand, are an external determinant factor influencing the interaction of the minorities through the establishment of ‘approved’ tourism policies enforced by licensing and other strategies, both in the presence and absence, and enforcement or non-enforcement. Tourist motivation determines tourist types and the nature of their interest in the area, which in turn influences the destination’s supply of tour activities. Outside operators normally have greater business acumen than the locals and interact with locals in many ways, from directing flows of tourists, negotiating prices and identifying activities that fit desired schedules. Tour operators and tour guides act as the broker between destination and tourists and so influence tourist activities and experience in the destination. The micro physical, economic, social and political environment of the community and the macro environment of the wider region and country to which the community belongs may also be considered. These factors will now be considered with reference to Kanas.

ANALYSIS

Promotion of the Tuva people

Advertising of the area tends to focus on certain themes, such as the small number of Tuva people in China and their unique lifestyle along with the scenic values of Kanas, the location of the only settlements of Tuva in China, and this promotion has succeeded in arousing tourist interest in ‘gazing on Tuvas’ in the Kanas Scenic Area for reasons of curiosity.

The heavy promotion of Kanas is primarily due to the Kanas Management Committee, which has produced many advertising materials around the theme of “beautiful scenery, mysterious Tuva people” that are broadcast on China’s main media, like China Central Television (CCTV) and a major worldwide Chinese language channel, Phoenix TV. The suer, the traditional Tuva musical instrument, is heavily promoted as the symbol of Tuva culture, which, to some extent, misleads tourists to regard any person playing the suer as being a Tuva person. So effectively the Suer has become the symbol of the Tuva people and, as a consequence, Tuva Home Visit operators try to utilize this symbol for their business, thereby reinforcing in the tourist’s mind, the link between suer players and Tuva ethnicity.

Tuva people as a weaker minority

De Kadt (1979) lists three contexts in which tourists and hosts interact: (a) tourists purchasing goods or services from hosts; (b) being side by side without communication; and (c) interacting to exchange information and ideas. Only a small number of Tuvas provide goods or services to tourists directly, and because most tourists are traveling on packaged tours, they seldom ask locals for information and ideas, tending to turn to guides for information. The main interaction between tourists and Tuvas thus fall into the second category, that is, they are side by side
without communication. When contrasted with the Kazakh “imitation Tuvas”, most Tuva are in a weaker position in terms of understanding the Han language (Mandarin), social communication skills, level of education and understanding of business.

Low level of Chinese language

Most Tuva can fluently speak the Tuva, Kazakh and Mongolian languages. However, they tend not to achieve the same fluency in Mandarin for several reasons, including the lack of Han people present over the seven months of winter. Generally speaking, many Tuvas over the age of 30 years have not learnt Mandarin in formal educational institutions, but learn it in interactions with Han. Few can make a speech in Mandarin or fully express their ideas in the Chinese language. This is not to say that all cannot communicate in Mandarin on daily topics for more and more Han outsiders come to Kanas, and an increasing number of young Tuva now learn Chinese as a foreign language in both their three years of primary middle school and three years high-middle school and others receive the help of Chinese language training provided by the township government.

In the tourist season, some Tuva girls work as servers in restaurants, rather in Tuva Home Visit businesses, although the salary of working in a restaurant is less than working in a Tuva Home Visit operation. The main reason for this choice is the language barrier, for as one respondent put it, “working in restaurants does not need (require one) to communicate with tourists very often”.

Low level of opportunity for social interaction with non-Tuva people

Many Tuva in the Kanas Scenic Area are not accustomed to communicating with outsiders. One reason is that, besides the language barrier, they are often engaged in daily patterns of life that spare little time for interaction with outsider Han Chinese and other minorities, and before the advent of tourism they would have had little reason for such interactions.

Low education level

Generally speaking, Tuvas are poorly educated. Many only completed middle school or attended lower level educational institutions. Although the education of Tuvas has been much improved from the 1990s, people achieving tertiary level degree are still few in number. According to local statistics, of 52 graduates in Hemu and Hanas Townships from 1994 to 2010, almost 60% graduated from the technical secondary school and only 6% graduated from tertiary educational institutions.

Low level of business acumen and lack of operating ability

Traditionally the Tuva have lived a nomadic life in the relatively isolated mountainous area for hundreds of years. They know little about operating a business or about the service industry. Few know how to attract tourists, how to serve tourists and how to satisfy tourist needs.

Many Tuva have realized that a good relationship with tour guides and travel agencies is the key to operate successful Tuva Home Visits, but they do not know how to access these guides nor
how to do business with them.

Adherent to their production means

The basis of the Tuva economy is raising livestock such as horses, goats and cows. Summer is the period when Tuvas prepare grass for feeding animals for the whole winter. Therefore, most Tuva are busy with cutting grass on the grassland far from the village in daytime and some live in tents on the grasslands. This provides an opportunity for Kazakhs in the village to pretend to be Tuvas as tourists have little chance to meet authentic Tuvas in the actual villages.

An alternative strategy would exist if Tuva employed others to cut the grass. It is thought the rate for such a job would be 1200-1500 yuan per month, which is similar to the earning of a singer in a Tuva Home Visit. However, this does not appeal to many Tuva as they prefer cutting grass with family members at home and working outside. Consequently it can be inferred that by being busy with their own lifestyle is another reason why Tuvas do not participate in Tuva Home Visit tourism businesses.

Ambivalent reaction to outsiders involved in Tuva Home Visit

The consequence of these attitudes is that many Tuva express anger towards non-Tuva outsiders operating Tuva Home Visits, and to the guides for wrongly introducing “Tuva culture”. However, on the other hand, it is the Tuva who rent their house to these outsiders for economic gain. The following text is from interview notes made by the first author and a Tuva female respondent in February 2010 when the tourism season had not yet started.

Jingjing: Will you rent house this year?
Tuva: Yes. The outsider businessman will come in April to rent the house. Outsiders operating Tuva Home Visit bid higher rents than those operating restaurants.
Jingjing: Do you have any preference to the ethnicity of the renters? Will you rent house to Kazakh or Han people or other minorities?
Tuva: Either ethnicity is OK.

This attitude is quite typical and, as outsiders operating Tuva Home Visits offer higher rents than do those outsiders operating restaurants, the Tuva prefer renting houses to those operating Home Visit operations, regardless of their ethnicity. Indeed, if they did not rent houses to outsiders, those outsiders would have no venue in which to operate a Tuva Home Visit, thereby reducing the cases of “imitated Tuvas”. The truth is a paradox: on the one hand, Tuva people criticize outsiders operating Tuva Home Visits and Kazakhs for pretending to be Tuvas; on the other hand, they rent their houses to provide venues for Kazakhs to pretend to be Tuva.

Even the two Tuva families operating Tuva Home Visits undertake the business more for money than seeking to promote a more ‘authentic’ Tuva culture. One Tuva Home Visit operator said that “Operating Tuva Home Visits has a great potential for earning money. Although it operates not well these years, it will have a good future”.

Kazakh performers in Tuva Home Visits

The Kazakhs are one of the main nomadic minorities in northwestern China. All the Kazakh
people participating in tourism in the Kanas Scenic Area are from other places in the Alertai Region. The Alertai Region, which belongs to Yili Kazakh Autonomous Region of Xinjiang, had over 3 million Kazakh people in 2007, comprising 50.9% of the total population and 88% of the population of 35 minorities living there.

The majority of female staff singing and dancing for tourists in Tuva Home Visits are Kazakhs. Two key reasons may explain this. Like the Tuva, Kazakhs are fond of singing and dancing, and it is said they start to dance when they are children. On the other hand, in contrast with Tuvas, Kazakh have higher education levels, superior business acumen and better communication skills than the Tuva and can fluently speak Chinese with tourists. These characteristics contribute to the fact that Kazakhs know how to convert their hobbies (singing and dance) into profits.

Similarly many players of the suer in Tuva Home Visits are Kazakhs. Some learn the skill for their own entertainment during childhood while others simply learn the suer as a means to gain employment in the businesses. These latter primarily regard suer player as a job and learning the suer provides access to the position. In short the phenomenon occurs because of economic motives, the “superior” minority learn the cultural skills of the “weaker” minority.

A significant literature exists on “host and guest” in tourism settings (e.g. Smith, 1989). Generally, the studies are about the interaction between the two (De Kadt,1979; Inskeep, 1991), the impacts brought by guests upon hosts (Fisher, 2000; Tucker, 2003; Ireland, 1993; Wu and He, 2003), and the participation of hosts in tourism to satisfy the needs of host (Tosun, 2000; Zhou and Ma, 2009). The term ‘Host’ is generally assumed to be the authentic inhabitant in the destination and from this perspective, this paper provides a variation upon the concept of ‘host’, and therein extends the study of ‘host and guest’.

**The outsider operators**

It was noted above that of the 10 Tuva Home Visit businesses in Hanas Village in 2009, only two were operated by local Tuvas, and the other eight were all operated by outsiders including five by Han, the majority group in China. These eight operators of Tuva Home Visit businesses were all from neighbouring townships and counties.

**Economics and performer identity.**

The eight Tuva Home Visit businesses in Hanas Village are all market-directed, initiated by the owners themselves. The main aims are to satisfy tourists to obtain economic gain. Generally, they do not care whether the performers are Tuvas. Their criteria for a singer are to select someone willing to sing and dance in front of tourists, good at communicating with tourists, and to be of good appearance. Few Tuva girls that applied for the position could meet these criteria. On the other hand several Kazakh girls can achieve these standards and therefore the performers in Tuva Home Visit spots are dominated by Kazakhs, who also are physically different from Han and thus can be said to be ‘Tuva’.

**Alienation between the authentic host and “imitated host” entrepreneurs**
It has been stated that the outsider operators rent houses from local Tuvas to operate Tuva Home Visit business. One practice is that when government officials examine the operation, the Tuva house owner state that the Home Visit was operated himself/herself. A number of reasons dictate this, of which the primary two are (a) legislative, because the authorities forbid the locals to rent houses to outsiders and (b) economic, renting the houses while away working in the grasslands is an easy way to supplement traditional income sources. For their part the outsiders gain financially by operating Tuva Home Visit business, and thus compensate the Tuva landlord. To counteract this, the authority pays compensation to the local Tuva not to rent houses, but this compensation was much less than the rent before 2005 when renting house was permitted by the authority. In other words, the locals are made worse off by the authority if they comply with the regulations, but if they both rent their premises and state that they are complying with the regulations, the Tuva can gain both a rent and compensation.

Cooperation between the operators of Tuva Home Visit and tour guides

The Tuva Home Visit is an optional tour activity on most tour itineraries. Consequently tour guides take the opportunity to recommend it to tourists to obtain commission from the operators. Hence, in turn, for most tour guides, the primary criterion for recommending a specific Tuva Home Visit Property to tourists is the amount of commission paid by the operator, and perhaps the service quality, rather than whether the performer is an authentic Tuva person. Service quality, like the communication between the performers and tourists, is important when tour guides evaluate the Home Visit businesses as satisfied tourists are more likely to recommend a given guide or pay a gratuity to the guide. From observation, in terms of service quality, the Home Visit spots operated by Han and Kazakh people are better than those operated by the Tuva because the Tuva fail to meet service standards not possessing either knowledge of the market needs nor business acumen. In this circumstance, the outsider operators cooperate with tour guides, providing tourists a staged inauthentic Tuva performance in authentic Tuva’s houses that meets tourists’ needs better than the ‘authentic’ Tuva operators.

The role of government

The importance of who makes the decisions regarding the direction and development of tourism has been discussed by many researchers (e.g. Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Nunez, 1977; Swain, 1977). The issue ‘who in community X are the power holders?’(Emerson, 1962) is especially crucial in discussing tourism in Chinese background. Some studies about China (Fan, Wall, & Mitchell, 2008; Gu & Ryan, 2008; Sofield & Li, 2007) specifically refer to the roles of government and call for attention on and further study about China’s specific political environment and the powerful influence of government.

“Residents and other stakeholders participation in decision-making has not been recognized as important in planning documents, nor has it been addressed in practice” in developing countries (Timothy, 1999, p.383). This is especially the case in Kanas Scenic Area. Tuva people, the locals, have little voice in decision-making of the community. The Kanas Management Committee is in charge of the administration of Kanas Scenic Area; however, the leaders are Han or Kazakhs, but there are no Tuvas. The Tuva Home Visit operations are mainly administered by Hemu and Hanas Township Government and Tourism Bureau of Kanas Management Committee. Again it seems Tuva staff in the two organisations have little voice in the management of Tuva Home
Visits.

The authorities of the Kanas Scenic Area do not object to the imitation Tuva phenomenon, which can be seen from the management of Tuva Home Visit operations and the promotion of the Tuva people in the media. A lack of control towards the admission of the imitation Tuva Home Visits, the low level management of the businesses, and the pretended Tuva phenomenon in the promotion material all reveal the ‘silence’ of the authorities toward the staged imitated Tuva phenomenon.

The tourists

“A motive is an internal factor that arouse, directs and integrates a person’s behavior” (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 257). However, a trip is rarely compelled by one single motive (Crompton, 1979; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Mansfeld, 1992). Crompton (1979) suggests a conceptual framework consisting of nine motives for travel. Seven of these motives are within socio-psychological motivational domains, including escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, prestige status, relaxation, enhancing kinship and relations, regression, and facilitation of social interaction. Novelty and culture are classified as cultural factors. Furthermore, Crompton and McKay (1997) identified six motive domains with reference to visit to festivals, including cultural exploration, novelty/regression, recovering equilibrium, reinforcing familiar group socialization, external interaction/socialization, and gregariousness. This means the motivations of tourists are highly complex in nature. Some studies suggest that only a minority of tourists are “purposeful” cultural tourists or highly motivated for cultural tourism reasons (Ryan & Huyton, 2000, 2002). For most tourists, to meet local people is not their first motivation (McIntosh & Ryan, 2007). For example, Maori culture was not the primary motivation for visits to New Zealand, even though such meetings can create complementary occasions of emotive power under certain conditions (McIntosh, 2004; Ryan, 2005). It can be inferred that most tourists to Kanas Scenic Area probably do not care whether the performers are authentic Tuvas or whether the performance is about Tuva culture. For many tourists, a Tuva Home Visit is only one of the optional tour activities in Kanas, which could add to their tour experience, regardless of authenticity of the local culture, and which serves the purpose of an entertainment representing a ‘curiosity’ to be gazed upon.

Of the tourists visiting Kanas, 98% in 2007, and 99% in 2008 are domestic Chinese nationals and over 60% of the tourists are Han people. Few will have seen Tuva before coming to Kanas, and indeed it is possible to travel in Kanas without meeting Tuva. Few tourists could distinguish Tuva from Kazakhs or Mongolians. From this perspective, if the majority of tourists are inbound tourists, there also remains the possibility that Han could imitate the Tuvas rather hiring Kazakhs because foreign tourists can hardly distinguish Han and Chinese ethnic minority peoples.

Tour operators and tour guides

It is also necessary to understand the structure of incomes of tour guides in China. The main income of most tour guides is not the salary from the tour operators for whom they work, but the commission from tourist businesses. Tour guides obtain only a very low salary from tour operators, or even no salary. They have to recommend tourists shopping and optional tour
activities to obtain income. Hence a Tuva Home Visit is one of the optional tour activities that tour guides recommend to tourists to gain a commission.

As previously noted, most tour guides’ primary criterion for recommending a Tuva Home Visit Property is the amount of commission received from the operator, rather than whether the performer is an authentic Tuva person. Until 2008, the ticket for Tuva Home Visit was priced at 30 RMB per person. The main promotion of each Home Visit is to give commissions to tour guides who would suggest tourists choose a Tuva Home Visit as an optional tour activity in Kanas. All the Tuva Home Visit businesses provide similar tour activities, and the price competition among them is fierce. From 2005 to 2008, the commissions to tour guides had risen from 5 RMB per tourist to 28 RMB per tourist. That means the guide could obtain 28 RMB from each tourist purchasing the optional tour activity of a Tuva Home Visit. Since 2009, the ticket has risen to 40 RMB per tourist, and the commission to tour guides has fallen to 20 RMB per tourist. In other words, the operator and the tour guide shared the same amount of money earned from each tourist. The common pursuit for economic gain binds tour guides and operators together in a relationship marked by tension and uncertainty from one season to another.

CONCLUSION

The term “Host” can be understood from three perspectives: (1) the operator behind the host as perceived by the tourist; (2) the host of tourism accommodation with whom the tourists actually interact (e.g. the operators, managers and various other hospitality personnel); and (3) the host of local culture (the ‘authentic’ host tourists expect to interact with). The host that the tourists expect to interact with is the host that is perceived by tourists from the perspective of culture, not from the perspective of those resident in the place or operating the business. This is especially the case in multi-minority areas. Although both Mennonites and Amish inhabit in Crystal Side in the United States (Cong, 1991; 1994), tourists expect to interact with Amish because of their special culture, not Mennonites. Although there are Tuva, Kazakhs, Hui and some Han people living in Kanas of China, what tourists expect is to experience the Tuva culture.

It can be seen from the above case that the framework can be used to explain the “imitated host” phenomenon in Kanas of Xinjiang, China, but also can be used to demonstrate similar interactions amongst other minorities. The attractiveness of the destination, stage of tourism development, the characteristics of the minorities, authorities, tourists, and outsider operators (if present) all have a great influence on the role of minorities in tourism. Yet it is recognized that the framework requires further testing in other multiple minority tourism destinations to assess whether it permits a wider generalisation.

It could be argued that in some tourism areas inhabited by two or more indigenous ethnic groups, when two conditions exist, namely when (1) some minority(minorities) is (are) “superior” than other minority(minorities) in terms of commercial awareness, education, communication with outside world, etc; and (2) the culture of the relatively “weaker” indigenous group is a main attraction of the area, then the “superior” minority group(s) may take advantage of the culture of the relatively “weaker” group for their own benefits. Such an approach can be demonstrated in a ladder model as shown in Figure ?.
Figure 5: Ladder model of social stratification in multi-minority inhabited tourism destination

It should be emphasized that the terms “weaker” and “superior” are here only used for the convenience of comparing the difference of ethnicities in terms of commercial awareness and market oriented business skills, and not as an evaluative term of cultural norms. There are, obviously, equally legitimate alternatives to any market oriented model. In this ladder model, the middle, more market aware minority becomes the broker of cultures and represents the culture of the less market oriented group to satisfy the tourist market that is represented by the right hand side of the diagram. What remains to be considered are the consequences of the model for the retention of cultural integrities, and the understanding of those cultures by those to whom a culture is portrayed. Equally problematic is the role of government bodies charged with further development of a tourism industry that is perceived as a key contributor to further economic development. The political and social climate of China is driven by an economic imperative of growth – by a need to lift millions from poverty, by a need for growth that sustains the ‘harmonious society’, by the need to avoid discrepancies of wealth across China, because such discrepancies have the potential for societal dysfunctioning. Within this context the presence of a group that prefers maintenance of a tradition rooted in pre-market times poses a problem for several reasons. First, as noted, young Tuva now attend formal schooling and over time acquire aspirations not known by their predecessors, while also having to take their place in a changing world. Culture is important as a source of identity, and while the Tuva have arguably negotiated a space whereby they can retain their summer grassland life styles and gain income from tourism through rents, the danger is they are being represented to governmental decision making bodies in ways inconsistent with their traditions. There are many issues and problems inherent in the processes described above, and these issues will form the basis for future writings when allied to a more detailed analysis of data that will be undertaken when the first author returns to New Zealand in the southern hemisphere spring.

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MEDICAL TOURISM: BANGLADESHI CONSUMERS’ CHOICE OF DESTINATION COUNTRY

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MEDICAL TOURISM: BANGLADESHI CONSUMERS’ CHOICE OF DESTINATION COUNTRY

ABSTRACT

The factors influencing medical tourism among Bangladeshi citizens remains an unexplored territory. This study is a pioneering attempt to gauge the preferences of medical tourism consumers from Bangladesh and to test a decision making model that determines their country of choice. In line with previous findings, this study found cost of treatment and quality of services to be important decision-making factors. Other decision-making factors identified were: history of successful treatment; and, the image of the service provider (physician). Brand image of destination hospitals significantly correlated with the availability of culturally appropriate food (Halal food) and accommodation in the packages provided. However, Bangladeshi consumers’ preference of Malaysia as a destination over Thailand introduces a new element to decision-making factors, i.e. religious and cultural relatedness. The study empirically tests previous decision-making models of consumers of medical tourism and proposes relevant developments to capture the evolving nature of consumer behaviour within this service industry. This study provides useful information for practitioners of medical tourism as findings may be instrumental for the development of marketing strategies in promoting medical tourism.

Keywords: Medical tourism, decision making model, Bangladesh, consumer choice.

INTRODUCTION

As emerging nations accelerate their economies, creating a wealthy middle class, swelling numbers of health care consumers are willing to travel to secure what they perceive to be high quality medical care (Karp, 2008). There are also growing numbers of uninsured patients in the developed world, facing high cost of medical care at home. They are travelling abroad to seek lower cost alternatives. A bidirectional flow of tourists seeking medical help is the new trend of the medical tourism industry (Horowitz & Rosensweig, 2008). This new trend has introduced an opportunity for many countries to develop a completely new industry providing services to this niche market of tourists. In 2005, for example, India, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand attracted more than 2.5 million medical travellers (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific [UNESCAP], 2008). Singapore, India, Thailand, Brunei, Cuba, Hong Kong, Hungary, Israel, Jordan, Lithuania, Malaysia, the Philippines and United Arab Emirates are now emerging as major health care destinations. However, Asia remains the main region for medical tourism (Conell, 2006). By 2012, Asian medical tourism is expected to generate $4.4 billion a year (The Daily Star, 2006). Despite having attracted a lot of commercial attention particularly in the developing countries, this emerging field has only a few academic studies focusing on it. There are about a dozen of non-academic books available in the market on this subject and most of their focus is on Asian countries like India and Thailand and the nature of the services being provided by these countries. The demand side of this industry is often poorly understood even by the supplier countries that are designing their services only from a supplier perspective. It is now more important to understand the demand side of this service industry with the new emerging nations providing the industry with a new class of patient customers who have their distinct nature of social and cultural background. To the best of the authors’ knowledge there has not been any studies considering the emerging supplier countries and the nature of the service
demands by the customers from these countries. This study looks into medical tourism consumers in Bangladesh and attempts to identify their major motivating factors in decision making when seeking overseas medical help. With growing population pressure and inadequate medical services the number of patients seeking foreign medical services has grown over the years. Understanding the dynamics of this phenomenon and developing guidelines for improvement of services in this sector is therefore identified as essential research areas.

THE STUDY

Definition of Medical tourism

The definition of medical tourism varies widely in the literature. Definitions varied in their considerations either of the supply side or the demand side of this service industry. Goodrich and Goodrich (1987, p. 219) defines healthcare tourism as ‘the attempt on the part of a tourist facility or destination to attract tourists by deliberately promoting its health-care services and facilities, in addition to its regular tourist amenities’, thus emphasising the supply side. Hall (1992) placed stronger emphasis on the demand side and viewed health tourism as comprising of three elements- staying away from home, health as the primary motive, and occurring in a leisure setting. Distinguishing health tourism from the wider tourism phenomenon is important as product perceptions on the part of both suppliers and consumers influence the extent to which more specialised travel experiences such as medical treatment are promoted to mainstream markets (Bennet, King, & Milner, 2004). According to Gupta (2004) medical tourism can be defined as the provision of cost-effective medical care to patients in collaboration with the tourism industry. Connell (2006) defined medical tourism as constituting a form of popular mass culture whereby individuals travel long distances to obtain medical, dental, or surgical services while being holidaymakers in a more conventional sense. Carrera and Bridges (2006) defined medical tourism as, ‘organised travel outside one’s natural health care jurisdiction for restoration of individual’s health through medical intervention.’ More recently, according to Bookman and Bookman (2007), ‘the sale of high tech medical care to foreigners has come to be called medical or health tourism’.

It was important to define medical tourism for this study - in order to understand the behaviour demonstrated by the Bangladeshi consumers, the context has to be defined. A better understanding of the term should supply a parameter to judge the decision making factors of these consumers. These definitions for medical tourism are variant and sometimes unclear or too restrictive. For this research, a more holistic approach to the definition was used. Medical tourism is defined as the acts by a potential traveller seeking any kind of preplanned medical intervention in a foreign country for betterment of the patients’ health.

Rationale of the study

The ease of seeking medical treatment and services overseas contributes to the globalisation of the healthcare market. Segouin, Hodges & Brechat (2005, p. 277) refer to globalisation as “the circulation of goods and services in response to criteria of efficiency”. Cortez (2008) argues that healthcare services has one of the most “rapidly growing markets in the world”. The growing trend of medical tourism is not merely seen on an individual patient basis- many corporations are also investigating the potential benefits of this form of tourism. For example, employers are
considering medical outsourcing as an option for their employees, in order to experience significant cost savings. Numerous employer-sponsored insurance plans are comparing the cost savings of offshore healthcare with the unknown risks of treatment abroad (Marlowe & Sullivan, 2007). Medical tourism makes a significant contribution to many of the world’s economies, with statistics showing that the industry worldwide generates about US $60 billion annually. Medical tourism in Malaysia, Thailand, Singapore, and India alone is projected to generate more than US $ 4.4 billion per year by 2012 (Singh, 2008). The sector’s proceeds in India are estimated to reach as much as US $4 billion a year by 2012 (Bookman & Bookman, 2007; Singh, 2008). Singapore set itself the target of attracting more than US $1.6 billion (Medical tourism, Asia’s growth industry, 2006). This expected growth has been made possible for two basic reasons. The first is, from the supply perspective where some developing countries have focused on attracting tourists/patients to come for treatments. The government of India introduced a ‘medical visa’ to boost the medical tourism sector (BBC News, 2005). This allowed patients to obtain visa for the duration of their treatment and extend it for up to a year, a unique feature which does not exist within the regular tourist visa category. Initiatives from many of these countries have certainly demonstrated their intention to conform to the demand from the global market. The second reason for this achievement points to the demand side of the market where newer countries from the developing nations have started seeking this kind of service. However, whether or not suppliers have understood their customers rightly requires investigation. It is even more important to have a better understanding of the emerging markets of this industry because the traditional sources of medical tourists, the countries from the west, have already been targeted by existing renowned suppliers such as Singapore and Thailand.

Therefore, the new entrants to this industry need to understand alternative markets and the nature of these customers to design a market strategy to become competitive in the industry. Often the success of medical tourism depends on quelling the fears of prospective patients. The consideration of travelling from a developed country to a developing country for medical treatment may require breaking stereotypes. But a patient travelling from a developing country may have different perceptions from their Western counterpart. Medical tourists from these developing and underdeveloped countries may consider additional benefits before choosing a country of their destination other than only the cost and quality factors; predominantly identified in many of the previous literary works in this field (Horowitz & Rosenweig, 2008; Palvia, 2007). Bangladesh has maintained more or less a stable economic growth rate of GDP at around six percent (6%) annually over the last five years (World Bank, 2010). There are affluent middle class and higher middle class groups who have gathered the capability of seeking overseas medical help and they are actively looking for options to avail this kind of service. This study explores the attitudes and beliefs of Bangladeshi medical tourists deciding on their country of destination to seek medical services. As a result the study identifies the needs from a demand perspective of the new emerging segment of this industry.

Existing theoretical models

The theory of planned behaviour (TpB) is a widely used psychological model that examines the factors influencing behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). It allows the identification of important influences on behaviour in order to predict and change such behaviour. The theory contends that behaviour is most proximally predicted by behavioural intention, if the person has control over performing
Further, behavioural intention is predicted from three antecedents: attitudes about the behaviour; perceptions of important others’ approval of performing the behaviour (subjective norms); and perceived control over performing the behaviour. The behavioural intention depends on the perception of the behaviour in relations to one’s self. If the person holds a negative belief towards an outcome of one’s behaviour (e.g. finding a very competent and well trained doctor in a developing country is unlikely), he/she will be more likely to refrain from that behaviour, compared with someone who has a positive belief towards that behavioural outcome (e.g. finding affordable and private health care in developing countries is more likely) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Subjective norms can be summarised as the value given to the opinions of the people important to them (e.g. friends and family). Whether they would approve the behaviour or not is important in this case. Finally, according to this theory, a person’s perceived ability to carry out such behaviour through to completion will influence the intention to perform the behaviour.

Smith and Forgione (2007) developed a two-stage model that indicates the factors that influence a patient’s decision to seek health-care services abroad. The theory explains that the decision has two phases: the first phase involves the choice of country from which to seek medical help. At this phase the potential medical tourists consider economic conditions, political climate and regulatory policies when deciding on the country of choice. The choice of the international medical facility is made in the second phase and according to the theory involves costs, physician training, quality of care and accreditation.

Heung, Kucukusta and Song (2010) propose an integrated model including both the supply and the demand side of this industry. They incorporated the factors of advertising and distribution channel, country selection aspects, hospital selection aspects and physician selection aspects on the demand side. They also proposed infrastructure/superstructure, promotion, quality and communication to be included in the supply side of their model. This model summarises the earlier models and takes a holistic approach to understanding the medical tourism phenomenon.

This study incorporates theoretical factors identified in the above-mentioned theories and incorporates them in its own framework to identify their applicability and relevance for the Bangladesh market. The framework developed for this study considered quality consciousness, cost consciousness, the image/goodwill of the physician, the location of the service provider and the availability of suitable food and accommodation as major factors influencing the decision of patients from Bangladesh in choosing a country for medical assistance.

**Methods**

To investigate the importance of the factors in decision making for Bangladeshi medical tourists, the researchers gathered information from existing medical tourism users of Bangladesh. The data was collected through a questionnaire survey. All the participants were given a letter from the researchers explaining the context of the research focus. All participation was voluntary. If the participants wanted to withdraw, they were free to do so at any time. For this survey, the variables of interest were the identified factor that influences the medical tourism users’ attitude towards a decision of a destination country. The stratification factor used was the location of the respondents. This factor was chosen because it seemed reasonable to suppose that it was related to people's attitudes. Simple random samples are then selected from each stratum. The study was
conducted in one location only, in the city of Dhaka inside Bangladesh, due to time and budget constraints. The population were dwellers of the Dhaka city. The samples were collected randomly from Dhaka city who might be a potential tourism service user. The researchers randomly distributed the questionnaire among 150 potential tourists waiting in queues in front of the Singapore, Indian, Malaysian and Thailand embassies. These embassies were selected as they were believed to be the major destination of Bangladeshi medical tourists seeking overseas medical help.

A structured questionnaire was used in this study to collect data from customers. The researchers utilised ten different sets of questions to measure the variables. In the questionnaire, there were two basic sections, the first containing the demographic details of the respondents and the second being the user behaviour of the respondents. Question number 1 with all its subsections were used to collect data about the respondents’ demography. Questions 2-10 were designed to collect information about the consumption behaviour of medical tourism users from Bangladesh. After the analysis of collected questionnaire only 116 responses were accepted as usable samples from the population.

RESULTS

The sample demonstrated a set of results that establishes characteristics of the uses behaviour and the trend of medical tourists seeking similar services from overseas market. The majority of the patients aspiring to seek medical tourism services were predominantly male (74.1%). The majority (69%) of the sample taken from this population were aged 40 and over, indicating that the majority of medical tourism users from Bangladesh is likely to be of middle age. Many respondents (40.5%) had stated a Master’s degree as their educational qualification. Almost forty five percent (44.8%) of the respondents indicated Government service as their profession. Almost forty percent (39.7%) of the respondents were found to be earning around US$1371-US$2914 annually which is much higher than the average per capita income of US $520 for Bangladesh (World Bank, 2009). The majority of the respondents (77.6%) were married and the religious profile demonstrated a predominantly Muslim segment (93.1%). This is in alignment with the Muslim prevalence of the total population (88%) (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade NZ, 2010).

In response to the question asked to give reasons for seeking medical services overseas, the two large segments identified quality of service (47.5%) followed by the cost effectiveness (37%) as the reason. This emphasised the quality and cost sensitivity of patients from Bangladesh. The preferred country of destination for the patients from Bangladesh were in the following order; India (50%), Singapore (39.7%), Malaysia (9.5%) and Thailand (0.9%) (Figure 1). Thailand being an established medical tourism destination in the world trend was previously believed to be a preferred destination over Malaysia, for the Bangladeshi customers. But this study shows that Bangladeshi patients preferred Malaysia over Thailand. The justification of this preference can be correlated with the findings that these patients gave high importance on the availability of Food and Accommodation facilities similar to their ethnic and religious culture.
When asked to grade the importance of different factors in making the country of choice decision on a five point likert scale (1 being less important and 5 being very important) the highest importance demonstrated was on quality, cost and the image of the service provider (Physician) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Importance of various factors weighted on a five point likerts scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>4.7586</td>
<td>0.52121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>4.4828</td>
<td>0.65252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image of the service provider (physicians)</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>4.4138</td>
<td>0.69868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and Accommodation</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.7931</td>
<td>0.82901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.6293</td>
<td>0.75216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand (Hospitals)</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.6638</td>
<td>0.81234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The expected budget of expenditure for these patients was US$5000-US$10000. About sixty percent of the patients (59.5%) had an expected budget at this range. Almost fifty percent (47.4%) of the respondents preferred to travel with a family member when seeking treatment in an overseas country.

Contrary to the findings of earlier studies, visa accessibility, the quality of services received from the travel agents and the local representatives of the hospitals while preparing for the trip were identified by the respondents in the sample from Bangladesh as not being very important in the decision making process.
DISCUSSION

The results found in this study correlates with some of the earlier findings of studies of similar nature (e.g. Bookman & Bookman, 2007; Connell, 2006; Palvia, 2007). It reemphasises that quality is important for customers in this industry. Bangladeshi consumers of the medical tourism industry have demonstrated similar preferences while making their choice of country; however most respondents had given equal weight-age on cost effectiveness. This is contrary to the findings of an earlier study (e.g. Ehrbeck, Guevara, & Mango, 2008) where the importance of lower cost medical care were found to be a minor factor in choosing a country in seeking medical help. This particular type of cost-concious/quality-concious niche of the total market was identified to be the fourth largest segment having nine percent of the total market share in an earlier study (Ehrbeck et al, 2008). Although this is only a small proportion of the total market this segment was believed to have the greatest potential for growth. As the price of treatments varies greatly around the world, patients can save significant amounts of money, depending on the procedure sought.

The segment from Bangladesh can be profiled as highly price sensitive patients seeking quality services at a cost effective price. They usually travel with family members and they give high importance on the availability of culturally-sensitive food and accommodation (possibly Halal for patients coming from the Muslim nations) to cater their religious needs. A strong element in the Malaysian strategy for medical tourism service providers from Malaysia has been to capitalise on its image as a Muslim country, with easily available Halal food and convenient accommodation for practising Muslims (Leng, 2007). As the results of this study reflect, this strategy is working effectively as there seems to be a preference by Muslim consumers from Bangladesh to Malaysia as a destination country over Thailand. When a correlational analysis was carried out (Table 2) in this study there was a significant correlation found with the preference of location and the availability of appropriate food and accommodation.

Table 2: Correlational analysis of Food/Accommodation and location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Food and Accommodation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The biggest hurdle that medical tourism has had to face, and continues to face, is the challenge of convincing distant potential visitors that medical care in relatively poor countries is comparable with that available at home, in outcome, safety and even in dealing with pain thresholds. Bangladeshi consumers’ attitudes towards the destination country are somewhat free from this prejudice as they are visiting a relatively richer nation to seek medical services and thus expectations on quality are normally high. This quality is also perceived by the patients through the interpretation of branding of a particular hospital. Bangladeshi patients give high importance to the branding of the hospital and the image of the physician who is providing medical services to the patient. This has been demonstrated in the correlational analysis (Table 3) where there is a
significant positive correlation with the location and the brand of the hospital and image of the physician.

Table 3: Correlational analysis of Food/Accommodation and location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Preferred Country</th>
<th>Image of the physician</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Brand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preferred Country</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.205(*)</td>
<td>0.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image of the physician</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.294(**)</td>
<td>0.217(*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>0.205(*)</td>
<td>0.294(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.435(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.217(*)</td>
<td>0.435(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Another important country that has been identified by the Bangladeshi customers as the most preferred nation for seeking medical help is India. India uses word of mouth communication mode of marketing to disseminate information about their services aggressively (Gopal, 2008). In India, Apollo hospital has been a forerunner in attracting medical tourism in India. On an average it attracts around 95000 tourists many of whom are of Indian subcontinent origin (Gopal, 2008). The group has tied up with hospitals in Mauritius, Tanzania, Bangladesh, Yemen and Srilanka. This country promotes itself as the global centre for medical tourism offering everything from ayurvedic treatment to complex coronary bypass surgery and cosmetic surgery. To become the most important global hub for medical tourism it has upgraded its technology, absorbed western medical protocols and emphasized low cost and prompt attention. The proximity of the country plays an important role in choosing India as a destination for seeking medical help by the Bangladeshi patients. The similarity in food habits and languages spoken and understood by the Indian population may also influence the Bangladeshi patients to decide on India as a destination country. This preference for India questions the applicability of the proposed model of Theory of Planned behaviour (TpB) in understanding the behaviour of the medical tourists from Bangladesh. A typical Bangladeshi medical tourist should seek a country where they might have perceived control over the outcomes, referrals from their acquaintances and an assurance that they can complete the task as described in the theory. However, Bangladeshi customers have preferred a country like India compared to Singapore that has a widely accepted reputation of being a destination country for medical tourists. Thu, there may be other factors, such as cultural similarity and availability of culturally sensitive food and accommodation, that play major roles in deciding a country of choice for medical tourism.

CONCLUSION

This study was undertaken to understand the consumption behaviour of medical tourists from Bangladesh and has offered another view of this largely unexplored Bangladeshi market. As the economy of this country is becoming stronger, it is expected that the consumption of this particular service will increase within Bangladesh. Countries seeking to explore this market should consider the recommendations of this study.
Destination marketers who are planning to enter this market should have a holistic marketing plan to ensure the best outcome. The following recommendations are thus made:

- Cost is of major concern for consumers of this market. Therefore effective pricing should be considered.
- Marketing individual success stories of physician expertise through word of mouth can be an effective marketing strategy as the consumers from Bangladesh value the physician’s reputation.
- As food and accommodation is important for consumers of this niche market it is suggested that packages are prepared which include these facilities in the price.
- Quality can be demonstrated in this market through effective branding of the service provider organisations. Consumers value the brand image of the organisation they are planning to seek service from when deciding on a destination location.
- As government employees are the major receiver of this service, special packages can be designed giving priority to this segment.

Further research in this field may include the following themes: (1) the supply of medical tourism in a given region or country could be analyzed through qualitative methods, combined studies encompassing both the supply and demand perspectives to develop a more effective model of decision making in this industry; (2) a longitudinal study of a given medical tourism destination that would allow in-depth analysis of both supply and demand side and (3) a cross cultural study could be carried out to compare the medical tourism consumption behaviour between two or more regions in the future.

REFERENCES


REPRESENTATIONS OF AUSTRALIA’S TOURISM DESTINATION IMAGE: REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN NARRATION THEMES AND TOPICS BY KOREAN TRAVEL AGENTS IN AUSTRALIA

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REPRESENTATIONS OF AUSTRALIA’S TOURISM DESTINATION IMAGE: REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN NARRATION THEMES AND TOPICS BY KOREAN TRAVEL AGENTS IN AUSTRALIA

ABSTRACT

Representational narration can represent a useful tool in the interpretation of destination image formation. The purpose of this study is to examine regional differences in expressions of key themes and topics regarding images of Australia as a tourism destination represented by Korean travel agents in Australia. This study employed content analysis using NVivo in exploring the destination image of Australia through representational narrations by Korean travel agents in three major Australian cities. Data were collected through in-depth interviews with 32 travel agents in 32 travel agencies in Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide specialising in inbound travel from Korea to Australia. Representational narrations by Korean travel agents in Australia are used to reflect the views of Korean tourists visiting Australia. Significant differences were found regarding image features. Firstly, agents in Sydney commonly described the natural environment and native animals whereas Brisbane agents discussed adventure and outdoor activities and Adelaide agents were strongly reminiscent of study, comfort and relaxing. Secondly, there were significant differences in motivation for visiting these three cities: new experiences and learning (Sydney), exploration and activities for pleasure (Brisbane), and visiting friends and relatives (Adelaide). Thirdly, different age groups preferred different cities: Sydney is inclusive of all age groups while Brisbane attracts relatively young age groups and Adelaide has mainly older visitors. Lastly, the use of the internet varied among the visitors to the three cities, with the internet used most often for travel to Brisbane. The findings may be useful to destination marketers to understand how Korean visitors perceive differences between Australian destinations.

Keywords: Tourism destination image, in-depth interviews, Korean travellers, Australia, regional differences

INTRODUCTION

Since destination image affects tourists’ perceptions, feelings, travel behaviour and destination choice and these emotions are subjective towards even the same destination, the importance and awareness of the tourism destination image is commonly acknowledged (Chon, 1991; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Kim & Richardson, 2003). In addition, tourists’ images of a destination are unique, constructed from their memories and imagination of that destination (Jenkins & McArthur, 1996). Due to the importance of this information, it is necessary to research destination image and is also beneficial to determine characteristics in order to evaluate destination images.

In recent decades, various tourism researchers (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001; Castelltort & Mader, 2009; Frias, Rodriguez & Castaneda, 2007; Govers, Go & Kumar, 2007) have emphasised that tourism destination image is a valuable concept, because a good understanding of tourists’ perceived image enables destination marketers to attract potential tourists. Destination image has been created by providing tourists with available information, such as communication channels (e.g. TV,
magazines), physical channels (e.g. travel agents, tourism suppliers, travel information centres) and reference groups (Cho, Wang & Fesenmaier, 2002; Lee & Park, 2003). Furthermore, the development of the internet has revolutionised the communication environment and enables tourists to form their destination images effectively by integrating online promotion activities (Lee, 2009).

South Korea has become one of the principal outbound tourist generating countries in Asia and Pacific region in recent decades (Cho, 1998), since entirely removing overseas travel restrictions in January 1989. In addition, the Korean government turned its attention to developing tourism, following decades of fostering manufacturing (Ahn & Ahmed, 1994). Consequently, the number of Korean tourists travelling overseas has increased from 725,000 in 1988 to nearly 12 million in 2008 (KNTO, 2009). The reasons are an improved standard of living, increased disposable income and increased tourism demand are key characteristics of the present tourism environment in the Korean market (Ko, 2000). In 2009, Korea’s top five outbound destinations were China, Japan, Thailand, the United States and the Philippines and Australia was the thirteenth preferred destination (Australia Tourism Commission, 2010). Concurrently, as an overseas holiday and pleasure travel destination, Korea is the 5th inbound market in Australia (Australian Tourism Commission, 2010) due to strong economic growth, the liberalisation of outbound travel regulations, the commencement of direct flights between the two countries, a favourable image of Australia, and the Australian Tourist Commission’s effective promotions (Cho, 1998).

Despite the importance and impact on destination image formation by Korean tourists, past research on this issue has been limited, although Australia’s destination image has been studied in some research (Huang & Gross, 2010; Murphy, 1999; Ross, 1993; Son & Pearce, 2005). While admitting the necessity of the research regarding destination image by Korean tourists towards Australia, research on the topic of Korean tourists travelling to Australia as destination formation are still in their infancy. Furthermore, destination image has been measured in various ways mainly using quantitative methods. In the tourism literature various studies used qualitative research methods (Huang & Gross, 2010; Kim & Jamal, 2007; Xiao & Mair, 2006), therefore, a theoretical understanding is needed to examine how destination image is formed by Korean tourists using qualitative research methods.

The purpose of this study is to examine regional differences in expressions of key themes and topics regarding images of Australia as a tourism destination represented by Korean travel agents in Australia. Specifically, this study aimed to achieve the following research objectives: 1) to investigate key themes and topics of representations of Australia’s image narrated by Korean travel agents; 2) to investigate regional differences among three state capital cities (Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide) in Australia in representative narrations recognised by Korean travel agents.

BACKGROUND

Theoretical application of tourism destination image

The concept of destination image has received considerable attention by researchers in tourism literature (Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Frias et al, 2007; Gallarza, Saura & Garcia, 2002; Huang & Gross, 2010), however, due to the characteristics of the tourism product, such as complexity (Smith, 2005), intangibility (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991) and multidimensionality
(Gartner, 1993), Gallarza et al (2002) acknowledged that research on tourism destination image faces many difficulties when attempting to measure it. In spite of these difficulties, researchers have made efforts to propose a definition of destination image (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996; Gunn, 1972; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1984). Until the 1990s, it is noted that scholars defined destination image as the process of decision making (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996), simplified impressions (Mayo 1973), mental representation (Fridgen, 1987), travel experience process (Gunn, 1972) and a product of the mind (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1984). However, from the end of the 1990s researchers have tried a new approach to destination image. Gallarza et al (2002) emphasised tourism destination image should be defined as a more comprehensive theoretical framework and a conceptual model.

The impact of the internet means the focus of the research trend in tourism destination images is internet related. Tourism destination images are becoming increasingly fragmented and ephemeral in nature (Governs et al., 2007). Destination image has been examined comprehensively due to its complex nature and its important role, however, research on the internet is still at an infancy stage (Choi et al., 2007).

Researchers Dilley (1986), Jenkins (1999) and Xiao and Mair (2006) adopted qualitative research methods in order to identify destination image. Dilley (1986) and Jenkins (1999) tried to introduce a new approach. Dilley (1986) analysed the images using brochures from 21 countries. All brochures were analysed and images were categorised according to the type of information. This study found clear regional patterns in the images projected with brochures. Jenkins (1999) suggested construct elicitation techniques, such as free-elicitation, photo elicitation, interactive interviews and focus group interviews to measure destination image as qualitative methods.

In tourism literature, research on representational narration is still in the infant stage. Xiao and Mair (2006) used representational narration methods identifying China as a tourism destination. They analysed tourism destination images of China using the representational narrations of thirty-five articles from twenty-four major English newspapers for five years (1999-2003). They used an inductive content analysis, which aims at identifying patterns and categories through a coding of the text for qualitative data analysis. Specifically, they identified the descriptors on cultural attractions of relics, heritage sites and historical remains in China. Moreover, China’s stabled image was characteristically represented in ‘the durable’, ‘the mysterious’, ‘the exotic’ and ‘the splendid’. The finding provides an alternative to the interpretation of representational narrations in the discourse regarding the portrayal of culturally different tourist destinations.

Australia’s destination image has been studied in previous researches (Huang & Gross, 2010; Murphy, 1999; Ross, 1993; Son & Pearce, 2005). Ross (1993) and Murphy (1999) used backpackers’ samples to identify Australia’s destination image, however, their results were slightly different: Ross identified that that most prominent images were friendly, local residents, high quality tourist information, freely accessible accommodation and the destination’s authenticity as Northern Australia’s destination images. In contrast, Murphy pointed out natural attractions, friendly people, safety, climate, and language as Australia’s major strengths in image. In addition, unique elements were kangaroos, the Great Barrier Reef, the Outback, Aboriginal culture, and Ayers Rock.

Huang and Gross (2010) and Son et al (2005) analysed Australia’s destination image using multi-sensory components. The former identified destination images of Australia by using mainland Chinese tourists. They found that kangaroos and koalas, Australia’s natural environment, and iconic attractions such as the Sydney Opera House were cognitive image
features, relaxing were affective image attributes and visual, auditory were multi-sensory image features. Son et al (2005) explored international students’ images of Australia and indicated South American respondents had the most favourable impression of Australia as a tourist destination and Asian respondents had the least favourable impression.

Consequently, destination image has become a much more complex process than ever before due to the unique characteristics and proliferation of the internet. Various researchers noted that while the concept is widely used in the tourism context, it still requires a solid conceptual framework.

*Factors influencing the formation of destination image*

Several factors play a noteworthy role in the image formation process: stimulus factors and personal factors. Stimulus factors mention information sources or previous experiences, whereas personal factors are symbolised by motivations and socio-demographic characteristics (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Based on their model, Beerli and Martin (2004) developed an advanced model including information sources and personal factors. In the same context, Cho et al (2002) built up a destination image formation process including virtual tours.

Specifically, according to Baloglu and McCleary (1999) and Beerli and Martinl (2004), travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographic variables and information sources influence the formation of destination image in a visitor. Firstly, the majority of tourism motivations have revolved around the concepts of “pull” and “push” motivations (Crompton, 1979; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Secondly, past travel experiences may be more important and credible than other information sources (Fodness & Murray, 1999; Mazursky, 1989). The reason for this is that tourists who have experiences at a certain destination are more familiar than first time visitors, so the need to receive information from external sources becomes weaker. Thirdly, most image formation models have integrated socio-demographic variables as usual features (Friedmann & Lessig, 1986; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Although socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, education, income, occupation and marital status have been suggested as factors influencing image, age (Fridgen, 1987; Husbands, 1989) and level of education (Husbands, 1989) appeared to be major determinants of image. Fourthly, various information sources contribute to destination image formation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004). Lastly, the significance of the internet as an information source has been well recognised in previous studies (Choi et al, 2007; Governors et al, 2007; Law, Leung & Wong, 2004).

Previous research indicated that most tourism industries had used brochures to promote travel related products (Holloway & Plant, 1992; Yamamoto & Gill, 1999). With the development of the internet in the 1990s many tourists utilised internet sources (Lee, 2009; Ryan, 2001) and as a result, strategies for distributing promotional messages have changed (Choi et al, 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to research and redefine the role of the internet in shaping destination image.

**METHODOLOGY**

*Data collection process*
This study employed a series of in-depth personal interview techniques to obtain representational opinions, key themes and topics. Data for this study were collected from 32 agents in 32 Korean travel agencies specialising in inbound travel from Korea to Australia.

Table 1. Qualitative Data Sample

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Representational narrations were used as a method of identifying the views held by Korean tourists through the travel agents who acted as the tourists’ representatives. Before in-depth interviews were conducted, a pre-test for these interview questions was conducted and tested with five Korean academics. This test helped resolve any inadequacies before the administration of the instrument through focus group interview. Data for the main study were collected in three state capital cities in Australia: Sydney, Brisbane (including Gold Coast) and Adelaide.

Table 2. Sample Profile

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</table>

Sydney is the largest city in Australia and around 100,000 Korean residents live there. Sydney has been recognised as the most popular iconic symbol of Australia by Korean tourists. In Korea, Brisbane is renowned for various activities, especially ocean sports. Sydney and Brisbane have regular direct flights from Korea to Australia and as most Koreans chose Adelaide as VFR (visiting friends & relatives), a destination of immigration or the city in which to study, Adelaide
was selected as the last city. Thirty-two participants in Korean travel agencies were interviewed in these three Australian cities.

Data analysis

Qualitative data were analysed using NVivo 8.0 which provides tools for managing data records for browsing and coding categories accurately, and it helps to synthesise the researcher’s ideas. NVivo was also used to assist data sorting and to categorise the quotes from each of the transcripts. Following this procedure, data were identified, categorised and coded as tree nodes. With the creation of these tree nodes, topics mentioned in the interviews were categorised into key themes to construct Australia’s destination images. Based on the interviews, data indicating the representative narrations used in the structure of Australia’s destination images were categorised and coded (Kim & Jamal, 2007) according to interview questions. To accomplish the research purpose, this study analysed 86 topics in the six key themes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Categorisation of topics and key themes

Six decisive key themes and 86 topics were identified by 32 agents based on the representational narrations of Korean tourists to analyse data. These key themes were: representative images of Australia, travel motivations, past experiences, socio-demographic variables, other information sources and the internet sources. As can be seen in Appendices 1 - 6, these travel accounts selected for analysis have touched upon numerous images.

Regional differences among three state capital cities

Theme 1: Representative images of Australia

Representative images of Australia were generated primarily through the representational narrations by Korean travel agents and within this key theme 26 topics (Appendix 1) were discussed. Nature was discussed by the interviewees in 26 sessions. Frequently mentioned images were ‘nature’, ‘native animals’, ‘composure’ and ‘the Opera House & Harbour Bridge’. Significant differences were identified depending on the location. When asked what image of Australia is represented as a tourism destination, most respondents replied ‘nature’ without any hesitation, especially by the travel agents in Brisbane. It seemed that television programs in Korea had prompted Korean potential tourists to associate Australia as a nature oriented country. Native animals, such as kangaroo and koala were also acknowledged by Korean agents as the typical image of Australia. This result has a consistency with Huang & Gross (2010) and Murphy (1999). Huang & Gross (2010) pointed out salient image features of Australia were kangaroos and koalas, Australia’s natural environment and the Sydney Opera House. Additionally, Murphy (1999) identified that exceptional image elements in Australia included kangaroos, the Great Barrier Reef, the Outback, Aboriginal culture and Ayers Rock. One of the agents in Brisbane commented:

Agent # 23: Many customers usually said: I really want to feel the genuine nature of Australia, because I saw many programs about Australia in TV. When I travel to Australia, I feel greatness of nature. In addition, most tourism destinations in Korea, they were all artificial attractions, but Australia has totally different environment. Also I’d like to touch Kangaroo, Australia’s icon...,
animals are unique and famous in Korea. Whenever most Korean visitors consider about Australia, the frequently reminded image were nature and unique animals...

Iconic attractions such as the Opera House and Harbour Bridge were frequently mentioned by agents, especially in Sydney. Most agents in Brisbane frequently mentioned beaches and activity. Agents in Adelaide mentioned composure, clean environment, boring and quietness. One agent in Adelaide suggested:

Agent # 30: The characteristics of Korean tourists visiting Adelaide are different from other cities. They mostly have VFR purpose or working holiday. A few days ago, KBS broadcasted Adelaide as potential tourists’ destination. In there, Adelaide was described as quiet place and a good place for study. And every place is very clean. Some of my customers always said Adelaide is very boring place compared with Sydney.

Due to the media in Korea and the Australian Tourist Commission’s effective promotions, such as brochures and events, Australia is one of the most popular destinations and most Koreans have a favourable image of the country. This study identified further image features by employing a qualitative method. Specific representational narrations also found that commercial programs on television affect Korean tourists in formulating an image of Australia.

Theme 2: Travel motivations

This key theme, travel motivations, also presented significant differences among three state capital cities and 15 topics (Appendix 2) were identified through the representative narrations. Although the representative image of Australia has been affected by the media, this key theme is strongly associated with personal attributes. Moreover, the findings identified motivations by Koreans are impressively related to cognitive image components rather than affective image components which were argued by Gartner (1993) and Dann (1996). Image attributes were recognised as organic image by Gunn (1972). Besides, the respondents depicted 15 topics which can be mainly discussed as internal or emotional aspects recognised as push motivations (Crompton, 1979; Yoon & Aysal, 2005). The frequently mentioned topics in this theme were ‘new experiences’, ‘learning’, and ‘rest’. As mentioned above, travel motivations are different from their purpose of visiting. However, many interviewees considered common motivations of the Korean tourists are strongly related to ‘new experiences’ and ‘learning’ regardless of their purpose. This is one of the interview contents by one of the Sydney agents:

Agent # 7: Our customers who are usually first-time visitors visit Australia to have new experiences in the new world. In Australia, there are so many experiential programs and attractions, such as Opera House and many activities. And some travellers visit Australia to study something, especially English. In Korea, English became the crucial skill to succeed in their social life. Currently, some Koreans visit Sydney to explore, because they want to settle in Sydney. In other words, they selected Sydney as a new residence for several reasons.

The principal distinction is many agents in Sydney stressed ‘exploration’ and ‘prepare new life’ compared with Brisbane and Adelaide agents. Some Koreans visit Sydney with the motivation of exploration for immigration for their new life. Other motivations of Sydney visitors were mainly ‘new experiences’ and ‘learning’. It is assumed that Sydney is renowned as a must–visit place for Korean tourists and first time visitors tend to travel to this city first in Australia. In contrast, the
majority of Brisbane agents stated ‘activity’ and ‘enjoy holiday’ while Adelaide agents pointed out ‘VFR’ and ‘education’. These characteristics are consistent with prior research (Lee, 2009) which identified travel motivations by Korean tourists. Lee (2009) argued travel motivations and characteristics of destinations have powerful relationships, such as, VFR, study, immigration and activities. Based on this result, these three state capital cities were clearly segmented by Korean tourists according to visiting purpose and motivations.

**Theme 3: Past experiences**

This key theme illustrated the clear distinctions among three state capital cities similar with the Internet sources. As overall features, the 18 topics (Appendix 3) were drawn from the narrations. Most agents stated there are remarkable distinctions between the first-time visitors and repeat-visitors. Both Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001) and Baloglu and McCleary (1999) found the differences between visitors and non-visitors in terms of cognitive and affective image components. In addition, Huang & Gross (2010) emphasised repeat visitors seemed to grasp more multi-sensory image clues. These findings are consistent with this study which pointed out repeat visitors usually have a clearer image on Australia than first visitors, because it can be assumed direct experience can influence to form their destination image and preferred to visit less renowned destinations while the first time visitors preferred to visit famous destinations, such as Sydney and Brisbane which are popular and famous destinations. In addition, repeat visitors typically have clear purposes and a positive image which was formed in past experiences. Contrary to repeat visitors, the first time visitors preferred to use group tours, especially package tour programs, since they do not have confidences and their attitude is relatively passive. Moreover, they need to have a basic level of counselling and do not have enough information (Lee, 2009). With the impact of the internet, the majority of first time visitors searched for travel information, however, they cannot use these appropriately and some information is not relevant. In this key theme, an unusual feature was that the agents from Adelaide were not able to identify their customers. One of Adelaide agents emphasised:

**Agent # 29:** Adelaide’s Korean community is different from that of other cities. Most customers visit and issue their tickets and programs. The biggest problem is the lack of communication with customers. Most travel agencies in Sydney and Brisbane are now running their own website, but we do not have our website, because it cannot make any profit. I can answer in other questions, but in this question, I cannot provide suitable answer, because I cannot recognise who my customer is first time visitor or repeat visitor.

It is assumed that the average consultation hour with customers is not enough and that there is a lack of interaction between agents and customers. This situation can be found in the trait of the Korean community in Adelaide. Most Korean residents in Adelaide consist of overseas students, working holiday and guardian visa holders. So, their main concern is not travel and according to the interview with agents, their main revenue sources are air tickets and day tour programs compared with other cities. Especially, residents in Sydney and Brisbane are mainly immigrants and permanent residents, so they would like to travel frequently, both domestically and internationally.

**Theme 4: Socio-demographic variables**
Contrary to above findings, in this key theme no significant differences were found depending on three state capital cities. In this theme, five topics (Appendix 4) were discussed: age, income, gender, occupation and education. According to previous research, age (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Husbands, 1989; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1984), gender (Beerli et al, 2004; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1984) and education level (Husbands ,1989) appear to be major determinants of image. All agents acknowledged age as peculiar features in this theme. In addition, 22 interviewees stated Koreans’ travel patterns and attitudes towards travelling are strongly related to the income level. This means most agents in Korean travel agencies recognised that age and level of income are the most influential features to decide their travel trends and patterns. However, many agents did not consider gender, occupation and level of education as important factors to determine Koreans’ travel trends and patterns. One of the interviewees in Brisbane stated:

Agent # 25: According to the age, there are significant differences in the travel. In our company, most customers consist of 20s and 30s. Due to this impact, the focuses of our products are adventure seeking tour programs, because the younger generations usually seek adventure or backpack travel. However, the older generations prefer to have a comfortable travel, such as package tour program. They need to have tour guide and a good quality of meals... Besides, I think depending on the income, travel pattern and attitude are different. Our customers who have higher income never consider price, always think about comfortable.

To illustrate regional differences, Sydney is inclusive of all age groups and Brisbane attracts relatively younger age groups (usually 20s and 30s), while Adelaide has comparatively older (over 40s) age groups. It is assumed that this group of visitors to Adelaide are ‘VFR’ travellers, who visit children who have attended primary or high school. According to the level of income, travel pattern and attitude can be different. It is suggested that the distance from Korea to Australia is relatively far from other popular destinations and the average cost of travel is much higher than to other destinations. In addition, tourists who have a relatively high level of income usually seek quality and satisfaction focused travel instead of considering the price of the tour programs.

Theme 5: Other information sources

In the formation of destination images, various information sources can contribute to the process of destination images (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Phelps 1986). Phelps (1986) categorised information sources into primary and secondary images. A primary image formation resulted from the experience of a place and a secondary image was formed as result of formal sources, such as travel related brochures and guide books, and informal sources, like conversation with friends or word-of-mouth. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) emphasized that people will develop a naïve or factual image of destinations based on information from formal sources (TV, magazines and travel agencies) and informal sources (word-of-mouth from their friends and relatives). In this study, 11 topics (Appendix 5) were identified in this theme: the most frequent media source is recommendation from other people, because this information could be the most reliable source. The next sources were visual sources such as TV, information books, Korean community magazines and travel agencies. However, no regional differences were found in this theme. One of the agents in Sydney emphasised;

Agent # 9: Recently, potential tourists obtain so much information because they can contact with usable information sources. Among them, they pursue reliable information sources, so they
usually trust recommendation from acquaintances. Besides, customers in nowadays know specific contents about their travel... and also, influential and useful media is visual media, especially TV. During watching TV programs, potential travellers build up their decision to travel in the next time... Above all, recommendation and TV can give more trust than any other media...

There are variety of sources of information that contribute to the development of destination images (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli et al, 2004). Therefore, this result can identify recommendation and virtual media could be the most reliable source to choose their destination. And they are the most powerful and influential information source to form their destination image. However, most tourists did not use only one information source but usually two or three information sources together.

**Theme 6: The internet sources**

This key theme showed the most significant differences along with past experiences. This result showed Korean tourists travelling to Brisbane rely highly on Internet sources, while Adelaide visitors showed a relatively low rate of internet usage, because Brisbane visitors consist of the younger generation, whilst Adelaide visitors are relatively the older generation. One agent in Sydney mentioned in this regard:

Agent # 3: Clear evidence that customers use several information sources is some of them already know specific things... They use travel agency to double-check their knowledge... And also, due to the impact of the Internet and more information, most travel agencies have a critical moment, because a lot of customers have had much information about their destination. In addition, some customers knew more than us..., Internet messenger and search engine, such as Nate on, Naver or Google provide them good quality’s information...

In addition, one of the agents in Brisbane commented:

Agent # 26: Nowadays, most Koreans use the Internet and its influence transcends imagination, because everything is made up of the Internet. Travelling is also same... They can book their ticket and exchange their opinions... After travelling, some of them open their own blog and upload postscripts and pictures. Potential tourists decide their mind after discussing opinions with blog owners; especially the younger generation use the Internet. Due to the impact of the blog, they can give and take their opinions on the internet... Through the Internet, they can have accurate information conveniently. In addition, they can search latest information compared with printed media...

With the proliferation of the Internet, tourism destination images are becoming increasingly fragmented and ephemeral in nature (Governs et al, 2007). The Internet sources can enable potential tourists to have more interaction and thereby create a greater and more lasting impression and have become more complex since the Internet arrived (Choi et al, 2007).

In addition, information through the Internet can be provided instantly to potential tourists anywhere in the world, and they play a more active role in the search for information. Intrinsic attributes on the internet are giving information and provide these instantly. On account of this reason, blogs were the most useful internet sources (Carson, 2007; Lee, 2009). The younger
generation can exchange their opinions through blogs which they create and maintain themselves, however the internet has caused travel agencies to make critical changes in the way they service their customers. It is now necessary for travel agents to provide their customers with different services and to form appropriate strategies in order to survive in the internet environment.

CONCLUSION

This study identified six decisive key themes and 86 topics. To examine regional differences in the six key themes, this study analysed data through the representational narrations by Korean travel agents. Firstly, in key themes of representative images of Australia, significant differences were identified: most respondents alluded to ‘nature’ or ‘natural environment’, and ‘The Opera House & Harbour Bridge’ was frequently mentioned by Sydney agents. Agents in Brisbane pointed out ‘nature’ or ‘natural environment’, ‘beaches’ and ‘activity’, whereas many agents in Adelaide stated ‘composure’, ‘clean environment’, ‘boring’ and ‘quietness’. These findings have had consistency with the findings in Huang and Gross (2010). Huang and Gross (2010) identified Australia’s salient image by Chinese tourists is animals, like kangaroo and koala. In spite of employing different approaches, such as MIS framework and the representational narration framework and using different samples, like Chinese and Korean tourists, both findings have indicated the similar context towards Australia’s destination image. It is assumed that the characteristics of image are statics and their respondents are Chinese and Koreans, so they have had similar cultural background and perspectives towards Australia.

Secondly, in the travel motivation section, the most frequently mentioned topics were ‘new experiences’, ‘learning’, and ‘rest’. This key theme also illustrated strong evidence in differentiations which explained why many agents in Sydney stressed ‘exploration’ and ‘prepare new life’ compared with Brisbane and Adelaide agents. In contrast, the majority of Brisbane agents stated ‘activity’ and ‘enjoy holiday’ while Adelaide agents pointed out ‘VFR’ and ‘education’. The main characteristics of this study is that Korean tourists have shown more personal attributes, cognitive image components (Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1993) and internal motivation aspects (Crompton, 1979; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). This seemed to have a strong relationship between motivation and regional features.

Thirdly, an unusual feature was found in Adelaide agents: they find it difficult to interact with their customers because of the advent of the internet. In addition, most agents stated there are remarkable distinctions between the first-time visitors and repeat-visitors. Usually, the first time visitors preferred to visit famous destinations, such as Sydney and Brisbane, whereas repeat visitors preferred to visit less renowned destinations. Since past travel experiences may be more credible than other information sources (Fodness & Murray, 1997; Mazursky, 1989), it is presumed that obvious distinctions have existed between visitors and non-visitors.

Fourthly, in socio-demographic the theme, contrary to other findings, no considerable differences were found depending on three state capital cities, while prior research stressed that age (Husbands, 1989), gender (Beerli et al, 2004) and education level (Husbands, 1989) can be key determinant factors of image formation. It is assumed that all agents acknowledged age as peculiar features in this theme. In addition, Koreans’ travel patterns and attitudes towards travelling are strongly related to the income level.
Fifthly, no regional differences were also found in the other information theme, as well as in the socio-demographic theme. The most frequent information source is recommendation from other people, because this source could be the most reliable source (Lee, 2009) and the next sources were visual sources such as TV (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli et al, 2004; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Lastly, the Internet source and the past experience themes showed the most significant differences, depending on the three state capital cities. Specifically, the younger generations utilise travel blogs (Carson, 2007). In accordance with these results, this study revealed most Korean potential tourists highly rely on the Internet and its special features, and the distinctive tools are blogs and bulletin boards. This result showed Korean tourists travelling to Brisbane rely highly on the Internet sources, while Adelaide visitors showed a relatively low rate of the Internet usage.

It is apparent from the results of this study that differentiated marketing and management strategies are necessitated in the aspects of destination practitioners and academics towards different cities in Australia. Most Korean tourists have had different motivations (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli et al, 2004; Um & Crompton, 1990), purpose and past experiences (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Fakeye & Jenkins, 1991) according to the different cities. Moreover, they have used different information sources including the Internet sources according to ages and level of income. This study suggested it is necessary to examine market segmentations depending on target markets to Korean tourists. Furthermore, this study recommends that it is needed for promotion strategies to attract more Korean tourists to Australia; specifically different approaches are necessitated among different cities, such as Sydney, Brisbane and Adelaide in Australia.

This study has two possible limitations which affect the findings of this study. Firstly, since this study uses a small sample size and is exploratory in nature, these results might not be a generalisation of Korean tourists travelling to Australia. Secondly, the data may be subject to bias as the viewpoints may vary according to coders, although researchers try to remain objective. In the future, it is necessary to analyse package and individual tourists separately, because they might show significantly different behaviour and use information sources differently. Moreover, it is necessary to study targeting Australian tourists travelling to Korea. If so, future researcher can contribute to the tourism industry, especially between Korea and Australia. Lastly, this study can contribute for future studies to further theorise understanding destination image studies in tourism literature. Furthermore, even if the number of Korean tourists travelling to Australia has been increasing dramatically, there will need to be further research contributions analysing the Korean market.

REFERENCES


**APPENDIX**

Appendix 1. Topics on representative images of Australia

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<td>Composure</td>
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<td>3</td>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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Appendix 2. Topics on Travel Motivation

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### Appendix 4. Topics on Socio-demographic variables

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INDIGENOUS CULTURAL TOURISM IN PAHANG: WITH REFERENCE TO THE UPRIVER TRIBE (JAKUNS)

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Indigenous cultural tourism is regarded as tourism activity in which indigenous people are directly involved either through direct control and or by having their culture serve as the essence of the attraction. In Malaysia, there has been a growing interest among local and international tourists to learn about indigenous tribes’ cultures and traditions that is not widely explored and documented in tourism literature. Bebar is the largest sub district of Pekan, Pahang with 176,400 hectares of tropical rain forest and palm oil plantations. Bordering Rompin district in the south, near the Johor border, the area consists of eight (8) villages: Paloh Hinai, Kota Perdana, Kg Wawah, Kg Simpai, Runchang, Kg Tanjung Batu, Nenasi and Kg Merchong. More than 6,000 Jakuns live in the area - Runchang has the highest population with approximately 2,000 inhabitants. The Jakuns tribe is one of the “Orang Asli” (original people) or indigenous people of Malaysia. The tribe is among the aboriginal settlers from the Proto Malay tribes, which arrived from the Southern Yunan Province around 2,500BC. Qualitative and exploratory research methods were conducted through baseline observation and in depth face to face interviews among the Jakuns community in various villages in Bebar. As a result of this research it is hoped that a better insight on their ways of life, which have been segregated for hundreds of years, will be gained. Their unique ethnic lifestyle and rich cultural heritage requires preservation and sustainability through economic development.

Keywords: Indigenous tourism, culture, heritage, aboriginal, ethnic and preservation
TOURISM RESEARCH IN ASIA WITH MINIMAL STATISTICAL DATA:
THE POLITICS OF NUMBERS

Dylan Redas Noel

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

“Tell me the answer you want and I will give you the statistics to prove it!”

Tourism research trends in Asia, particularly in Malaysia and other parts of south-east Asia, will often plan first then use research to justify their chosen direction. Governments are reluctant to invest in research and usually love the sound of big numbers. A good case in point is in Sarawak, Malaysia where the number for overall visitor arrivals is tracked but there is no breakdown on who these visitors are, whether they are leisure tourists, foreign workers, or business travellers.

A positive initiative recently unveiled is Malaysia’s Tourism Growth Plan. This initiative is one of the ten National Key Economic Areas, as part of the government’s economic transformation program, intended to transform Malaysia into a high income economy by 2020. However, while the government plans on industry growth it has no data to back-up the plan. It is highly probable any research the government invests in will be to support the plan. Although this concept of research differs greatly from the typical western approach to research, it may be appropriate in the south-east Asian context. The fundamental question is: “is research driven by answers people want or as the prerequisite to planning?”

By asking and exploring this question, a better understanding of how the Asian mind-set works in tourism planning and development can be gained.
Theme: Coastal, Marine and Island Tourism

The impact of swim-with-dolphins tourism on Hector's dolphins in Akaroa Harbour, Banks Peninsula.
(Full paper).
Emmanuelle Martinez, Massey University, Mark Orams, AUT University and Karen Stockin, Massey University, NZ.

Impact of low cost airlines on Pacific Island economies.
(Working paper abstract).
Semisi Taumoepeau, AIS St. Helens, NZ.

Marine protected area tourism: Applying resilience principles to assess power inequities between subsistence fishers and tourism stakeholders – case studies from Indonesian MPAs.
(Working paper abstract).
Mirza Pedju and Mark Orams, AUT University, NZ.

Measuring the effects of tourism activities on marine wildlife from a land based observation platform.
(Working paper).
Emmanuelle Martinez, Massey University, Mark Orams and Daniel Laggner, AUT University, NZ.

Towards a typology of surfing tourism activities.
(Working paper abstract).
Mark Orams and Nick Towner, AUT University, NZ.

Towards an understanding of tourism and economic development in South Pacific SIDS.
(Working paper).
Evangeline Singh, Simon Milne and John Hull, AUT University, NZ.

Trans-Pacific bluewater cruising: New Zealand on the horizon.
(Working paper).
Barbara Koth, University of South Australia, Australia.

What's love got to do with it? Considering the reasons for the popularity of Goat Island Marine Reserve, Leigh, NZ.
(Working paper abstract).
Sharon Race and Mark Orams, AUT University, NZ.
THE EFFECTS OF SWIM-WITH-DOLPHINS TOURISM ON HECTOR’S DOLPHINS IN AKAROA HARBOUR, BANKS PENINSULA, NEW ZEALAND

Emmanuelle Martinez¹,², Mark B. Orams¹,², and Karen A. Stockin¹

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THE EFFECTS OF SWIM-WITH-DOLPHINS TOURISM ON HECTOR’S DOLPHINS IN AKAROA HARBOUR, BANKS PENINSULA, NEW ZEALAND

ABSTRACT

The South Island Hector’s dolphin (Cephalorhynchus hectori hectori) is subjected to commercial eco-tourism operations in Akaroa Harbour, Banks Peninsula. This species is both endemic and endangered, with a population estimate of 821 (CV = 22.1, 95% CI = 535-1,258) within the Banks Peninsula Marine Mammal Sanctuary. The Hector’s dolphin is an ideal target for dolphin-swimming tourism. It is strictly coastal, resident in well-defined areas, has a low migratory range and is generally attracted to vessels. In Akaroa Harbour, commercial dolphin-swimming trips began in 1990 and it is the only place where this type of activity is permitted with this species. This study assessed the effects of such activities on Hector’s dolphins in Akaroa Harbour and concludes the following: No further swim-with-dolphin permits should be granted for Akaroa Harbour and a reduction in the level of exposure of this population of Hector’s dolphins to tourism activities should be considered.

Keywords: Hector’s dolphins, swim-with-dolphins, impacts, dolphin behaviour

INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, the number of cetacean-watching operations (dolphin-watching and -swimming) focusing on dolphins is growing (O’Connor, Campbell, Cortez, & Knowles, 2009). Human fascination for dolphins and the post-modern belief that interacting with them improves physical and spiritual well-being has led to the rapid expansion of swim-with-dolphin opportunities, not only in captivity but also with free-ranging populations (Curtin, 2006). New swim-with-wild dolphins (swim-with-dolphins hereafter) programmes are being initiated on a regular basis (e.g. Hoyt, 2001; Samuels, Bejder, Constantine, & Heinrich, 2003; O’Connor et al., 2009). In 2008, 14 out of 119 countries and territories providing cetacean-watching trips offered such programmes, some of them on a very small scale (e.g. Fiji, Niue; O’Connor et al., 2009). The majority of swim-with-dolphins encounters occur from commercial vessel-based tours and involve wild and non-provisioned populations (Samuels et al., 2003). In a review, Samuels et al. (2003) reported at least 11 species of dolphins being the focus of such tourism activities.

It has been suggested that close encounters with wild dolphins may enhance respect for wildlife (e.g. Orams, 1997) and that animals have a choice as to whether or not they interact with swimmers (e.g. Dudzinski, 1998). The assumption being that if dolphins choose to do so, then interactions are unlikely to be detrimental. The stereotypical response that “if they do not like it they can just leave” is common and appears to be rational (Martinez & Orams, in press). However, concerns have been raised about swim-with-dolphin activities and their potential harmful, beneficial and/or neutral effects on targeted species (Samuels & Bejder, 2004). Although swimming with wild dolphins can be viewed as an activity of low risk (Perrine, 1998), it can be dangerous for both humans and the animals, resulting in serious injury and even death in extreme cases (Shane, Tepley, & Costello, 1993; Shane, 1995; Santos, 1997; Goodwin & Dodds, 2008).
Empirical research indicates that even if avoidance is not a consequence, dolphins can still be detrimentally affected by swim-with-dolphins operations. Over the past two decades, behavioural changes have been linked to the type of vessel approach (e.g. Würsig et al., 1997; Ransom, 1998; Barr & Slooten, 1999; Constantine, 2001; Neumann & Orams, 2006), the presence of swimmers/vessel(s) (e.g. Barr & Slooten, 1999; Danil, Maldini, & Marten, 2005; Courbis & Timmel, 2009; Lundquist & Markowitz, 2009; Christiansen, Lusseau, Stensland, & Berggren, 2010) or swimmer placement (Weir, Dunn, Bell, & Chatfield, 1996; Constantine, 2001).

In New Zealand, considerable research has investigated the effect of swim-with-dolphins tourism on targeted species (Orams, 2004). These include dusky dolphins (*Lagenorhynchus obscurus*) in Kaikoura (e.g. Barr & Slooten, 1999; Yin, 1999; Markowitz, DuFresne, & Würsig, 2009a), bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*) in the Bay of Islands (e.g. Constantine & Baker, 1997; Constantine, 2001), common dolphins (*Delphinus* sp.) in the Bay of Islands, Bay of Plenty and the Hauraki Gulf (e.g. Leitenberger, 2001; Constantine & Baker, 1997; Neumann & Orams, 2006), and Hector’s dolphins in Porpoise Bay (e.g. Bejder, Dawson, & Harraway, 1999; Green, 2003) and Akaroa Harbour (e.g. Nichols, Stone, Hutt, & Brown, 2002).

In terms of legislation, few countries have regulations in place to protect free-ranging cetaceans (Carlson, 2008). New Zealand has often been exemplified as a model country (Hoyt, 2001), having both a Marine Mammals Protection Act (MMPA, 1978) and the Marine Mammals Protection Regulations (MMPR, 1992). The MMPR were introduced, as an amendment of the MMPA, to provide for the control and management of all marine mammal tourism activities. However, since research has shown that impacts vary greatly between species, location and type of tourism activity, generic management regimes are seldom appropriate (Orams, 2004). Sound management must therefore, be based on comprehensive research that provides information regarding the requirements and sensitivities of specific targeted populations (Orams, 2004).

Akaroa Harbour, Banks Peninsula, is the only location in the country where commercial swim-with-dolphins operations have been permitted to target the endemic and endangered Hector’s dolphins since 1990. The development and growth of this industry (with currently 17 daily permitted swim trips) has been built on limited scientific data (Nichols, Stone, Hutt, Brown, & Yoshinaga, 2001; Nichols et al., 2002), although most of the known information on this species is based on the Banks Peninsula population (Martinez & Slooten, 2003). In the late 1990s, permits were renewed on the basis that activities were not having a significant adverse effect on the Hector’s dolphins. However, the Department of Conservation (DOC) recommendation to limit the existing level of permits until effects were known, in addition to concern expressed by researchers, resulted in the implementation of an informal moratorium (Allum, 2009). In 2007, new applications for marine mammal permits lodged with DOC for Akaroa Harbour, could potentially have increased the current number of swim trips by 78% (Allum, 2009). Consequently, it is vital to determine whether the current levels of swim-with-dolphins trips in Akaroa affect Hector’s dolphins. This is particularly important because firstly, this type of tour interacts the longest with the dolphins, secondly it can potentially be more invasive due to the presence of swimmers in the water with the dolphins and thirdly, there is pressure to expand swim-with-dolphins operations in Akaroa Harbour.
Study Objectives

For management purposes, it is important to ascertain what the potential long-term effects that swim-with-dolphins activities might have on a targeted population (Samuels et al., 2003). Longitudinal studies are, therefore, essential to ensure an effective protection of Hector’s dolphins and the sustainability of the industry. The first provisional assessment of the potential swim-with-dolphins impacts in Akaroa Harbour was only for a single season (2001/2002) (Nichols et al., 2002), however, this research does provide some useful baseline data for comparative purposes. Following on from Nichols et al. (2002) work, the research presented here assesses whether Hector’s dolphins show any signs of habituation, sensitisation, or tolerance over time. In order to do that, this study focused on the following questions:

1. What are the short-term behavioural responses of dolphins in relation to swimming activities?
2. Are these activities significant for the population in Akaroa harbour?
3. Should these activities be reduced, remain at current levels, or could the level of activity be increased?

METHODS

Study Area

Opportunistic vessel surveys were conducted within the permitted swimming and viewing area of operation for the commercial tour operators based in Akaroa (43.81°S, 172.97°E), which encompasses Akaroa Harbour (Figure 1). The harbour, situated on the southern side of Banks Peninsula, is approximately 17 kilometres (km) long, with a predominantly north-south orientation (Heuff, Spigel, & Ross, 2005).
Survey Protocol

Six commercial dolphin tourisms vessels based in Akaroa Harbour were used as platforms of opportunity to conduct surveys (all, with the exception of one, were permitted to provide swim-with-dolphin tours).

This study was conducted over three consecutive field seasons between November and March, commencing in November 2005. This five-month period was chosen as it corresponds to the known distribution of Hector’s dolphins within Akaroa Harbour (e.g. Dawson, 1991; Rayment, Dawson, & Slooten, 2010) and encompasses the high tourism season. During this study period, Hector’s dolphins were exposed to nine vessels operating daily up to 17 swim-with-dolphins trips and eight dolphin-watching cruises between 0600 hours (hr) and 1800hr. An attempt was made to undertake equal sampling effort between the different departure times so as to cover most of the commercial daily activities.
Observation effort varied and was limited to favourable environmental conditions (no rain and Beaufort Sea State (BSS) of three or less). Environmental variables such as BSS, wind speed and direction, temperature, percentage glare and cloud cover, were all recorded at the start of each survey or when noticeable change in conditions occurred.

Upon the departure of a trip, date, operator, vessel name, departure time (hh:mm), skipper, crew, and number of passengers (watchers and swimmers) were recorded. Return time (hh:mm) was also noted upon arrival. The route taken for all tours was largely based on the skipper’s discretion and influenced by sea conditions, prevailing weather in addition to previous sightings, when applicable.

**Operator Procedures for Swim-with-dolphins Trips**

Vessels typically travelled at speeds of 10-15 knots (kts) until a group of dolphins was encountered. At this point, the skipper would slow the vessel to first observe if the group would approach the boat before the swimmers were placed in the water. Swims were only attempted with dolphin groups in the absence of calves, in compliance with section 20(b) of the MMPR. A calf was defined as an individual that was approximately 50% or less than the size of an adult and was consistently observed in association with an adult, presumed to be the mother (Fertl, 1994).

**Characteristics of Swim-with-dolphins Encounters**

For each trip, the start and end time of each encounter were recorded (hh:mm), in addition to the initial dolphin group size and the number of swim attempts. When more than one swim attempt took place, it was also noted whether it occurred with the same initial group. Under their permits, operators must restrict their number of approaches to a maximum of three when interacting with ‘reluctant’ dolphin groups. Reluctant groups are defined as dolphins, which actively avoid a vessel (Permit condition, DOC Canterbury Conservancy).

Quality of encounter was independently rated (Table 1) based on the data sheets commercial operators must complete after each trip (Permit condition, DOC Canterbury Conservancy).

Table 1: Definitions of the encounter ratings between Hector’s dolphin groups and commercial swim-with-dolphins vessels in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand (derived from DOC Canterbury Conservancy data sheet for commercial operators).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating (abbreviation)</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very good</strong></td>
<td>Sustained swimming interactions with swimmers. Dolphins stay with swimmers for most of the duration of an encounter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Good</strong></td>
<td>Dolphins initially interested in interacting with swimmers but lost interest after a short time (i.e. within the first 10 minutes).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>Dolphins come and go and occasionally interact with swimmers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Poor</strong></td>
<td>Dolphins showing no interest in interacting with swimmers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measuring Responses of Hector’s Dolphins to Swim-with-dolphins Encounters

Responses and changes in response over time were collected using focal group scan sampling methods (Altmann, 1974; Mann, 1999).

Vessel approach type
Several strategies were used to approach a dolphin group, with a vessel’s heading considered: a) In path, when in the path of travel of a dolphin group, b) Rear, when behind a dolphin group, or c) Line abreast, when parallel or to the side of the group. Another tactic included drifting, which was defined as putting the engines in neutral to let the vessel move with the wind and/or current. Finally, when dolphins initiated the approach by moving directly towards the vessel while underway, it was referred to as Dolphin first.

Swimmer placement
Strategies to place swimmers in the water with dolphins, derived from Constantine, (2001) and Neumann & Orams (2005), described the swimmers’ entrance in relation to the position of the focal dolphin groups. These included: a) line abreast, i.e. swimmers entered the water to the side and slightly ahead of the dolphin group, b) in path, i.e. swimmers were placed in the dolphins’ path of travel, and c) around the vessel, i.e. dolphins were milling around the wake of the stationary vessel when swimmers got in. The response to swimmers by the focal dolphin group was also adapted from Constantine (2001) as follows: a) avoidance, i.e. the dolphin group moved away from the swimmers and/or vessel or dived before resurfacing away from them; b) neutral, i.e. no apparent change in the behaviour of the dolphin group, which remained at a distance of two to three dolphin body length from swimmer(s) (or less than five metres); and c) interaction, i.e. at least one dolphin from the group remained within five metres of a swimmer for a minimum of 10 seconds.

RESULTS

Over three consecutive austral summers, commencing 2005, data were collected between November and March. A total of 581 commercial tours were monitored, comprising 161 wildlife cruises and 420 swim-with-dolphins trips (Table 2). In addition, land-based surveys were conducted over a total of 225 days between 0600 and 1800hr, resulting in a total of 631.7hr of observations. From December 2006, a total of 112 dolphin-watching and 278 swim-with-dolphins trips were recorded using the standardised data sheet provided to all operators.

Table 2: Summary of opportunistic vessel observations on-board commercial tours between 2005 and 2008, in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departure</th>
<th>0600hr</th>
<th>0900hr</th>
<th>1200hr</th>
<th>1400hr</th>
<th>1600hr</th>
<th>1015hr</th>
<th>1245hr</th>
<th>1515hr</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>581</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Characteristics of Swim-with-dolphins Encounters

Swims with Hector’s dolphins were attempted on 93.8% (n = 320) of the trips observed in 2006/2007 and 2007/2008. The majority of these (44.9%, Figure 2) were conducted with dolphin groups of six to ten individuals, with an overall mean of 7.5 dolphins (S.E. = 0.24, range = 1-27). Swimmers were seldom placed in the water with groups of less than three individuals (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Frequency distribution (percentage) of dolphin group size during swim-with-dolphins trips in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand. Bars represent the 95% confidence intervals.

Monitoring parameters of swim-with-dolphins trips are presented in Table 3. The number of swimmers onboard averaged 8.5, with as many as 19 swimmers aboard at any one time. As not all of the swimmers actually entered the water (i.e. they decided not to swim although they were booked as swimming), a mean of 7.6 swimmers were present in the water with the dolphin during all swim attempts. Only 1.2% of the swim attempts (n = 513) exceeded the legal limit of ten persons.

Table 3: Statistics of swim-with-dolphins trips (n = 320) and swim attempts (n = 513) in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand. Note: S.E. = standard error.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Swimmers per trip</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>1 - 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observers per trip</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0 - 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimmers per swim attempt</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>1 - 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swim attempts per trip</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>1 - 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swim encounter duration</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>1 - 70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of trips (55.6%, n = 320) consisted of only one swim attempt (Figure 3), with a mean of 1.6 attempts (Table 3) over the course of this study. Overall, 62.2% of swim attempts recorded on DOC data sheets (n = 278) were considered good to very good. Only 11.6% were
deemed as *poor*, i.e. dolphins showed no interest in the swimmers. The remaining trips (26.2%) were considered as *average*.

![Figure 3: Frequency distribution (percentage) of the total number of swim attempts by swim-with-dolphins vessels per trip in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand. Bars represent the 95% confidence intervals.](image)

**Total trip time**

The duration of swim-with-dolphin trips varied from 61 to 168 min, with a median of 105 min (interquartiles: 97 - 114 min, n = 320). The total trip duration differed significantly between months (Kruskal-Wallis: $H_4 = 11.028$, $p = 0.0263$; Figure 4). Trips in March were significantly longer than in both November and January (Dunn’s multiple comparison test, $p < 0.05$). Departure time (Figure 4) had no significant effect of the duration on swim-with-dolphins trips ($H_4 = 6.276$, $p = 0.1795$).
Figure 4: Trip duration (min) of commercial tours according to month and departure time in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand. Lines represent the median, boxes the 25th and 75th interquartile range, and bars the minimum and maximum values. DW: Dolphin-watching tours, SW: swim-with-dolphins trips.

Responses of Hector’s Dolphins to Swim-with-dolphins Encounters

Time dolphins actively spent in the presence of swimmers
A GLM analysis indicated that the parameters of month, behaviour and group size were significant predictors of interaction time with Hector’s dolphins (p < 0.05 for these parameter estimates). In the presence of large dolphin groups (6-10 individuals), interaction time increased significantly (p = 0.015) by 214.7% (range: 22% to 709%) compared to small groups (1-2 individuals). Behaviour also had a strong effect on encounters. Interaction time increased significantly (p < 0.001), with milling dolphin groups increasing by 415.3% (range: 96% to 1252%), 480.5% (range: 135% to 1332%), 615.1% (range: 151% to 1938%), and 702.2% (range: 230% to 1848%) compared to bow riding, diving, socialising, and travelling groups, respectively. Finally, in mid summer (January and February) there was a significant (p < 0.001) decrease of 71.7% (range: 45% to 85%) in the amount of time dolphins engaged in the presence of swimmers compared to early summer (November and December).

Swim encounter length according to the number of swim attempts with a same group
During the vast majority of swim-with-dolphins trips (91.6%; n = 285) in 2006/2007 and 2007/2008, commercial operators did not interact with the same group for the duration of a tour. From the 22 multiple swim attempts with a same group that were monitored, swim duration decreased after two attempts (Figure 5).
Figure 5: Encounter duration (min) of successive swim attempts with a same group of Hector’s dolphins in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand. Bars represent the standard error of the mean.

The second swim attempt was the longest with a mean of 18.8 min (S.E. = 2.046, range = 3-41 min). In contrast, by the third attempt, duration of swims lasted less than ten minutes (mean = 9.9 min, S.E. = 2.100, range = 3-19 min, n = 9), although this difference was not significant (ANOVA: F\(_2\) = 2.394, p = 0.102). The same trend was apparent when taking into consideration the time that dolphins spent actively in the presence of swimmers (Figure 5), which was significant (F\(_2\) = 3.552, p = 0.036) as the second attempt was significantly longer than the third (Bonferroni post-hoc test p = 0.43).

Responses to vessel approach type
Hector’s dolphins initiated the approach in 38.5% of encounters (n = 1,132). For the remaining 61.5% of approaches, vessels came near a dolphin group predominantly from the side (or line abreast, 66.2%). In path, drifting, and rear approaches represented 18.0%, 10.6%, and 5.2% of approaches, respectively. Due to small sample sizes, rear and in path approaches were pooled since no significant difference was detected (Z-test: z = 1.000, p = 0.350).

Overall, dolphins’ initial behavioural state had a significant effect on any subsequent behaviour changes when approached by any method (χ\(^2\)\(_3\) = 33.853, p < 0.001). Diving groups changed behaviour less often when approached (Freeman-Tukey deviates < -1) compared to socialising or travelling groups (deviates > 1). In path-rear approaches led to a higher proportion of behaviour change (deviates > 1), although differences between approach types were marginally insignificant (χ\(^2\)\(_2\) = 4.635, p = 0.099).

Dolphin responses to the different vessel approaches also varied according to their initial behaviour when first sighted (Figure 6). However, in all initial behavioural states, approach type had no significant effect on dolphin response (p > 0.05), with the exception of diving (χ\(^2\)\(_2\) =
7.263, p = 0.26). When diving, dolphins were less likely to switch behaviour when approached from the side (Freeman-Tukey deviates < -1) and more likely to do so when a vessel was *drifting* (deviates > 1).

![Figure 6: Proportion of behavioural change in Hector’s dolphin groups observed in relation to vessel approach type, when considering the initial behaviour of dolphins in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand. Bars represent the standard error of the sample proportion.](image)

**Responses to swimmer placement style**
Dolphins’ response to swim encounters varied significantly with swimmer placement ($\chi^2_4 = 19.775$, $p = 0.0006$). *Line abreast* placement resulted in a significant decrease in avoidance of swimmers (Freeman-Tukey deviates < -1). In contrast, when swimmers were placed in the *path*, dolphins were significantly more likely to avoid the swimmers or stay neutral than interact (deviates > 1; Figure 7).
Swimmer placement also significantly affected encounter duration between Hector’s dolphins and swimmers ($\chi^2 = 19.775$, $p = 0.0015$). An *in path* placement resulted in a significant increase (Freeman-Tukey deviates > 1) in the likelihood of a short swim encounter (less than five minutes) and a decrease in both medium and long encounters (deviates < -1; Figure 8).

Figure 7: Hector’s dolphin response to swimmers (percentage) as a function of swimmer placement in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand.

Figure 8: Encounter duration between Hector’s dolphins and swimmers (percentage) as a function of swimmer placement, in Akaroa Harbour, New Zealand.
DISCUSSION

Characteristics of Swim-with-dolphin Encounters

Hector’s dolphins are an ideal target for swim trips as they are easily located within the permitted area of commercial tourism operation. Compared to other species in New Zealand that support swim-with-dolphins tourism (e.g. common dolphins; Neumann & Orams, 2006), they are much more receptive to contact with swimmers. This is shown in the high proportion of sustained and successful swim attempts (only 11.6% were poor encounters).

The receptivity of Hector’s dolphins is also evident in the low number of attempts needed to obtain a satisfactory swim encounter, in addition to the relatively long duration of each swim attempts (25.3min). A swim was attempted during 93.8% of the trips monitored with an average of 1.6 attempts per trip, which is less than for both common dolphins observed in Mercury Bay (2.6, Neumann & Orams, 2006) and dusky dolphins off Kaikoura (4.0, Markowitz, Markowitz, & Lundquist, 2009b). In terms of duration, common dolphins appear to be the least receptive, with swim attempts lasting on average three minutes in Mercury Bay (Neumann & Orams, 2006) and five minutes in the Bay of Islands (Constantine & Baker, 1997). Swims off Kaikoura with dusky dolphins were slightly prolonged, with an average of nine minutes (Markowitz et al., 2009b). The duration of swim encounters with delphinids outside New Zealand, appear to confirm this trend, with 12 and 14min reported for rough-toothed dolphins (Steno bredanensis; Ritter, 2002) and short-finned pilot whales (Globicephala macrorhynchus; Scheer, Hofmann, & Behr, 2004), respectively in the Canary Islands.

In Akaroa Harbour, the mean duration of swim encounter increased from 22 to 25min over the four-year period since Nichols et al. (2002). As this change has not been tracked consistently (annually) over this time period, it may be that this increase is due solely to differences in methodologies between the studies. However, it may also suggest that tolerance to swimmer presence is increasing over time, an indication of potential habituation. Tolerance is defined as the intensity of disturbance that an individual tolerates without responding in a defined way (Nisbet, 2000); while habituation is described as the relative persistent waning of a response as a result of repeated stimulation, which is not followed by any kind of reinforcement (Thorpe, 1963).

While a three minute increase in encounter duration may not indicate long-term increases in dolphin tolerance, associated changes in dolphin behavioural responses may lend evidence to the possibility of habituation. Stone & Yoshinaga (2000) provided anecdotal information on the change in Hector’s dolphin behaviour in relation to swimmers over the last 15 years, i.e. becoming less wary with time. In 2008, it was not uncommon to observe dolphins approaching very close to swimmers (within an arm length) and circling around them (Martinez, Orams, Pawley, & Stockin, in review). An increase in tolerance levels has also been demonstrated in other species. In Kaikoura, the duration of swim encounter with semi-resident dusky dolphins increased from 8.3 to 9.1min between 1997-1999 and 2007-2009, (Markowitz et al., 2009b). Ransom (1998) reported a rise in encounter duration from seven to 11min with Atlantic spotted dolphins (Stenella frontalis) in the Bahamas over a six-year period.
Finally, in nearly a quarter of swim attempts (23.8%; Martinez, 2010) the operators had to end an encounter due to a legally imposed time limit. This implies that Hector’s dolphins, if given the opportunity, could potentially interact with swimmers for fairly prolonged durations, hence the importance of determining whether such activity could have any detrimental effects to this population.

**Responses of Hector’s dolphins to swim-with-dolphins encounters**

Bejder, Samuels, Whitehead, Finn, and Allen (2009) indicated that the inappropriate application of the term habituation could mislead managers to conclude that tourism activities have neutral, or even benign, consequences on dolphin populations, when their effects are actually detrimental. Individual Hector’s dolphins that use the Akaroa Harbour as part of their home range may have prolonged opportunities to become habituated as first suggested by Stone (1992). To determine whether Hector’s dolphins in Akaroa met the criteria to be classified as habituated, it was first necessary to ascertain the proportion of time Hector’s dolphins spend actively engaging with swimmers and the factors affecting it, as it gives a more precise measure of the affinity of dolphins for swimmers than the overall encounter duration (i.e. total time swimmers were in the water).

Unlike in Kaikoura, where approaching and dropping swimmers in front of a group decreased the duration of swim interactions (Markowitz et al., 2009b), both swimmer placement and the number of swimmers did not appear to be the primary factors affecting the time dolphins interacted with swimmers in Akaroa. However, other variables did affect this, with dolphins interacting significantly longer when in larger groups (six or more individuals) and during milling. Groups engaged in such behavioural state tend to be naturally larger than when diving or travelling (Martinez, 2010). In other species in New Zealand waters, group size and dolphin behavioural activity also influence the swim duration or the success of swim attempts. When in larger groups, common dolphins were more tolerant of the swimmers in both the Hauraki Gulf (Leitenberger, 2001) and Mercury Bay (Neumann & Orams, 2006). In the latter location, dolphin groups were also more interactive when the predominant group activity was socialising and less so when travelling or milling (Neumann & Orams, 2006). Similar observations were made with dusky dolphin groups in Kaikoura (Markowitz et al., 2009b).

Interaction time was also shorter in mid summer (i.e. January and February) than in early summer (i.e. November and December). Although, vessel departure time was marginally insignificant, it is still worth noting that trips conducted around midday (1200 and 1400hr trips) were shorter than morning (0600 and 0900hr) trips. Nichols et al. (2002) also reported that Hector’s dolphins were more interactive during the mornings. It may be that the operators’ tendency to head to the same area where they had a good previous encounter and/or to hand-over a receptive dolphin group is increasing the likelihood of repeatedly targeting the same group of dolphins over the course of a day. An increased number of approaches made towards the same group was found to reduce swim duration or dolphin affinity for swimmers in both Hector’s and dusky dolphins (Markowitz et al., 2009b).

Vessel traffic and tourism activities peaked around midday and in January (Martinez, 2010). The generally lower tourism activity in the mornings and earlier in the summer could explain the tendency for dolphins to interact longer with swimmers during these time periods. Markowitz et
al. (2009b) also recorded a shorter swim duration in the summer, coinciding with a peak in tourism, potentially indicating some level of sensitisation to seasonally high levels of vessel interaction. In Kealakekua Bay, Hawaii, spinner dolphins were found to be more interactive in early mornings when only a few local people swam, yet avoided swimmers around midday, when many tourists and vessels were present (Green & Calvez, 1999). In the Bay of Islands, New Zealand, resident bottlenose dolphins exhibited long-term sensitisation to swim-with-dolphins tourism as their avoidance response increased over a five-year period (Constantine, 2001). Although Hector’s dolphins in Akaroa Harbour show increased tolerance to swimmers over time, they appear to display a temporal shift in their receptivity to swimmers during the austral summer months. This is yet another example illustrating how tourism activities may affect species differently, and why management needs to focus at the local population level.

Responses to vessel approach type
National and international research suggests the strategies employed to approach a group of dolphins affect the way dolphins respond to a vessel, and presumably the level of disturbance to the group (e.g. Lusseau, 2006; Neumann & Orams, 2006). It has been suggested that dolphins are able to detect and localise incoming vessels and adapt their behaviour accordingly (Nowacek, Wells, & Solow, 2001; Lemon, Lynch, Cato, & Harcourt, 2006). Invasive approaches (e.g. in path) leave dolphins two choices, interaction or avoidance (Constantine, 2001). This type of approach could be perceived by dolphins as threatening, which may more likely result in a behavioural change. For that reason, it is prohibited to intercept the path (swimming direction or course) of a dolphin group in New Zealand under the MMPR (1992, section 18k). In the present study, Hector’s dolphins also had a tendency to change their behavioural state more often, when vessels used an in path/rear approach. When vessels are driven in a manner which is consistent with the provisions of the MMPR, both common and bottlenose dolphins showed fewer behaviour changes (Lusseau, 2006; Neumann & Orams, 2006).

Reactions to approaching vessels may also be related to the dolphin behavioural state. Hector’s dolphins were more likely to change behaviour when engaged in social or travel states and least likely to do so when diving, especially if approached from the side (a less invasive approach). This is consistent with other studies, although intra- and inter-species differences are apparent. In the Bay of Islands, socialising was the most likely disrupted behaviour for both common and bottlenose dolphins, while resting common and foraging bottlenose dolphins were less likely to change their behaviour (Constantine & Baker, 1997). In contrast, disruption was less likely to occur when Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Bahamas (Ramson, 1998) and bottlenose dolphins in Florida (Shane, 1990) were socialising. A lower probability of a behavioural change occurring when diving Hector’s dolphins were initially approached, potentially denotes the importance of this behaviour in terms of energy intake for this species.

Effects of swimmer placement style
Previous research has demonstrated that swimmer placement can also affect dolphin response to swimmers (e.g. Constantine & Baker, 1997; Constantine, 2001; Markowitz et al., 2009b). In Akaroa Harbour, operators have a high compliance level with the MMPR in terms of swimmer placement (as they do with vessel approach types). Swimmers entered the water to the side (line abreast placement) of the dolphin groups on 73.5% of all water entries and a further 17.6% of swim attempts were initiated when dolphins were milling around stationary vessels. In path
placement was least observed, accounting for just 8.8% of approaches. Despite a low sample size, it is clear that an in path approach resulted in the highest rate of avoidance response and the shortest encounter times. This type of reaction is consistent with that observed for common (Constantine & Baker, 1997), dusky (Markowitz et al., 2009b) and bottlenose dolphins (Constantine, 2001). A line abreast placement offers dolphins the choice to approach swimmers or maintain their current behavioural activity. Conversely, with an in path vessel approach dolphins must choose to continue on their course and come into close proximity with swimmers or actively change course to avoid the swimmers (Constantine, 2001). An around vessel placement resulted in a significant increase in avoidance response of bottlenose dolphins in the Bay of Islands (Constantine, 2001). However, there is no evidence to suggest that this is also the case for Hector’s dolphins. Unlike bottlenose dolphins, Hector’s dolphins who remain once a vessel approached, appeared willing to interact with the vessel as well as the swimmers. Some skippers and guides in Akaroa Harbour (usually those more experienced) tend to use that cue as an indicator of a group’s receptivity prior to deploying swimmers (Nichols et al., 2002; personal observation, first author).

CONCLUSIONS

There is a large market for swim-with-dolphins activities, which represents a long-standing desire to interact with dolphins based upon their image and popular representations in the media (Curtin & Wilkes, 2007). Dolphin-tourism has significant potential for altering dolphin behaviour due to the extended time tourists and tour vessels spend with the dolphins. This is particularly true for swim-with-dolphin encounters with Hector’s dolphins which appear to be a very receptive species to contact with vessels and swimmers compared with other species targeted by swim-with-dolphin tourism in New Zealand. The Hector’s dolphin is also an ideal species to target, especially in Akaroa Harbour where its seasonal distribution means tour operators are able to reliably and quickly locate dolphins within around 15 minutes of their departure point during the peak tourism period. These characteristics mean that operators provide multiple trips with as many as five different departure times throughout the day during the peak tourism season.

With up to 17 daily swim-with-dolphins trips between November and March, pressure on this population is very high. Many individual dolphins can be subject to repeated swim attempts between November and March (Martinez, Orams, & Stockin, 2009) and to a lesser extent the rest of the year because some individuals show a high degree of site fidelity. Over a four-year period, Hector’s dolphins have become more tolerant to the presence of swimmers. However, within a summer season, some level of sensitisation to seasonally high levels of tourism activities and vessel traffic is evident. Hector’s dolphins are, therefore, not yet habituated (as defined by Samuels et al., 2003). This study also confirms that adherence to the MMPR and permit conditions is effective in minimising the effects of tourism activities on Hector’s dolphins in Akaroa.

It is important not to over-rely or emphasise the statistical significance of the results presented here, but to consider whether changes shown in this study are biologically meaningful for this population (Orams, 2004; Richter, Dawson, & Slooten, 2006). There is a common misconception that because dolphins choose to approach and interact, there are no detrimental consequences. However, even apparently positive interactions can have long-term effects on populations by
detracting from important behaviour such as foraging or resting. Tourism activities in Akaroa Harbour, whether commercial or recreational, are disrupting the Hector’s dolphin behavioural budget (Martinez, 2010). An increased tolerance of human interactions linked with a disruption of diving, which is important in terms of energy uptake, could potentially have long-term detrimental consequences for this population.

This study provides sufficient evidence to support the following management recommendations that: a) No further swim-with-permits within Akaroa Harbour should be granted; and b) a reduction in the level of exposure of this population to tourism activities should be considered.

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IMPACT OF LOW COST AIRLINES ON PACIFIC ISLAND ECONOMIES

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

In the Pacific, airlines are essential for economic development and act as a public utility service, linking remote islands with the capital towns and cities. Due to the inherent features of airlines operation in the region, such as isolation and lack of economies of scale, recent increases in oil prices and air service operations, the provision of these essential air services is becoming very costly for the host community. Many South Pacific countries are now unable to continue to fund or operate their national airlines. This study aims to address the economic significance of low cost airlines (LCAs) to the South Pacific islands. Traditionally, features of a LCA model include short-haul point to point operation, one type aircraft fleet, one class cabin, no ‘frill’ service onboard, reduced turn-around airport related costs and use online booking only. The universal LCA model is widely known to be successful in various metropolitan countries. Given the current financial problems with most South Pacific national airlines and the unique characteristics of air transportation in the South Pacific, LCA operators could help boost tourism and enhance the economies of the South Pacific Islands. LCA operation creates new travel patterns and increases travellers’ spending in the region. This paper is an attempt to quantify the economic impacts of LCA travellers in selected South Pacific destinations. Research methodology is to conduct economic impact surveys on LCA travellers in selected South Pacific destinations and analyse LCAs operation in the South Pacific tourism market.

Keywords: essential air service, tourism growth, economic survival, airline sustainability
MARINE PROTECTED AREA TOURISM: APPLYING RESILIENCE PRINCIPLES TO ASSESS POWER INEQUITIES BETWEEN SUBSISTENCE FISHERS AND TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS – CASE STUDIES FROM INDONESIAN MPAS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Tourism in marine protected areas (MPA) is becoming more popular in developing countries and there is growing evidence of tourists’ willingness to pay entrance fees to contribute to MPA management costs. In a number of cases the establishment of MPAs were initiated or influenced by tourism stakeholders. However, within developing countries MPAs that have a strong tourism presence, there are often conflicts between local resource users, particularly subsistence fishers who require access to fishing grounds, and the tourism industry that demands undisturbed wildlife and pristine marine ecosystems. Power inequities occur between tourism and subsistence fishing stakeholders in developing country MPAs and, in many cases, fishers believe that the presence of MPAs and/or tourism in those MPAs, have made them worse off. Hence, understanding and addressing these power inequities between the stakeholders is an important issue in establishing locally accepted, supported and resilient MPAs. This working paper will outline plans for a study to be conducted in Indonesia, an epicentre of tropical marine biodiversity. It will focus on case studies of MPAs in the islands of Bali, Lombok, and Bintan, the country’s tourism gateways. It will utilise a social-ecological system approach and adopt resilience assessment tools to assess how different types of tourism in various forms of MPAs, such as the National Park, district or village-based, and privately managed sites, address resilience issues in the context of MPA tourism management.
MEASURING THE EFFECTS OF TOURISM ACTIVITIES ON MARINE WILDLIFE FROM A LAND-BASED OBSERVATION PLATFORM

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The growth of tourism based on observing and interacting with marine wildlife has been spectacular. Associated with this growth has been increasing concern about the impacts of such tourism activities. In particular, the potential for disturbing natural behaviour patterns of threatened or endangered species is the subject of growing focus. There are, however, significant challenges in assessing the effects of tourism on targeted marine species. A particular challenge is that observations conducted from a vessel are confounded by the fact that the vessel itself may be a source of disturbance. As a consequence, land-based observation opportunities which give an elevated and clear view of marine wildlife targeted by tourism can be an important research tool. They provide an opportunity to record animal behaviour in the absence of potential sources of disturbance and compare observations of animal behaviour when the tourism activity occurs. Widely accepted protocols from behavioural ecology have been adapted to record a marine animals’ behavioural repertoire. Such structured observations can be supplemented with the use of a land-based theodolite to track animals’ movements. In addition, analytical statistical techniques, such as those utilising Markov chains to analyse behavioural sequences, are useful in providing quantitative comparisons. A primary difficulty with these kinds of methods is the ability to accurately record animals’ behaviour from a distance. This presentation will explore the potential of adding a digital video recorder to the theodolite as a means of improving the accuracy and validity of data collected from land-based observation platforms.

INTRODUCTION

Wildlife tourism is defined by Newsome, Dowling and Moore (2005, p. 18) as;

… tourism undertaken to view and/or encounter wildlife. It can take place in a range of settings, from captive, semi-captive, to in the wild, and it encompasses a variety of interactions from passive observation to feeding and/or touching the species viewed.
There is no doubt that this type of tourism is big business. To illustrate, O’Connor, Campbell, Cortez and Knowles (2009) claim that as of 2008 whale watching (including whales, dolphins and porpoises) was undertaken as a commercial activity in 119 countries, hosted 13 million participants and generated an estimated 2.1 billion USD annually. Further, the estimated growth for this industry is beyond 3.7% annually (O’Connor et al., 2009). Non-consumptive wildlife tourism based on animals living in their natural environment is commonly labelled as “eco-tourism” and therefore intended to be sustainable and often assumed to be inherently beneficial. This assumption is based on the utilisation of conservation and environmentally responsible management approaches that have species protection as their priority (Bejder & Samuels, 2004).

Marine wildlife tourism activities are meeting an increase in the public’s demand to interact closely with charismatic animals in the wild (Hoyt, 2001). However, given that many marine animals spend most or all of their lives underwater they are challenging to view and interact with. As a consequence, many marine wildlife tourism operators utilise vessels, snorkel and dive equipment, feeding and less frequently sound, as mechanisms to facilitate tourists’ close and reliable viewing and interaction (Orams, 1999). Frequent and prolonged visits with the most easily accessible wildlife communities are becoming a predominant form of activity for many marine tour companies (Bejder & Samuels, 2004). However, the volume of eco-tours and the resultant number of participants interacting with marine wildlife may be causing disturbances of natural behaviour patterns, potentially effecting the population negatively in the long term. Thus, the marine wildlife eco-tour industry’s wide ranging and growing activities may be threatening the very resources upon which it is dependent (Berle, 1990). Examples of these threats are provided by the wide variety of studies that have been conducted evaluating the impacts of vessels and tourists on marine mammals. This work has provided evidence of both short- and long-term effects on targeted populations (e.g.: Bain, Williams, Smith, & Lusseau, 2006; Bejder, Samuels, Whitehead, & Gales, 2006a; Bejder et al., 2006b; Dans, Crespo, Pedraza, Degrati, & Garaffo, 2008; Lundquist & Markowitz, 2009; Lusseau, 2003; Lusseau, 2004; Williams, Lusseau, & Hammond, 2006; Stockin, Lusseau, Binedell, Wiseman, & Orams, 2008).

Nevertheless, assessing the impacts of marine eco-tours on wildlife is a relatively new field and survey and analytical methodologies are still being developed. Such techniques are important if the pressures being placed on marine wildlife from tourism activities are to be managed effectively.

OBSERVING AND ANALYZING THE IMPACTS OF MARINE TOURISM ACTIVITIES ON WILDLIFE

When observing tours which are focussed on wildlife, it is critical to gather accurate “control” data without researchers or their actions affecting the species of interest. This is challenging because most often researchers are a potential source of disturbance themselves when conducting observations from onboard a vessel or from underwater. One approach that can eliminate this challenge is the use of a land-based observation platform (Bejder & Samuels, 2004). An elevated coastal location can provide a clear view allowing for data collection without interfering with the behaviour or movement of the subject animal or group. The use of a theodolite, a land-based surveying instrument, has been adapted and successfully used since the 1970s to study a variety of coastal marine wildlife in various locations in a non-invasive manner (e.g. Acevedo, 1991; Bailey & Thompson, 2006; Lundquist & Markowitz, 2009; Williams, Trites, & Bain, 2002; Würsig, Cipriano, & Würsig, 1991; Würsig & Würsig, 1979). Theodolite studies have obtained
relatively precise data on animal surfacing positions as well as movement patterns, travel speed, and habitat use of animals using multiple fixes with concurrent recording of time (e.g. Boye, Simon, & Madsen, 2010; Jelinski, Krueger, & Duffus, 2002; Ribeiro, Viddi, Cordeiro, & Freitas, 2007; Williams et al., 2002). In addition, the development of theodolite tracking software (e.g. Cyclops- © 2004 University of Newcastle, Australia- or Pythagoras- Gailey & Ortega-Ortiz, 2002) has allowed the collection of data in real time and facilitated the calculation of parameters such as distance, speed, linearity, and orientation (e.g. Bejder et al., 2006a; Lundquist & Markowitz, 2009; Magnusdottir, Rasmussen, & Lammers, 2010; Ribeiro, Viddi, & Freitas, 2005; Schaffar & Garrigue, 2008). Furthermore, when combined with time-point sampling protocols derived from behavioural ecology, data on focal animals group size, group composition, dispersion, and behaviour can also be gathered (e.g. Bejder, Dawson, & Harraway, 1999; Lundquist & Markowitz, 2009).

In the case of tourism impact assessment studies on marine wildlife, shore-based observations allow a comparison of parameters (e.g. behaviour) between true “control” (i.e. in the absence of vessels) and “impact” data (i.e. in the presence of vessels or swimmers/snorkelers at a specific distance). Other pertinent data on tourism related issues can be also collected (e.g. vessel types, movements, approach speeds and angles, encounter duration, swimmer numbers and placement, etc.) in conjunction with accurate positions obtained using a theodolite. Such data can then provide valuable insights into the potential effects of tourism on marine wildlife (e.g. Bejder et al., 1999; Bejder et al., 2006a; Boye et al., 2010; Heckel, Reilly, Sumich, & Espejel, 2001; Lundquist & Markowitz, 2009).

To accurately assess impacts of eco-tours on marine wildlife, however, researchers must also be able to detect and record subtle behavioural events, activities and pre-cursors to behavioural events. The main drawback of land-based observation platforms is the inability to control distance between researchers and marine wildlife. Distance bias and accuracy will vary with species size and location (i.e. station height). Furthermore, taking readings can often be time-consuming and this in turn limits data collection on individual behaviour and group dynamics. A new method involving the use of a high-resolution video camera can potentially overcome this issue by recording and subsequently reviewing, checking and verifying data that could not be collected or that may have been missed during a sampling protocol. This technique has already been proven to be effective for determining: a) The spatial distribution of surfacings and inter-animal spacing (e.g. Denardo et al., 2001), b) the efficiency of acoustic devices (e.g. Johnston, 2002); and c) potential human impacts caused by mussel farms (e.g. Boren, Lloyd, Cockburn, Fisher, & Newton, 2006). It is therefore proposed that a combination of a high resolution digital video camera mounted in conjunction with a theodolite could potentially provide valuable data and prove to be a powerful research tool in assessing the potential impacts of tourism on marine wildlife.

Analyzing the data

Determining behavioural changes that occur naturally in marine wildlife as opposed to those induced by tourism activity is particularly problematic. However, the use of Markov chains as an analytical tool to identify probabilities of behavioural changes has proven to be of value. Such an approach has been applied in a variety of ecological impact assessments involving vessel-cetacean interactions in various locations (e.g. Bain et al., 2006; Christiansen, Lusseau,
Stensland, & Berggren, 2010; Dans et al., 2008; Lundquist & Markowitz, 2009; Lusseau, 2003; Lusseau, 2004; Stockin et al., 2008; Williams et al., 2006). This modelling tool quantifies the dependence of one event on preceding events, which can be affected by any factor between the events in question (Lusseau, 2004). First-order, time-discrete Markov chains can therefore be used to calculate the transition probabilities of passing from one behaviour to another (Lusseau, 2003). By comparing a data set of interactions that have had “impact”, to a dataset that can act as the “control”, behavioural effects on marine wildlife can be quantified and analysed (Lusseau, 2003). Thus, the use of analytical statistical techniques has been developed, applied and proven useful in assessing the impacts of tourism on marine wildlife. The proposal to use a high resolution digital video camera is likely to provide further data, which can be incorporated into Markov chain based as well as Before-After-Control-Impact (BACI) analyses (e.g. Lundquist, Sironi, Würsig, & Rowntree, 2008; Ribeiro et al., 2005). Furthermore, the ability to review, check and verify behavioural data from the video recording will be an important means of improving the accuracy and validity of the data collected for analysis purposes.

CONCLUSION

The marine wildlife tourism industry’s size and growth is stunning. As an example, the relatively recent development of cetacean-based tourism, increasing from nine to 13 million participants (1998 – 2008), in conjunction with its global scale, has caused concern regarding the potential negative impacts on this group of marine wildlife (O’Connor et. al., 2009). However, measuring and understanding the effects of marine tourism on free ranging marine wildlife is still far from satisfactory (Bejder & Samuels, 2004). It is therefore important to develop functional survey and analytical methods to assess and quantify animal behaviour associated with marine tour activities. The proposal to combine accepted and tested data collection methods and statistical analytical techniques with a high resolution digital video camera in partnership with a theodolite placed on an elevated land-based observation platform may prove a valuable advance in research techniques.

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TOWARDS A TYPOLOGY OF SURFING TOURISM ACTIVITIES

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Surfing has evolved rapidly from an activity associated with the hippy counter-culture of the 1960s to a world-wide phenomenon with millions of participants utilising a diverse range of surf-riding craft. This growth and diversification is a consequence of a range of factors including: music, art and film; a range of professional competitive circuits; the success and promotion of surf-related brands, products and imagery; the development and application of new technologies and, more recently, the development of specific surfing destinations including resorts, live-aboard vessels and surf-tourism focussed coastal communities. The range of surfing activities and their influences are widespread geographically and, most significantly, a number of remote coastal communities and marine ecosystems are being accessed by surfers and surfing-tourism related activities. These surfing tourists are pioneers and adventurers who often bring western and developed world expectations, values and behaviour into contact with remote subsistence communities in the developing world. This paper will explore the development of surfing related tourism and propose a typology which describes the range of surfing activities as a continuum. This model will provide a conceptual framework which can help guide future research into surfing tourism and provide a basis for considering its wide-ranging impacts. Such an approach can be used to clarify and categorise surfing tourism and help direct management efforts.
TOWARDS AN UNDERSTANDING OF TOURISM AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH PACIFIC SIDS

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This paper reviews major theoretical frameworks used to understand the links between tourism and economic development in Pacific Small Island Development States (SIDS) since the 1950s. The modernisation and Rostovian approaches of the 1950s largely ignored the role of tourism in the development of Pacific SIDS economies but certainly influenced broader export led economic development in the region. The emergence of dependency theory highlighted the importance of understanding the relationship between the global tourism industry and the local people who act as hosts, it also highlighted issues of uneven development and underdevelopment. Neo-liberal approaches continued to emphasize the need for island nations to focus on ‘export-led’ growth and to focus on attracting foreign direct investment and building large scale tourism industries where possible. The development of regulation theory and its related work in tourism in the 1980s has highlighted the potential for small scale, locally controlled, alternative tourism to survive and thrive as consumer demand becomes more fragmented and information technologies enable niche business to consumer marketing. Also, Bertram and Watters (1985) work on Migration, Remittances, Aid and Bureaucracy (MIRAB structures) in Pacific SIDS emphasised the importance of local context in understanding Pacific SIDS development. Although tourism is not discussed in the initial literature it is considered as an ‘economic supplement’ that cannot be ignored. Tourism is a vital additional component to MIRAB structures and therefore must be incorporated into these dimensions to reinforce its role in achieving sustainable economic growth and recognise the industry’s connection to other sectors of the economy, including local agriculture.

Keywords: Pacific SIDS, tourism and economic development, theoretical frameworks

INTRODUCTION

South Pacific Small Island Development States (SIDS) face an immediate problem of creating employment opportunities, generating income and sustaining livelihoods (Prasad & Roy, 2008; The Australian Agency for International Development [AUSAID], 2006). Tourism is seen as an attractive development option in part because, if well managed, it has the potential to generate income while also sustaining the cultural and natural resources of these small nations (Milne, 1992; 2005; World Tourism Organisation [WTO], 2006). The tourism industry in Pacific SIDS is threatened by many of the problems that have plagued other outward-oriented development...
strategies, such as excessive foreign dependency contributing to a loss of local control over resources, and substantial overseas leakage of tourism earnings (Brohman, 1996; Milne, 2010). The challenge for Pacific SIDS governments is how to manage the development of the tourism industry in such a way that it can be a lasting source of livelihood and not degrade the quality of life and natural and cultural resources upon which it depends (AUSAID, 2006; Government of Niue, 2005).

This paper provides a theoretical discussion on the major frameworks used to understand the links between tourism and economic development in South Pacific SIDS since the 1950s. The objective of this paper is to contribute to the literature on the role of tourism in the theoretical frameworks for Pacific SIDS economies.

THE MAJOR THEROTICAL FRAMEWORKS USED TO EXPLAIN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN PACIFIC SIDS

Modernisation theory and Rostovian approaches

From the 1950s through to the 1970s, approaches to understanding economic development in Pacific SIDS were dominated by modernisation theory and Rostovian approaches (Scheyvens, 2002). The Rostovian model, and closely related modernisation theory, imply that with the start of economic growth in the Third World, the benefits will ‘trickle down’ to improve the quality of life of the majority of its population (Scheyvens, 2002). During the 1950s to 1970s, the ruling powers in Pacific SIDS emphasised industrialisation via import substitution and growing trade as a key means of economic growth. Tourism was not seen to play a dominant role in a modern economy largely because mass tourism had not really emerged (Scheyvens, 2002). The export driven focus of agriculture also limited any focus on whatever tourism existed. The modernisation theory and Rostovian approaches apply to the developed world mode of development and not to the dependent small island economic setting (Berberoglu, 1992; McKay, 2004).

Dependency theory

Dependency theory, which was developed by Frank in the 1960s (Frank, 1966), articulates the way in which underdevelopment had been produced in the developing world, with an initial focus on Latin America (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Palma, 1981; Roxborough, 1979; Watts, 2006). In Pacific SIDS, tourism has maintained some of the economic and political effects of colonial rule such as dependency on foreign capital and investment (Hall, 1996; 1997). Dependency theory implies that locals must passively stand and watch the negative impacts develop rather than acknowledging their ability to influence the course of development through input into the planning process. The dependency approach tends to focus solely on the negative impacts of tourism, paying little attention to the role that the industry can play in stimulating local culture, environmental conservation and workable strategies to escape dependent development (Milne, 1997; 2006). Dependency perspectives suggest that the tourism industry follows a single development path towards mass tourism rather than acknowledging that alternative forms of tourism may have a long-term role to play. If consumers demand alternative tourism products or if companies begin to compete on factors other than price (such as quality, and flexibility of packages), the broader applicability of many features of the dependency model could be placed in doubt (Milne, 1997).
Neo-liberal approaches

Neo-liberal approaches that influenced the Pacific SIDS in 1980s and beyond are based on a belief that market-led growth and economic liberalisation provide long-term economic development benefits (Scheyvens, 2002). Neo-liberal economic approaches imposed by the World Bank upon governments of Pacific SIDS include privatisation, import substitution, deregulation and structural adjustments. These approaches are prescribed as key policies to removing barriers to trade and encourage foreign investment in Pacific SIDS (Cattarinich, 2001; Goh, 2006; Tisdell, 2002). Trade liberalisation has caused competition from imported products in developing countries, driven local producers out of business, and increased unemployment and foreign exchange leakages (Timms, 2006). The prevailing neo-liberal economic policies have stymied the development of the major sectors such as agriculture and tourism in developing countries due to their almost exclusive focus on promoting foreign investment through ‘rational’ market forces (Brohman, 1996; Timms, 2006). The focus on ‘export-led’ growth emphasised by the neo-liberal approaches fails to consider local market opportunities for locally grown produce and cultural experiences demanded by the tourism industry.

Regulation theory and the emergence of new tourism

Tourism has undergone a paradigmatic shift from a Fordist to Post-Fordist era driven by broader shifts in production, consumption and the regulatory role of the state (Murphy & Murphy, 2004; Poon, 1989; 1993). Tourist demands are changing from a standardised and ‘rigidly packed’ traditional ‘sun, sand and sea’ mentality to unique and authentic experiences (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Shaw & Williams, 2002). The industry is becoming increasingly ‘flexible’ by offering customized packages and marketing directly to niche groups through the internet and benefiting from networks (Fayos-Sola & Bueno, 2001; Milne, 1997; Mowforth & Munt, 2009). The regulation theory is most relevant to the region due to the opportunity for Pacific SIDS to escape the ‘vicious cycle’ of tourism underdevelopment (Britton & Kissling, 1984) and respond to the problems of local ownership of resources and tap into the benefits of small and medium entrepreneurship and sustainable community tourism development (Britton & Kissling, 1984; Poon, 1989). Although Pacific SIDS cannot completely ignore mass tourism, a policy focus on ‘value-adding’ through continued encouragement of local activities and closer links with the traditional economy is essential to maximise economic benefits and minimise negative impacts (Milne, 1997; 2006; Milne & Nowosielski, 1997).

The MIRAB model

Migration, Remittances, Aid and Bureaucracy (MIRAB) approaches, introduced by Bertram and Watters (1985) and extended by Bertram (1986; 1999), attributes the continued survival of Pacific SIDS to the persistence of migration, remittances, aid and bureaucracy, since their economies do not conform to export-led tradable production and private-sector investment (Apostolopoulos & Gayle, 2002; Bertram, 1999; Van Meijl, 2007). It is argued that remittances result in a conspicuous consumption of imported goods, cause a hand-out mentality, and fail to rejuvenate rural economies because they limit local efforts, savings and capital investments (Muliaina, 2006; Prasad, 2003). Critics of the MIRAB model state that it ignores tourism’s contribution and its linkage with the predominant agriculture sector for sustainable development as local food production is considered to be mainly for subsistence purposes and not a major contributor to economic growth (Milne, 2005; WTO, 2006). Despite the strong focus by Pacific
SIDS governments and international donor policy initiatives on tourism’s role in development (Apostolopoulos & Gayle, 2002; Milne, 2005; Rao, 2002; United Nations Environment Programme [UNEP], 1996; WTO, 2006), the sector rarely features in the MIRAB model.

CONSIDERING THE ROLE OF TOURISM IN THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS FOR PACIFIC SIDS ECONOMIES

The MIRAB model and elements of regulation theory can be applied to Pacific SIDS setting – but only with limited success. Uncertainty remains as to what extent the current frameworks can grapple with the unique context of Pacific SIDS, especially Bertram and Watters’s (1985) MIRAB structures that are so vital to the survival of island nations in the region. The ability of many SIDS in the region to rely heavily on international donor funding and public sector employment has diminished interest in the tourism industry. Past policies of donor agencies have tended to push Pacific SIDS towards the development of larger resorts rather than smaller community-focused products, although this has shifted in recent years. Although Pacific SIDS economies may be able to sustain themselves on MIRAB structures, they tend to treat tourism as an ‘economic bonus’. However, tourism is more than just ‘an economic bonus’ due to its existence as a critical component of the economy in Pacific SIDS.

The application of regulation theory to tourism (Poon, 1993) provides important insights into the linkages between tourism and economic development in Pacific SIDS. However, regulation theory struggles to come to terms with the small size, isolation and the rather unusual structure of Pacific SIDS economies. The growing fragmentation of demand and the increasing desire for niche tourism experiences, combined with the rise of internet-based marketing platforms, opens up new opportunities for small islands in the region to tap into tourism. Poon (1993, p. 121) suggested that the shift from ‘mass’ to ‘alternative tourism’ means tourists are more involved in the trip-planning process. Milne (2009) and Poon (1993) argue that local entrepreneurs need to use the internet to create awareness and market their ‘alternative tourism’ products in order to disseminate appropriate information to potential tourists.

The government of Pacific SIDS can focus on the importance of local control and the participation of communities in the development of their own economies. There are opportunities to break away from Britton’s (1987) prediction that tourism development in Pacific SIDS can only be achieved at the expense of environmental degradation and loss of culture. A greater emphasis needs to be placed on tourism’s role in stimulating the sustainability of local culture and the environment, instead of solely focusing on its negative impacts.

CONCLUSION

The theories outlined above have limited applicability to the small island economic setting: the growing human and environmental crises in Pacific SIDS confirm widespread doubts over the consequences and possibly the intentions of theories of development that have been insensitive to the institutional and cultural backgrounds of these countries (Burt & Clerk, 1997; Tisdell, 2002). The major development frameworks in Pacific SIDS must recognise the role of tourism in contributing to economic growth and stimulating other sectors of the economy.

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Although the academic literature shows several recent studies on bluewater yacht cruising, there remains a paucity of inquiry on this individualistic yet highly communal ‘leisure’ subculture. Conceptual focus to date has been on the formation of community within a utopian paradigm (MacBeth 1992; 2000), yachting lifestyle and motivations (Lusby & Anderson 2008; 2010), and economic development. Reference is made to similarities with grey nomad campers, another lifestyle migration segment with strong codification of group norms. Studies to date have utilized in-depth personal interviews. In contrast, the author of this paper, an academic and trans-Pacific sailor, trialled survey methods in order to profile members of a complex community. Long-distance ocean sailors exhibit behaviours of both escape from modern society and creation of an idealized alternative, act as both seasonal resident and tourist, and live with close attachment to nature. This pilot study compared questionnaire results from international cruisers in the Whangarei harbour, North Island, New Zealand, with survey responses received via email from trans-Pacific sailors contacted through announcements on internet listserve groups. The relatively small number of responses from each subgroup (n = 18 and 15 respectively) can be expected given the self-sufficient and transient nature of cruisers, but the exploratory research also serves to ground an anticipated larger study of small-scale, community-based development for the bluewater cruising market in the ‘less developed’ South Pacific islands. Preliminary findings focus on varying lifestyle arrangements (e.g. single-handers, families, part-time offshore sailors) and itinerary patterns, levels of integration cruisers may retain with home country, elaborations on cruising motivations (with gender-specific distinctions), economic impact as a function of employment status and travel generated by crew changes and hosting international visitors onboard, and creation of a destination model for provision of quality services for foreign yachtyies.

Keywords: Sailing, bluewater cruising, offshore, leisure community, trans-Pacific

INTRODUCTION

‘Once a person has gone to sea, there is a new reality. They can’t effectively explain the passage from one state to the next. All they can do is offer to share, that most essential gift they have received. And, ever after, they must serve one, uppermost need. To get underway, and go to sea. Yet one more time.’

(Anonymous, no date)
Jimmy Cornell (2008), author of the bluewater cruising publication World Cruising Routes, informally estimates that 400-500 sailboats cross the South Pacific from east to west annually. The ‘Milk Run’ from the west coast of the Americas to landfall in the Marquesas Islands of French Polynesia, continuing through Cook Islands, Tonga, Fiji and Vanuatu, and then‘summering’ in New Zealand, is a famous route romanticized in popular culture. But as one would expect with an adventurous subculture defined by independence, there are as many variations on this pattern as there are ideas about what makes a vessel seaworthy. Due to its’ transient nature and the remote locations frequented by bluewater cruisers there are significant challenges in studying this community, with the possible exception of popular ports of call during cyclone season. As a consequence, there is a paucity of research on Pacific bluewater cruising. Bluewater cruising, as distinct from coastal cruising, is commonly defined as offshore sailing involving overnight open ocean passages. At the conceptual intersection of mobility, leisure community, tourism planning/economic development, the topic offers fertile waters (so to speak) for intellectual inquiry.

Prior to an in-depth study of development processes associated with yacht tourism in ‘less developed’ island nations, a pilot study in Whangarei and online was conducted to: (1) trial an email list-based sampling methodology; (2) test existing suppositions about travel patterns and motivational profile of blue-water sailors; and (3) explore ‘consumer’ recommendations in order to create a destination model for quality hosting of offshore yachtyes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Bluewater sailing can be positioned within the mobility literature, as it meets both definitional elements of migration and circulation (Cridland, 2008). Given emergent research into lifestyle migration, a phenomenon characterized by renegotiation of work-life balance, quality of life and freedom from prior constraints (Benson & O’Reilly, 2009), it is not surprising there is little academic examination of the specialized leisure world of offshore yachtyes, a uniquely independent subgroup deliberately disengaged from modern society by travelling to remote locations (Axup & Viller, 2005). Using in-depth interviews, Macbeth (1992) was first to use subculture theory to hypothesize the entry of cruisers into a lifestyle realm following an introduction phase shaped by popular media and literature, and an acceptance phase characterized by skill building. He posits the importance of having no job ‘in the background’ as an important distinction in building an alternative ‘whole of life,’ one of ambiguity and periodic hardship offset by powerful opportunities for self-actualization. Macbeth later (2000) makes analogy to utopian community in exploring creation of an alternative life that is partially escapist from modernity, while simultaneously creating an ideal characterized by self-reliance, physical activity, and connection to nature.

Lusby and Anderson (2008) studied Caribbean cruisers to profile the offshore sailing community, focusing on belongingness that comes from shared experience. One element of self-identification with community is hypothesized to come from ‘generalized reciprocity’ whereby cruisers help each other with the expectation they too will assist and be assisted in the future. Refinements in their (2010) work hypothesize a set of motivational drivers for blue-water sailing: a freedom theme incorporating autonomy, challenge and escape, and love of the sea. Uniquely, women mentioned spirituality and healing in poignant stories of connection with the universe, but all respondents described deeply satisfying ‘peak’ immersion experiences. More

Parallels can be drawn with other socially networked leisure communities, especially the grey nomads of Australia or caravanning by North American retirees (Onyx & Leonard, 2007; Higgs & Quirk, 2007; Hardy & Gretzel, 2008). These groups of motorhome owners are distinctive in also bringing their residence and possessions with them ‘on the road’ when they camp.

SURVEY METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was distributed to two sample subgroups --- sailors berthed at the Town Basin Marina (TBM) in Whangarei, North Island, New Zealand and bluewater sailors subscribing to the Yahoo lists ‘pacificpuddlejump’ and ‘circumnavigation.’ Pacificpuddlejump (1,070 members) is directed at westbound cruisers headed to the South Pacific, with lively e-communication and a compilation of resources to assist that passage. Each year a ‘class’ of puddlejumpers depart the Americas, although users may subscribe for years as they prepare their boat and improve their skills, or maintain list contact afterwards. Similarly, circumnavigation (166 members) is for boats planning or currently sailing around the world.

One hundred and twenty non-New Zealand sailboats checked through TBM in the 2009-2010 season, with approximately one-third (n = 40) staying for the entire cyclone season (B. Caulton, personal communication, April 20, 2010). Self-administered questionnaires were hand-delivered to 17 foreign boats with someone aboard in mid-April 2010, and a marina notice encouraged other sailors to contact the Australia-based researcher for an identical survey instrument sent by email (nine did so). Eighteen useable questionnaires were received (‘Whangarei subsample’). Given the constraints of SailMail, an at-sea email delivery system with limited bandwidth, sailors on the pacificpuddlejump and circumnavigation lists were also asked to contact the researcher with intent to participate (July-September). Fifteen respondents met the criteria of South Pacific offshore bluewater sailors (‘offshore subsample’). Twelve additional questionnaires sent in response to study announcements on the Yahoo lists were eliminated from analysis because they were from motoryachts or those still planning to depart on a South Pacific voyage. Small sample size and lack of statistical tests are not uncommon in a pilot study such as this; the research value is in obtaining feedback on research design when contacting a mobile cruising population reporting from remote locations (spanning Mexico to Langkawi).

Profile of Sailors and Travel Itineraries

Respondents were asked what country they considered home and U.S. citizens dominated the profile (67%). The offshore sample is limited to Americans and Canadians, suggesting the internet list-based research design misses the many bluewater sailors from European countries. Seventy-three percent of questionnaires came from male captains. Some crew members completed the survey in the offshore sample, and two female captains and two instances of co-captaining were reported. Couples comprise the most common sailing social unit (82%), each subsample includes one family with children aboard, and the Whangarei subsample is hypothesized to be over-represented by singlehanders (n = 3).
The offshore subsample averages 19,200 nautical miles travelled on the present voyage. The offshore boats have traversed, in their estimation, a mean of 82% of the Pacific Ocean in an east-west direction, and 98% is the modal response. There is almost an even split between starting passage from the west coast of the Americas (47%) versus those who transited the Panama Canal (53%). Only one boat was not moving in a generally east to west direction. All sailboats in Whangarei reported they had, in their perception, ‘crossed the Pacific,’ and far more (72%) had transited the Panama Canal.

The majority of yachting (79%) live aboard and sail year-round. The extensive experience of foreign sailors in Whangarei is again evidenced in an average voyage of 69 months to date, ranging widely from 2.5 years to almost 14 years. Length of voyages is on average 1.6 years shorter for the offshore subgroup. Figures for intention to circumnavigate were similar for both subsamples (42%), but the proportion of ‘undecided’ reaches 40% among offshore sailors (28% in Whangarei). The most frequent response for length of time the boat will continue blue-water sailing was ‘not sure’ (57%), suggestive of fluidity in decision-making and opportunities for shaping destination choice.

Motivations for Bluewater Sailing

Subgroup data were merged when frequency distributions showed little difference. Respondents were asked to consider a statement summarizing previous research (Lusby & Anderson, 2010): “ocean cruisers sail because of (1) freedom and an independent life, and (2) love of the sea.” In open-ended replies, there was widespread acceptance of these themes as a starting point, but cruisers added a plethora of other motivations. The few persons who disagreed (n = 3) termed sailing ‘a way to get from point A to B,’ and emphasized adventure and seeing new countries by a marine-based travel mode.

Secondly, respondents were asked to conduct a Likert scale rating (1 = very unimportant; 5 = very important) of the importance of six factors to them personally as related to the sailing lifestyle, with opportunity (and most did so) to differentiate male-female responses on the same boat. Four factors consistently showed mean scores exceeding 4, for both genders and for both subgroups. The top ranked factor was ‘satisfying way of life,’ which averaged 4.7 for men, whereas women ranked ‘the sailing community’ first (x̄= 4.6). Females reported higher scores for ‘connection with nature,’ whereas males scored the challenge/independence factor higher. The low average for spirituality (x̄ = 2.2) does not negate the fact that 17 individuals (44 individual opinions received) rated spirituality 4 or higher. The ‘escape’ factor, phrased as ‘…from what?’, generated a bi-modal distribution (x̄ = 2.7). In supporting Macbeth’s (2000) complex formulation of escape, some of the sample population detailed satisfaction with their shore-based life so that escape was not perceived as an appropriate word. For example, one respondent stated: “We had a great house, great families, fantastic jobs and good incomes. Nothing to run away from, just something to pursue and gain.” Alternatively, others offered a scathing critique of modern society. This quote is illustrative: “The way of life in the U.S. is materialistic and hectic, lacking insight, community, time for reflection, and genuine interpersonal interactions.”

Economic Impact
Anecdotal evidence suggests that during a long-term stay, cruisers embed themselves in the community and access many of the same retail services as residents, in addition to marine businesses. Although there has been very little work done on the financial impact of cruisers on remote South Pacific islands, economic returns to the host community, in particular expenditures on refit, repair and maintenance from yachts visiting more developed countries, are typically estimated in community impact studies conducted by professional associations or Chamber of Commerce-type organizations (e.g. Northland Marine Development Group, 2008). This current study is complementary in that economic impact is further examined as a function of employment status, income from the sale of a home, and number of out-of-country trips generated by sailing. Most importantly, contrary to stereotypes, only 64% of the sample consider themselves to be retired, but while 40% of offshore sailors are still employed periodically, this figure was only 16% in the Whangarei subsample. However, this value may reflect the research design whereby only occupied boats in Whangarei received a questionnaire.

Destination Recommendations

Six of the offshore subsample had visited New Zealand (40%). Those cruisers who had not, most often used the following self-generated phrases, in rank order, to describe their expectations on arrival: ‘excellent service to long-distance yachtsies,’ ‘welcoming and friendly,’ ‘strict Customs,’ ‘quarantine regulations mean can’t bring pet,’ and ‘difficulty in sailing there.’ Two respondents mentioned the Marshall Islands as the destination that competes with New Zealand for the ‘over-summer’ market in a non-cyclone region. Boats that had been to or based in New Zealand (n=27) generated a plethora of recommendations for the country to improve competitiveness in the bluewater cruising market, and onboard internet access was the number one suggestion.

CONCLUSION

The pilot study reported in this paper was conducted to test a proposed research design and provide insight into characteristics of bluewater cruisers in the South Pacific. The low response rate received from using Yahoo lists, the U.S.-centric nature, and the large number of ‘lurkers’ failing to meet the definition of current blue-water cruisers, suggests their best use is for contacting sailors who are preparing to go offshore or still sailing east of the Panama Canal. Many offshore surveys were received with a personal note about a limited amount of time in port.

A more productive internet strategy for sailors scattered across the Pacific, given their preferred electronic connectedness, may be to encourage research participation through information at marinas and anchorages with internet access. A web-based survey, with additional promotion occurring through port-based (in contrast to ocean-based) radio networks, would require building relationships with marina owners and local entrepreneurs, who are often expatriates.

The many variants of crew composition, itinerary choices and styles of engagement with a ‘home base,’ indicate a multiplicity of distinctive user groups under the term ‘bluewater cruisers.’ In particular, families with children, offshore cruisers who regularly return ‘home’ or land travel during the cyclone season, and non-circumnavigating boats that cruise in the South Pacific Ocean and islands for several years have not been examined from a research perspective. Additional research into these overlooked market segments will offer a more informed view of who sails the world’s oceans and why, and what they want when they come ashore.
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WHAT’S LOVE GOT TO DO WITH IT?
CONSIDERING THE REASONS FOR THE POPULARITY OF
GOAT ISLAND MARINE RESERVE, LEIGH, NEW ZEALAND.

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Over the summer months, New Zealand’s beaches are sites of intensive recreational activity, both from New Zealand residents and international visitors. Goat Island Marine Reserve, located 90 minutes drive north of Auckland city, is an interesting example of the popularity of beaches and near-shore waters. It is the most popular marine reserve in New Zealand, attracting an estimated 375,000 visits during the 2007-2008 year, an increase of 3000% since the reserve was established in 1975. In the height of summer, the small beach adjacent to the marine reserve is over-crowded, car parks are filled to capacity, there is little shade and there are no shops close by to purchase food and drink. In the marine reserve itself recreational vessels including a glass bottom boat, kayaks, sail and motorboats utilise the same space as many scuba divers, snorkelers and swimmers. Since the establishment of this “no take” marine protected area biological changes have occurred to the marine habitat that have allowed an increase in the diversity and size of the marine fauna and flora. Diving and snorkeling are the most popular recreational past-times. It has been argued that interacting with marine wildlife provides physiological and psychological benefits (Higham & Luck, 2008) which promote a conservation ethic. Perhaps this is what Jacques Cousteau meant, when he said: “People protect what they love” (Cousteau & Diole, 1975). This paper will explore the popularity of Goat Island Marine Reserve and consider the emotional connection that interaction with marine wildlife provides.

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COMPETING TO COMPETE?
EXPLORING COMPETING PRIORITIES AS CONSTRAINTS IN EVENT TRAVEL CAREERS AMONGST NON-ELITE TRIATHLETES

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ABSTRACT

Prominent event management scholar Donald Getz recently coined the term “event travel career” to describe how highly involved and/or committed persons can initiate a career of travel to events surrounding their preferred leisure activity. However, individuals may face dilemmas in prioritising between day-to-day needs and desires and those of their event travel career. Negotiating these competing priorities can lead to opportunity costs, or the loss of benefits that may have eventuated if one course of action was prioritised over another. The fields of leisure constraints and constraints negotiation are therefore relevant in understanding how event travel careers integrate into people’s lives. This paper argues that the concepts of competing priorities, values, and opportunity costs are useful in understanding how and why people make tradeoffs in aspects of their life in order to pursue event travel careers. A textual analysis of postings to an Australian online forum for triathletes was undertaken over four weeks. The data collected supported a contention that persons who train for and travel to triathlon events face numerous competing priorities, such as allocating leisure time between their event travel career versus spending time with family and friends. Three categories of competing priorities were identified: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural. From a scholarly perspective this study represents new ground in the field of leisure constraints research. Avenues for future research based around the notion of competing priorities are discussed in this paper.

Keywords: constraints, negotiation, competing priorities, opportunity costs, triathlon

INTRODUCTION

According to Getz (2007; 2008), persons who are highly involved and/or highly committed to a leisure activity can embark upon a career of travelling to participate in events related to that leisure activity. A key element in Getz’s event travel career (ETC) concept is a progression in the events travelled to over time. This progression may be evident in aspects such as the benefits sought, level of competition, or prestige of the event. In the sport of triathlon, opportunities exist for participants to engage in a career of travelling to triathlon events throughout the world. Furthermore, there is a distinct hierarchy of events in terms of duration, challenge and prestige. As such, the global calendar of events combined with broad scope for progression, means that triathlon is a leisure activity that provides a relevant context in which to study ETCs. This paper addresses non-elite triathletes, referring to persons who participate in triathlon events on an unpaid basis as distinct from professional athletes. Non-elite triathlon competitors are henceforth referred to as ‘triathletes.’

Pursuing an ETC in triathlon may require a high level of commitment and involvement; consequently, triathletes may experience constraints. Jackson (1988, p. 203) defines leisure constraints as factors that “inhibit people’s ability to participate in leisure activities, to spend more time doing so, or to achieve a desired level of satisfaction”. The issue of limited resources
is a common theme within the literature that can constrain leisure participation. Resources are defined as “things within an individual’s control that can be used to resolve the demands placed on him or her” (Robbins, Judge, Millett, & Waters Marsh, 2008, p. 698). It is proposed that the initiation and continuity of ETCs amongst non-elite triathlon participants is constrained by an individual’s resources. An individual’s resources have alternative uses, often at odds with one another. Negotiating resource-related constraints therefore requires the individual to make decisions in allocating resources either to support their ETC, or to support other needs or desires in their life. Consequently, it is argued that it is difficult for most people to fulfil the entire spectrum of their day-to-day needs and desires, whilst simultaneously maintaining a triathlon ETC at their desired level. As an individual’s day-to-day needs and desires can clash with those of their ETC, the individual may need to make tradeoffs in favour of some needs or desires, at the expense of others. This clash of needs and desires is referred to as ‘competing priorities.’

Furthermore, it is suggested that the way in which an individual manages their competing priorities is influenced by their values. Values are defined as “concepts or beliefs” that “pertain to desirable end states or behaviours” and “guide selection or evaluation of behaviour and events” (Schwartz, 1992, p. 4). As such, the constraints negotiation process may be conceptualised as a set of decisions regarding the allocation of resources, which are guided by the individual’s values. The outcome of this constraints negotiation process may be a trade-off in one or more aspects of the individual’s life. Therefore, to understand how an individual integrates an ETC into their life, the following must be established:

1. What are the individual’s needs and desires?
2. Is there conflict between the individual’s day-to-day needs and desires and those of their ETC (i.e. what are the individual’s competing priorities)?
3. What resources does the individual have at their disposal, and to what degree do these constrain participation in the ETC?
4. What processes do individuals use to allocate resources between competing priorities when an opportunity cost cannot be avoided?
5. What role does the individual’s values play in these decisions?
6. What impacts do opportunity costs have on the individual’s life?

While much of the above is beyond the scope of this investigation, broadly, the aim of this paper is to emphasise that individuals’ competing priorities in combination with limited resources, can constrain participation in an ETC. Although this notion is acknowledged to some extent within the leisure constraints literature, the role of values in the constraints negotiation process and the impact on people’s lives of opportunity costs arising from the negotiation of competing priorities, are under-emphasised. These issues are also yet to be explored in the context of ETCs.

As such, the specific aims of this paper are to:

1. Present empirical data from a pilot study which supports a contention that non-elite triathletes experience conflict between their day-to-day needs and desires and their ETC; that they are constrained by limited resources and must therefore negotiate a range of competing priorities to pursue an ETC (questions 2 and 3 above);
2. Identify, categorise and discuss an initial range of competing priorities that affect non-elite triathlon participants’ pursuit of an ETC (question 2 above); and
3. Suggest avenues for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leisure constraints and constraints negotiation

Arguably, persons pursuing an ETC face constraints that restrict them from initiating, or maintaining ongoing participation in that ETC at their desired level. Leisure constraints can both inhibit participation in a leisure activity or influence the extent to which an individual can participate in, and derive satisfaction from leisure activities (Jackson, 1988). Wilson and Little (2005) have pointed out that early research into leisure constraints centred on barriers that prevent people from participating in leisure activities. However, recent research has tended to focus on how constraints are negotiated to maintain or increase participation in an activity (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000).

A seminal conceptualisation of leisure constraints is presented by Crawford and Godbey (1987). These authors conceptualised leisure constraints as social-psychological barriers that influence leisure preferences and behaviour. Three dimensions make up Crawford and Godbey’s (1987) leisure constraints model. Intrapersonal constraints are intrinsic states and attributes that limit participation, such as fear, anxiety, stress, or a lack of perceived skill. Interpersonal constraints are “the result of interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals’ characteristics” (Crawford & Godbey, 1987, p. 123). Interpersonal constraints might arise as a result of spousal interaction. For example, choice of leisure activity may be determined by joint preference. However, Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991, p. 321) note that “the concept of interpersonal barriers is applicable to interpersonal relations in general”. Inability to locate a suitable training partner is an example of an interpersonal constraint. Finally, structural constraints are conditions that intervene between leisure preference and participation, such as limited time and money.

In a revised version of this framework, Crawford et al. (1991) suggested that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints should be thought of in a hierarchical manner. Their proposition was that “leisure participation is heavily dependent on negotiating through an alignment of multiple factors, arranged sequentially, that must be overcome to maintain an individual’s impetus through these systemic levels” (Crawford, et al., 1991, p. 314).

Intrapersonal constraints were therefore posited as the most powerful constraints, which must be overcome before the individual will face interpersonal constraints. Interpersonal constraints need to be negotiated before the individual faces structural constraints. Some authors have presented evidence supporting this hierarchical nature of constraints. For example, in their study of US citizens, Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997, p.447) noted that “intrapersonal constraints seemed to inhibit friendships and social relationships, and interpersonal constraints precluded some activities that could have occurred if the social support had been available”. However, the same study also presented evidence suggesting that this hierarchy of constraints is not absolute.

Until the early 1990s, leisure constraints were regarded as insurmountable barriers preventing participation. Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993, p.5) questioned this notion and suggested that negotiation of constraints is much more common than non-participation: “… people
frequently respond to constraints actively, by negotiation, rather than passively by nonparticipation”.

Constraints negotiation researchers have tended to use participation as an indicator of success (Wilson & Little, 2005). That is, if an individual reaches a point where they participate, it is assumed that all constraints have been successfully negotiated. As such, there are gaps in the literature in understanding how people maintain leisure participation at their desired level. The notions of sacrifices, tradeoffs and prioritisation as methods of negotiating leisure constraints have been observed by numerous authors (e.g. Jackson et al., 1993; Little, 2002). Indeed, Jackson et al. (1993, p. 5) have suggested that:

... it may even be speculated that the confrontation and successful negotiation of leisure constraints can enhance participation as people rearrange their schedules, spending priorities, and other aspects of their lives to accomplish their leisure-related goals.

Jackson et al. (1993, p. 7) also noted that “the economic concept of opportunity cost applied to leisure participation is an implicit statement of the tradeoffs that must be made in the face of financial constraints”. It is arguable however, that in the context of constraints negotiation, opportunity costs are not strictly economic. They may manifest in other facets of peoples’ lives.

In summary, the concept of competing priorities, and the impacts of opportunity costs arising from negotiating competing priorities have received little attention within the leisure constraints and constraints negotiation literature. Furthermore, these ideas are yet to be considered in the context of ETCs.

Event travel careers

Getz (2008, p.403) argued that “events are an important motivator of tourism, and figure prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations … yet it was only a few years ago that ‘event tourism’ became established in both the tourism industry and in the research community”. Event tourism arguably remains an under-researched area, which has implications for the sustainable growth of event tourism and the advancement of theory in this field.

One aspect of event tourism in which “researchers have so far only scratched the surface” (Getz, 2007, p. 241), is the concept of event travel careers. The concept of an ETC is an adaptation by Getz (2007) of Pearce’s (2005) travel career trajectory or travel career ladder. Pearce suggested that as a traveller becomes more experienced, their motivations will shift from lower order motives such as relaxation and safety, to higher-order motives, such as fulfilment, as the individual travels more and progresses in their travel career. Getz’s (2007; 2008) idea of an ETC is similar. It suggests that persons who exhibit high levels of involvement in or commitment to a leisure activity can initiate a career of travelling to events, characterised by a progression in the benefits and challenges sought. The ETC concept is also underpinned by Stebbins’ (1982) theory of serious leisure, described as “the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity that is sufficiently substantial and interesting for a participant to find a career there in acquisition and expression of its special skills and knowledge” (Stebbins, 2001, p. 3).
Getz (2008, p.415) argued that “many personal, social and cultural factors will affect event tourism behaviour, and although there is a substantial body of literature on leisure and travel in general, the various factors specifically affecting event tourism have not been well explored”.

METHODS

An exploratory research design informed by an interpretive approach to data collection and analysis was used in this study. As little has been written regarding competing priorities in the context of ETCs, an interpretive approach was deemed appropriate for this study because of its ability to generate rich, detailed descriptions of the phenomenon under investigation (Veal, 2006). Using this approach the researchers sought to explore the competing priorities that triathletes experience pertinent to the pursuit of an ETC. These outcomes could serve as a platform for future research.

This research incorporated the collection of secondary data. Textual data were collected from an Internet forum for triathletes, where thread discussions were monitored over a four-week period. This forum is utilised mostly by non-elite triathlon participants, although professional (paid) triathletes are not prohibited from participating. Discussions typically address issues surrounding equipment, training, and race reports/news. In particular, discussions pertaining to conflict between the pursuit of ETC goals and day-to-day needs and desires were monitored. On the forum, participants tend to speak openly about their involvement in triathlon and how it integrates into their lives. As such, the forum was considered to be a source of pertinent data for this pilot study.

A criticism of this Internet forum as a source of data relating to ETCs may be that thread discussions tend to centre on participants’ day-to-day involvement in triathlon. Some may argue that the travel element is not adequately captured through data of this nature. However, there was evidence within the discussions of participants travelling to, or planning to travel to compete in triathlons. Opportunities to compete in triathlon events are often limited by tight supply. Depending upon an individual’s geographic location, it is usually necessary to travel away from the home region to compete. Triathletes’ day-to-day social networks may also influence travel behaviour relating to their leisure activity.

It is further argued that an ETC in triathlon is embedded within these people’s daily lives. Many of the triathletes’ comments revealed that they engaged in daily physical training to prepare for events they ultimately travel to. Thus day-to-day involvement in triathlon-related activities (such as regular training sessions across the three sports) is a crucial underpinning of an ETC. It is therefore essential that research considers how individuals manage their day-to-day lives, to maintain involvement in an ETC. Although discussions on this forum are not framed specifically in the context of travel, this information still represents a useful data source for a pilot project such as the present study.

All thread topics posted to the forum two weeks either side of the date of a major event on the Australian triathlon calendar, the 2010 Ironman Australia Triathlon, were monitored. Ironman Australia is part of the global series of qualifier races for the Ironman World Championship held
in Hawaii each October. Ironman triathlons involve a 3.8km swim, 180km cycle, and 42.2km run leg, which require a great deal of time and commitment to prepare for. Data collection was timed around this event as it is common in the lead-up to major events for forum participants to discuss their training and how it integrates into their lives. Any postings (part or whole) that alluded to sacrifices and/or competing priorities made in the process of preparing for an event, during an event, and after an event were extracted for analysis.

Data collected were subjected to a textual analysis, a qualitative subset of the broader family of techniques known as content analysis, which Neuman (2006, p.322) described as a means of “gathering and analysing the content of text”. Textual analysis differs from other content analysis techniques, in that this approach does not attempt to understand the meaning of written material through quantitative measurement or through the application of predetermined codes (Jennings, 2001). Given the exploratory nature of this pilot study, textual analysis was deemed appropriate as it allows for themes to emerge from the data. Blocks of text extracted from thread postings were analysed using a three-stage process consisting of open, axial, and selective coding as described by Neuman (2006). The deeper analysis associated with selective coding was hampered however, as the anonymous nature of the data limited the researchers’ abilities to make between-group comparisons. To improve intercoder reliability, two researchers performed open and axial coding processes independently, and then compared the outcomes before selective coding was undertaken.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Through the analysis of data three major themes were identified. Each theme pertained to an area of life, or ‘domain’, in which triathletes appear to experience competing priorities; that is, conflict between day-to-day needs and desires, and those of their ETC. It was evident that the triathletes frequently made decisions within these three domains that result in opportunity costs. That is, resources were allocated either in favour of their ETC at the expense of day-to-day needs, or vice versa. Broadly, these three domains were 1) personal preferences relating to leisure participation where the individual has complete control over the decisions they make, such as diet and choice of leisure activities; 2) personal relationships, such as family and social relationships; and 3) aspects of the individual’s life where external variables affect leisure participation, such as limited time and money.

Upon closer examination, it was concluded that the three domains of competing priorities could be classified according to Crawford and Godbey’s (1987) categories of leisure participation barriers: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. Whilst this research did not explicitly set out to test Crawford and Godbey’s model, that the themes emerged from the data in this way is a testament to the robustness of their model. The findings relating to the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural domains of competing priorities are now presented and discussed.

Intrapersonal competing priorities

Intrapersonal competing priorities consisted of “individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences” (Crawford & Godbey, 1987, p. 122). Competing priorities within the intrapersonal domain included diet, leisure activities, and personal health. Figure 1 illustrates these competing intrapersonal priorities. The left-hand hemisphere represents day-to-day needs and desires, whilst the right-hand (shaded) hemisphere illustrates opposing
needs and desires, which are pertinent to the ETC. The same convention is used in Figures 2 and 3. As argued earlier, our proposition is that most people must prioritise the allocation of limited resources between satisfying day-to-day needs and desires, versus those of their ETC. The outcome is an opportunity cost, as one set of needs and desires is often satisfied at the expense of another.

Dietary choices were a common intrapersonal theme, as excess body weight and the consumption of particular foods and beverages were viewed as detrimental to sporting performance. The triathletes described grappling with competing priorities involving freedom of choice in the food they eat (particularly in social situations involving non-triathlon friends and family), against their desire to minimise body weight in order to maximise athletic performance. The data indicated that the triathletes tend to make sacrifices by restricting intake of certain foods during the preparation phase for important events. However, once the event has passed, this restriction appeared to ease, as described by Triathlete C: “… eat lots of crap food, go to the pub, eat a 700g steak and wash it down with the cheese platter for two for one. Give it about four weeks and then start planning the next [triathlon]”.

Triathlete F prescribed “a box of Froot Loops” as a treat, following dietary restrictions leading into competition: “hadn’t eaten them since I was a kid, they taste awesome. Everyone should buy some now.”

Choice of leisure activities was another area of competing priorities. Triathlon is a combination of three separate sports. Consistent and extensive effort is required to gain and maintain fitness in all three. As such, the time and energy required to improve performance in swimming, cycling and running, restricts the individual’s ability to participate in other leisure activities. For example, in a thread following the Australian Ironman Triathlon, one triathlete noted that they were looking forward to engaging in leisure activities other than swimming, cycling and running during their recovery period:

I thought I was coping with it but am feeling exhausted and mentally flat after finding out that I am a good 2 hours short of where I need to be. Anyhow I have found that a 9 hour drinking session watching premier league soccer and NRL with the lads who don’t care about triathlon normally perks me up, will be hitting the turps at 3 pm tomorrow (Triathlete H).
Broadly, the leisure constraints literature postulates constraints as barriers to participation. However, in this instance it was found that the triathletes faced barriers in terms of achieving their ETC goals. As such, it is not barriers to participation that are the issue here; it is barriers to partaking in the ETC at the desired level that is more pertinent. The above examples illustrate how the triathletes made choices relating to intrapersonal competing priorities in order to achieve their ETC goals. These examples supported Jackson et al.’s (1993) idea that leisure participation can be enhanced through the rearrangement of aspects of individuals’ lives to achieve leisure-related goals.

In the lead-up to competition it appears that the triathletes’ choices were influenced more by a desire to achieve ETC goals, i.e. they were more likely to allocate resources in favour of the ETC. However, following competition, ETC needs and desires became secondary to day-to-day needs and desires. While individuals may have personal control over choices that relate to intrapersonal constraints, the next section discusses how interpersonal relationships can also impact upon the pursuit of an ETC.

*Interpersonal competing priorities*

Crawford et al. (1991, p.312) defined interpersonal constraints as arising from “interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals’ characteristics”. Interpersonal competing priorities faced by the triathletes related mostly to their spousal relationship, family and social relationships (Figure 2).
The impacts of pursuing an ETC on the triathletes’ relationships with their spouse and family were particularly evident in the data. Some comments suggested the role of the spouse as being a consent authority. For example, one triathlete made the following comment about his decision to sign up for his first Ironman: “I just got approval from the Mrs – I am in” (Triathlete C). Comments such as this suggest the influence of the spouse in decisions pertaining to the pursuit of an ETC. This is most likely attributable to the vast financial and time implications of participating in such events, and the potential impacts that opportunity costs may have upon the family unit.

Other comments revealed not only the influence of the spouse, but also the potential strain placed on the spousal relationship by pursuing an ETC:

> *I just ducked down to see her during lunch [my wife]. She isn’t coming. Don’t get me wrong – she is 200% supportive day to day. I spend ridiculous amounts of money on this stuff – plus all of the time, race entry fees, travel, etc. Just doesn’t want to drive 7 hours, be ignored overnight and hang around with 5 minute glimpses of me – in order to be supportive when I finish and collapse (Triathlete J).*

Figure 2. Interpersonal competing priorities amongst non-elite triathlon participants (adapted from Quinn et al., 2007, p. 16).

Comments such as the above suggested that at times, the pursuit of an ETC could directly conflict with priorities pertaining to the maintenance of the spousal relationship.

Competing priorities were also evident in relation to the triathletes’ families. Some comments posted after an Ironman triathlon reveal the triathletes’ realisation of the sacrifices that family members had made to enable them to pursue their ETC. Indeed, one triathlete was conscious of
the tolerance of his family: “The ThankYou’s: My wife and kids [emphasis in original]. For putting up with my obsession and giving me the necessary wake up to yourself call(s) when needed” (Triathlete M).

Numerous comments alluded to the significance of family support. This is a competing priority in that some triathletes described facing tension in allocating considerable quantities of leisure time pursuing an ETC that might otherwise be spent with family:

*When I went past the Breakwall heading to the south turn around I saw the wife and kids, [name] was crying and she wanted a hug, it was a big day for them all, up early to watch their dad do something that he trained for selfishly for the last 12 months* (Triathlete L).

Evident from the above discussion is that interpersonal relationships are an area of competing priorities for triathletes pursuing an ETC. There appeared to be considerable tension in the allocation of leisure time between spouse and family, versus the pursuit of an ETC. It was also evident that friendships with non-triathlon friends could also be neglected in the lead-up to events.

There are two notable limitations in this data however. Firstly, information posted on the forum did not reveal the triathletes’ marital status, nor if they have children. This made it difficult to assess the full extent to which interpersonal competing priorities influence the pursuit of an ETC. Secondly, the data suggested that in some cases the spouse could act as a ‘consent authority.’ That is, the spouse’s opinion may be influential when major decisions surrounding the ETC are made. As such, the spouse’s opinion may or may not limit the degree to which a triathlete’s ETC goals are realised. However, this data did not reveal any cases where a spouse prevented or limited participation in an ETC. Therefore, it cannot be determined from this data if a spouse’s disapproval could constrain the pursuit of an ETC.

**Structural competing priorities**

The final domain of competing priorities that emerged from the data was aspects of a person’s life where external variables intervene with leisure participation and preferences (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Figure 3 illustrates that structural competing priorities faced by the triathletes pursuing an ETC included career, finances, and domestic responsibilities.

Tension appeared to exist between the triathletes’ careers and their ETC. The following two quotes suggest that some experienced dilemmas in allocating time and energy to the competing priorities of work and the ETC. Triathlete A explained that “I am inherently lazy at everything other than training and find work a tiresome interruption to my daily schedule.” Another mentioned long work hours as a constraint in realising ETC goals:

*Having seen someone like [name] get there changed my mind. In his first IM he did 13:3x [from memory]. That was in 2001. In 2009 he qualified and got to Kona. [name] himself after many years trying also qualified … [name] mentioned to me that he hasn’t slept past 4:30am in over 3 years … He also works long hours. Has 2 kids. I think [name] has 3 or 4 kids. If you aren’t willing to do what these guys have, then...*
maybe you should walk away, cause your dream isn’t going to come true (Triathlete D).

Figure 3. Structural competing priorities amongst non-elite triathlon participants (adapted from Quinn et al., 2007, p. 16).

Career did not emerge as a strong theme. However, the prioritisation of time and energy allocated to meeting work obligations, versus the time and energy needed to pursue an ETC in triathlon, is surely fraught with tension due to the vast amounts of time that both require in order to achieve success. As such, further research is needed to explore the implications of work-ETC balance.

There are two potential issues here. The first is the scheduling of work time and how that impacts on the individual’s ability to pursue an ETC. Some individuals will have a degree of control over their work schedule (e.g. the self-employed) whilst others have less control (e.g. shift workers). As such, the control an individual has over their work hours could be an influential variable in a person’s ability to pursue an ETC. A second issue is the prioritisation between career aspirations and ETC aspirations. Research is needed to explore how career aspirations constrain the realisation of ETC aspirations, and vice-versa, along with the role that values play in this decision-making process.

Given that triathlon involves three discipline sports, the cost of equipment required to compete a basic level can be expensive. The added expenses of travel, accommodation and participation fees if pursuing an ETC in triathlon, compounds the cost of participation. It was therefore unsurprising that finances were frequently discussed, and appear to be a source of tension between the competing priorities of financing an ETC, versus day-to-day expenses.
Some triathletes indicated that they are strategic in selecting the events they travel to in order to minimise the cost of participation:

_**OK, tossing up which one to do. Did GC [Gold Coast Half Ironman] last year so in a way I’d like to go back and see how I’ve hopefully improved. But I hear Yep [Yeppoon Half Ironman] is a great race. Not really worried about road or run surface quality but a bit of atmosphere around the event would be cool. I’m on a budget so at the GC I sleep in the back of my van; are there any camping facilities near Yeppoon? And is Yep a wetsuit race, as I don’t own one and won’t be owning one so if there’s a chance it’s a wetsuit compulsory race then that would cancel it out** (Triathlete F).

Other triathletes desired to own advanced equipment, hoping they could “buy” faster times. At times however, the purchasing of expensive equipment appeared to be frowned upon by the spouse. Some triathletes described strategies designed to convince their spouse to approve discretionary purchases:

_I have been trying to figure out how much benefit a TT [time trial bike] would be to me over the distance but have only performed on the roadie. It will be good to get others real life comparisons for my case to the finance minister for next season! To note, after seeing the blinged out TT bikes on the weekend I want one, even just for show!_ (Triathlete G).

_... my wife insists I have too many bikes, however the logic I use is that once you have them they are virtually worthless if you try and re sell them_ (Triathlete H).

A key element of an ETC according to Getz (2008) is progression in the benefits sought through participation. In the case of triathlon, the pinnacle of the sport for many is competing at the Ironman World Championships. Competitors must qualify by achieving a high result at one of the global qualifier events. As the following quote illustrates, triathletes may travel overseas to participate in qualifier events, hoping that competition may be of a lower standard: “most people who’ve not qualified for Kona after years trying at Australian races just go overseas and qualify at an easier to qualify at race” (Triathlete J). This strategy has obvious financial implications because of the associated travel costs.

Finally, there was tension surrounding the fulfilment of domestic responsibilities versus time and energy devoted to their ETC. Themes here included the neglect of domestic responsibilities (such as chores), and also the neglecting of parental responsibilities in favour of pursuing ETC aspirations:

_Give your body time to rebuild and recover. Time to chill out and enjoy the company of your family and friends. Get some jobs done that you had put on the back burner. Give your heart, mind and body some well deserved time out!!_ (Triathlete C).

_... doing Ironman isn’t just one person getting over the line, its those countless hours where others make sacrifices to help their aspiring Ironman train and prepare for the race. Without them, I couldn’t have done it_ (Triathlete L).
As with career, domestic responsibilities were not a strong theme to emerge from the data. Nevertheless, when an individual neglects his or her domestic responsibilities in favour of leisure, tension between the individual and their cohabitants appeared a likely outcome. Neglecting parental responsibilities in favour of leisure may inevitably cause tension between the individual and their spouse, unless open communication occurs and strategies put in place to ensure parental responsibilities are equitably met. This theme of parental responsibilities is arguably interrelated with other issues discussed earlier under the domain of interpersonal competing priorities.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This paper sought to argue that the concept of competing priorities is useful for understanding constraints, and the negotiation of constraints in the pursuit of ETCs. People have day-to-day needs and desires, and individuals highly committed to, and/or highly involved in an ETC will also have needs and desires relating to their ETC. As people generally have limited resources, they may need to prioritise between their day-to-day needs and desires and those of their ETC. The outcome of such prioritisation is most likely to be an opportunity cost, which may impact upon various aspects of the person’s life. However, these ideas are yet to be explored in the context of ETCs.

This research found that non-elite triathletes encounter a range of competing priorities that must be managed in order to pursue an ETC. These competing priorities were classified as interpersonal, interpersonal and structural, in accordance with Crawford and Godbey’s (1987) model of leisure constraints. It was apparent that the pursuit of an ETC in triathlon often results in opportunity costs. For example, a common opportunity cost was the ability to spend time with family and spouse due to an individual’s desire to spend time preparing for and travelling to triathlon events.

There are numerous avenues for future research that might consider the concepts of competing priorities, values, and opportunity costs in the negotiation of constraints to participation in ETCs. Firstly, there are limitations surrounding the methodology used in the present study. There is a need to collect primary empirical data to validate the findings presented here, but also to identify other latent competing priorities. Further, our proposition that decisions surrounding the management of competing priorities are mediated by an individual’s values also requires validation. Research is needed to understand the range of opportunity costs that result from the pursuit of an ETC, and their associated impacts. Of course, the ideas postulated in this paper may also have application across a range of other leisure activities in which participants are likely to pursue an ETC.

Finally, whilst the data provided evidence of the triathletes travelling to, or planning to travel to compete in events, it was not possible to verify the extent to which each forum participant was pursuing an ETC. The analysis of forum data precluded the researchers from establishing whether forum participants had sought progression in the events they have participated in over time, which is a key element of ETCs according to Getz (2007; 2008). It is also unlikely that this methodology revealed the full range of competing priorities pertinent to triathletes pursuing an
ETC. Finally, this methodology prevented an exploration of the processes used by triathletes in prioritising between day to day needs and desires and those of their ETC.

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ACCESS TOURISM: A NEGLECTED BUT VALUABLE AND GROWING MARKET

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

New Zealand hospitality and tourism is missing out on a major market – that of Access Tourism for people with disabilities (PwDs), and seniors. Unlike in some other countries, Access Tourism is neglected here in spite of the fact that around 10-20% of the population in our major markets already report a disability (17% in New Zealand), and that PwDs would partake of hospitality, tourism, and travel products if more such products were reliably accessible to them. It is also in spite of the fact that world populations are dominated by Baby Boomers, that as they age, Boomers will swell enormously the ranks of the seniors and disabilities market, and that it is Boomers that have and will have in future the most disposable income. Only in May did the Ministry of Tourism recognize that this richer, older group was our most important domestic tourism market; there has been no similar recognition of the role they play in our international market. These groups are still rarely if ever considered in New Zealand tourism and hospitality planning, strategizing, and market targeting. Instead, our industry tends to focus on the young, fit, and active to the exclusion of others. In addition, very little research has been conducted into the tourism and hospitality needs of Access Tourism customers – particularly into the needs of PwDs. This imbalance must be addressed if the wider tourism community in New Zealand is to benefit from catering to this growing and lucrative market.
BACKPACKING AS ‘TIME OUT’

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This paper explores the motivations of backpackers and the reasons they give for leaving home in order to travel overseas. It is based on research carried out in Queenstown in August 2010 which involved semi-structured in-depth interviews with 14 backpackers. Those interviewed were all aged between 19 and 34 years old and came from seven different countries. Backpackers were asked both their motivations for leaving home and their reasons for choosing New Zealand as a destination. This paper examines the four main themes that emerged from these interviews. Almost all of those interviewed articulated a sense of curiosity about the world – a desire to see new things, meet different people and have new experiences not available at home. For the majority of backpackers interviewed, travel had been a long-term goal and when the opportunity to travel presented itself they decided to take it. In this way, backpacking was a conscious lifestyle choice for this point in their life and was often referred to as a break or ‘time out’ before resuming their ‘real’ life and settling down at home. Several of those interviewed also referred to travel as some form of escape, although what they were escaping from varied from a bad relationship break-up to a boring job to familial responsibilities. Extended youth travel is becoming increasingly common and provides a significant proportion of tourism spending worldwide, particularly in New Zealand. It is therefore important to understand what motivates these young backpackers to leave home and travel the world.

Keywords: Backpackers, youth travel, motivations, time out, escape, New Zealand

INTRODUCTION

Academic research into the backpacker phenomenon has become increasingly popular in the past twenty years yet there has been little research specifically into the motivations of backpackers in New Zealand. New Zealand has a well-developed backpacker tourism industry with approximately 183,063 backpackers visiting the country in the year ending September 2009 (Tourism New Zealand, 2010). It is therefore important to understand what motivates these young backpackers to leave home and travel. This paper reviews the previous literature relating to backpackers and their travel motivations before expanding on four main themes that emerged from interviews with backpackers in Queenstown, New Zealand.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Pearce (1990) defined backpackers as a group of predominantly young travellers who are more likely to stay in budget accommodation and emphasise meeting other travellers. They are
independent, have a flexible travel schedule and stay for a longer rather than a brief holiday. They focus on informal and participatory holiday activities and are likely to combine work, study and leisure into an extended trip. While the definition of what constitutes a backpacker has been redefined through the academic literature (e.g. Ateljevic & Doorne, 2004; Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995; Uriely, Yonay & Simchai, 2002), Pearce’s (1990) original definition is still the most widely accepted (see Ateljevic & Doorne, 2004; Jenkins, 2003; Newlands, 2004; Slaughter, 2004).

Motives and motivations can be used to explain why someone does something (Dann, 1981, p. 202). Motivations can relate to both emotional and/or cognitive factors and “tourism is a response to felt needs and acquired values within temporal, spatial, social and economic parameters” (Gnoth, 1997, p. 283). There has been much research into backpacker motivations (for example, see: Jenkins, 2003; Loker-Murphy, 1997; Maoz, 2007; Noy & Cohen, 2005; Richards & Wilson, 2004) but little study specifically related to New Zealand. One of the difficulties when dealing with motives and motivations is that they cannot be observed but must instead be inferred from a person’s behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1980) and speech.

METHODS

Research was carried out in Queenstown in the South Island of New Zealand in August 2010 and involved semi-structured in-depth interviews with 14 backpackers. Eight females and six males were interviewed and all were aged between 19 and 34 years of age. Five were from England, three from Ireland, two from Canada, and one each from Wales, France, the Netherlands and Germany. Backpackers were recruited through a major backpacker hostel and permission from the hostel management was sought and granted before the research took place. All interview participants gave informed consent prior to the interviews and the participants’ identities will be kept confidential though the use of pseudonyms. Those interviewed were asked their motivations for leaving home and their reasons for choosing New Zealand as a destination.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Four main themes emerged from this research. Thirteen of the fourteen backpackers interviewed articulated a desire to see the world. Six of the backpackers interviewed had always wanted to travel and another three had always wanted to see New Zealand. When the opportunity to travel arose they decided to take it. Six of those interviewed were taking a break or ‘time out’ to backpack before resuming ‘real’ life at home and backpacking was also referred to as a form of escape by seven of the backpackers interviewed.

Backpacking as an opportunity to see the world

One of the defining factors of backpackers is their emphasis on both seeing the world and meeting other people (Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995; Murphy, 2001; Pearce, 1990). All but one of the interview participants referred to ‘seeing’ or exploring the world as being one of their main motivations and this emphasis on ‘seeing’ can also be related to Urry’s (2002) idea of the tourist gaze. Emily wanted “to see the world and learn more”, Harry wanted to “see this side of the world” and Tom went travelling to “experience new cultures, see different things”. Four of those interviewed mentioned the desire to see outside their home country, including James who went backpacking because he “just wanted to see some of the world, I mean, we live in [Ireland]
a small little country” and Katja who had “always wanted to see more of the world than just Holland”. Jack also expressed the desire to have experiences unavailable at home. He “wanted to take the life experience like I didn’t have back in Swansea”. All but three of those interviewed were travelling alone and Harry commented that “I like meeting people...When you’re travelling you just meet so many different people from so many different places”.

**Backpacking as the realisation of a long-held dream**

Westerhausen (2002, p. 29) referred to “the long-held dream” as a motivation for first-time long-term travellers whose decision to travel was not spontaneous but instead the fulfilment of a long-held desire. Six of those interviewed had always wanted to travel, including Kate who had “been wanting to travel since the age of dot” and Ryan who had “always wanted to go travelling”. Three more of the backpackers expressed a specific long-held desire to visit New Zealand, including Sophia who had “always wanted to come here” and Sarah who had “always wanted to go and have a look around”. However, not all who have the motivation or desire will have the time and/or money to depart on an extended trip. As James commented, “I suppose it was always the money thing and time. I could never afford to go before now”.

**Backpacking as a break or time out**

According to Jarvis and Peel (2010, p. 33), one of the main motivating factors for backpackers is the desire for “an extended break from life at home”. Most new travellers are at a juncture in their lives prior to travel, often having just finished university or between jobs (Riley, 1988). Six of those interviewed were using backpacking as a ‘break’ or time out from life at home. Martin perceived his time backpacking as being quite distinct from his life at home and said “I have to face my new life after. Because I will come back to – I live in Spain – and I will go back to Spain to take my life again, my job. It's a normal life, it's a boring life”.

James referred to his decision to travel as being a last adventure before “settling down”. He felt that he “could be stuck in a job for a couple of years and then end up settling down and whatever people settling down do. So I said yeah, just a good time to go”. This links to Westerhausen’s (2002, p. 29) idea of the “final fling” where travel is used as an opportunity to experience “an unencumbered lifestyle before settling down” and White and White (2004, p. 201) who point out that “travel provides a way of postponing the assumption of adult responsibilities”.

**Backpacking as an escape**

The desire to travel is often associated with the desire to escape and tourists travel in order to escape from the routine of their ordinary lives (Jenkins, 2003; White & White, 2004). Seven of those interviewed alluded to a sense of escape when giving their reasons for leaving. Martin mentioned “freedom” and Jack referred to “independence”. Similarly, 19 year old Andrea commented that “perhaps I also want to come far away from my parents... to get more independent”.

Kate and Jessica both mentioned they had had bad relationship break-ups prior to going backpacking and travel was one way of removing themselves from the situation. Jack, Tom and James all mentioned a desire to escape from home. Jack stated that “getting out of Wales I
always say yes to” while Tom wanted “anything to get out of England!” and James “was starting to really resent home and like I was getting really sick of it”.

It must be noted however that commonly expressed leisure needs such as escape may in fact be “culturally learned stereotypes or explanations for leisure behaviour” rather than real motivating factors (Iso-Ahola, 1980, p. 249).

CONCLUSION

This paper identified four interconnected and interrelated themes relating to backpacker motivations. Backpackers often perceive their time travelling as distinct from their life at home. They travel in order to see the world outside their hometown and to escape from negative aspects of life at home. Backpacking is perceived as a ‘time out’ or break from routine and a chance to postpone ‘settling down’. While for some backpackers the decision to travel was a relatively spontaneous decision, for others their time spent backpacking was the realisation of a long-held dream. This paper adds to both the backpacker and tourism motivation literature by exploring why backpackers leave home and why backpacking appeals as an option at this point in their lives.

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CLIMATE CHANGE AND ITS POTENTIAL IMPLICATIONS FOR ALPINE BASED TOURISM

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Snow and ice are two resources that are likely to be subject to significant change over the next 20-100 years due to climate change. This will have substantial impacts on the long term planning and daily operations of hydro-electricity, agriculture, and the tourism industries. This paper will focus specifically on the potential implications of climate change on snow based tourism. Using the NIWA snow model, which captures the gross features of snow under the current climate, we assess the likely effects of climate change on seasonal snow in New Zealand. The results are consistent with our general understanding of snow processes, indicating that on average, at nearly all elevations, the 2040 and 2090 scenarios result in a decrease in snow volume and season length. Research on the behaviour of glaciers in New Zealand is also used to examine potential changes in glacier size and extent for the Franz Josef glacier. Key implications of climate change for snow based tourism include operational challenges for ski fields (e.g. snowmaking) and other operators working on and with snow, a potential shift of seasonality, reduced incidence of frost days and heavy snow events (reducing the frequency of hazards), new opportunities for non-alpine activities. Potential opportunities for New Zealand’s competitiveness as a Southern Hemisphere winter destination are discussed as well.

Keywords: Climate change, snow and ice, snow based tourism
LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE HURUNUI DISTRICT: ISSUES, CONFLICTS AND CHALLENGES

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This working paper reports on a case study of local government involvement in the tourism sector in the Hurunui District, New Zealand. The promotion of the tourism sector as a means by which to achieve social and economic development objectives is well-established in the academic literature. The utilisation of tourism for this purpose has become increasingly salient over the past two decades, particularly in rural areas, where the sector has been used by governments to offset declines in other sectors of regional economies. The agency with primary responsibility for directing tourism development in the case study location is the Hurunui District Council, whose involvement has been both enabled and legitimised via a shift in public policy towards a more devolved style of governance at the local level. The connection between the state and tourism in the Hurunui District is long-standing, with government support for the sector reaching back over a century. However more recent tourism planning, promotion and industry participation by the district council has led to contested understandings about the appropriate role of local government in the tourism sector. The effect of this pluralism of roles has been to create a unique relationship of regulation and ownership of tourism resources, in which the conventional public–private sector differentiation of roles and responsibilities has been usurped by a more complex and dynamic manifestation of politics and power at the local level. It is this transformation in the relationship between local government and the tourism sector which this paper seeks to clarify.
NEW ZEALAND 2050: SCENARIOS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper highlights how New Zealand, a leading tourism destination, designed, used and developed a scenario planning programme to establish possibilities for long term strategic planning. New Zealand’s global share of international visitor arrivals is 0.03% but tourism is an extremely important economic contributor to its economy, representing 9.1% of GDP and 9.4% of employment. There are weak signals that a strong brand (100% Pure NZ) may be insufficient in the future to surmount the tyranny of distance from its key markets and changing attitudes to carbon and recreational consumption. Significant changes are also expected in the application of technologies, the emergence of new consumer markets, New Zealand’s forecasted fiscal performance and climate change. Combined, these drivers create an environment of complex uncertainty and how to sensibly plan for the future. Four scenarios have been constructed using a classical approach to the driving forces shaping: The World; New Zealand; Tourism Demand; Tourism Supply and the Tourist Behaviours and Attributes. The four resulting scenarios are: An Eco Paradise: Rise of the New Middle Classes; Reversal of Fortunes and Sclerosis of Demography. A trilemma framework is used to examine tradeoffs, dilemmas and conflicts found in the scenarios. The paper makes a contribution to the literature on the deployment of scenario planning as a method of engaging with tourism’s stakeholders, policy developers and strategic managers.

Keywords: Scenarios, tourism planning, tourism drivers, trilemma.
WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This working paper aims to explore the ‘idea of Australia’ that is imagined and generated at historic and contemporary dark tourism sites and to examine the contribution made by such sites to Australian national identity.

Keywords: Dark tourism, Australia, national identity, place.

INTRODUCTION

This working paper examines contemporary and historic sites associated with death, disaster and atrocity in Australia and the association with tourism and place identity. This paper aims to explore the ‘politics of place’ that is imagined at historic and contemporary dark tourism sites and, examines the contribution made by these sites to place identity, such as street, suburb, area or town.

THE POLITICS OF PLACE

Visitation to places such as murder sites, battlefields and cemeteries, is often referred to as ‘dark tourism’ (Lennon & Foley, 2000). Such sites represent a range of events including: natural and accidental disasters, group atrocities, wars, large-scale killings or massacres and, genocide (Tunbridge & Ashworth, 1996). Although dark tourism is not a new phenomenon, there has been a recent emerging scholarly interest in more closely researching and analysing dark tourism (see, for example, Sharpley & Stone, 2009). Dark tourism has also been recognised as a growing phenomenon in the twenty-first century from both a demand and supply perspective (for instance the motives of visitors to sites and, the provision of on-site interpretation and visitor facilities).

Since national events such as wars, national catastrophes, assassinations, and massacres are experiences of shared grief that can help bind generations together (Frow, 2000), memorials commemorating a tragic period in a nation’s history can also reflect aspects of national identity.
(Cooke, 2000; Nanda, 2004; Rivera, 2008). Thus, there is an opportunity to make a contribution to this field of research by investigating death sites and considering the potential development of Australian national identity. This is particularly relevant because visiting such a site in one’s own nation is, “to worship at the altar of collective identity” and because the sites can reflect a “commitment to the values and goals of the nation” (Hogan, 2009, p. 205).

Recent studies in tourism have considered the role of heritage attractions in helping create a national identity (see, for example, Palmer, 2005; Pretes, 2003). Tourists interpret messages intended for them by the creators of the sites they visit, and these sites of significance (presented as aspects of a national heritage) help to shape a common national identity, or “imagined community” among a diverse population (Pretes, 2003). Each of these sites can help disseminate “national guiding fictions”, promote a discourse of national inclusion and a shared past (Pretes, 2003). A shared identity is often an official goal of countries comprised of many different cultures particularly where there exists a common urge to create a national identity to overcome diversity and differences within the nation-state.

The commemoration of Australia’s high profile murders, accidental deaths and associated issues of national identity is particularly important given that Australia has a tradition of using war memorials and commemorations as vehicles for nation building (Manderson, 2008). Memorials built to commemorate war, regimes of terror or institutionalised violence reflect society’s need to honour the memories of those who have died. Memorials operate as a reminder of the experience of others and the importance of ongoing vigilance on behalf of the nation (Manderson, 2008). However, since heritage has been described as the deliberate selection from the past to satisfy present needs and demands (Ashworth, 2008), difficulties can arise when selecting the most appropriate aspects of heritage to commemorate and interpret. The term ‘dissonant heritage’ has been used when particular groups or stakeholders believe that the heritage of atrocity has become distorted or displaced (Sharpley, 2009). The factors which determine whether an event is selected and subsequently remembered reflects the scale and uniqueness of the event; the ease of identification of the observer with that event, including its currency and its memorability in terms of recordability, contemporary relevance and usability. When considering how to interpret and manage these sites questions arise about who has the responsibility to make such decisions, namely the actual owners of the site, the survivors and families of the victims, the local community or, the broader national or international community.

Nationalism can be considered as either a positive or negative force. On the positive side, it is regarded as a source of distinction, but on the negative side it can be a source of aggression. After the September 11 attacks in the United States in 2001, the citizens of the nation showed their patriotism and stance against ‘the enemy’ by proudly flying the flag. Some might perceive this as a proud gesture while others might argue that it may either deliberately or inadvertently promote aggression. Across the United States, around New York City and what became known as ‘Ground Zero’ in particular, the stars and stripes were prominently displayed in an almost defiant stance (Frew & White, 2007). The question of what may constitute the Australian national character has been explored in both academic and popular literature using historical, cultural and sociological frameworks such as exploration, settlement, migration and war service (Pearse, 2006) and via the people, traits, images, and experiences (Hogan, 2009). Purdie and Wilss (2007) suggest that the genesis of an Australian national identity dates back to the time of early white settlement where influences on the developing culture at the time were the British or
Anglo-Saxon heritage and, the harsh conditions due to terrain and climate. Thus, physical toughness, ‘mateship’ and the ability to withstand hardship were foundational in the development of an Australian identity. Furthermore, discussions of the national character frequently evoke Australia’s convict heritage when asserting that Australians today are anti-authoritarian, irreverent, and fiercely egalitarian (Hogan, 2009). While the political genesis of Australia can be traced to the proclamation of the Federal Constitution in 1901, some historians have argued that it was the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC) landing at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915 that marked the emergence of Australia, the nation. For Australia, Gallipoli represented an important foray into the world arena and was both a watershed moment in the national consciousness and a coming of age for the newly formed nation (Purdie and Wilss, 2007). ‘The ANZAC Legend’, also known as ‘The ANZAC Tradition’ is Australia’s most prominent and central narrative (Bennett, 1993). Thus, these significant aspects of Australian national identity reflect important future research opportunities, particularly via the associated commemoration and interpretation of dark tourism sites.

CONCLUSION

In summary, this working paper aims to: explore the physical and intangible legacies of historic and contemporary dark tourism sites in Australia; consider how these sites are managed to allow visitors to respect the victims but, at the same time, avoid the glorification of the event associated with the site; and, to explore the contribution such sites make to the popularising and politicising of place.

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THE APPROVED DESTINATION STATUS SCHEME AND THE CHINESE TOURISM MARKET OPERATION: THE AUSTRALASIAN PERSPECTIVE

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THE APPROVED DESTINATION STATUS SCHEME AND THE CHINESE TOURISM MARKET OPERATION: THE AUSTRALASIAN PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

China has become one of the fastest growing outbound tourism markets for international destinations with the application of the Approved Destination Status (ADS) scheme. More and more nations have been interested in developing tourism products catering for Chinese tourists. Research conducted in New Zealand in 2008 found that inbound tour operators lacked an understanding of the Chinese market and Chinese tourist’s expectations of New Zealand as a destination. Limited strategies are in place for the development and expansion of the Chinese inbound market to New Zealand. The purpose of this paper is to review the development of ADS system and discuss its impacts on the operation of the Chinese outbound market and the travel behaviours of Chinese visitors. It analyses the characteristics of the Chinese markets and the operational structure of Chinese outbound travel agencies and inbound tour operators in the destinations through a review of research conducted in some of the major ADS countries of Australia and New Zealand. The findings of this paper provide comprehensive information on the background of the ADS scheme, the nature of the Chinese market and the special character of inbound tourism operations under the ADS system. This paper analyses the findings of quantitative and qualitative research that were conducted in New Zealand in the past five years. It emphasizes the importance for inbound tour operators and destination marketers to better understand the Chinese market and develop strategies to meet the demand of this emerging market.

Keywords: ADS, Chinese market, outbound tour operation, inbound tour operators, emerging tourist market.

INTRODUCTION

Rapid economic development has enabled China to become one of the fastest growing tourist markets for international destinations, averaging 22.5% growth between 2001 and 2007, to reach a 2007 total of 41 million Chinese outbound travelers. The corresponding annual average increase in spending has also been an impressive 11.8% between 2001 and 2006, reaching US$24.3 billion (World Tourism Organisation, 2010). The World Tourism Organisation’s Tourism Vision 2020 (2000) report anticipated that this growth will continue and Chinese are forecasted to take more than 100 million outbound trips by 2020. If this eventuates, China will account for about 6.2% of the world’s outbound travel and will become the fourth largest tourist generating country after Germany, Japan and the USA (Guo, Kim & Timothy, 2007).

The Approved Destination Status (ADS) scheme is the institutional mechanism that has made this growth possible. ADS status is reached when China and a destination country sign a bilateral agreement that “approves” of Chinese tourists visiting that country. The impetus came...
from internal demand – by the early 1990s citizens with disposable income were pressuring the Chinese government to permit them to travel outside their own borders (UNWTO, 2003). The purpose of the ADS is to have a control mechanism on China-based international tour operators who organise outbound trips and also on travel agencies in the destination country who look after the Chinese tourists. Once the ADS agreement has been signed at the political level, travel agencies get certified to promote and organise tour groups; they also have responsibilities related to visa applications and payment of foreign currency to foreign parties. The scheme has expanded greatly since its beginnings in 1999 and by 2008 over 100 countries were participating (Graff & Hu, 2008).

The quick expansion of the huge Chinese outbound market has not gone unnoticed by academics. Research to date has focused on development characteristics, influential factors, behaviour models, and marketing strategies (Guo, Turner, & King, 2002; Wang, 2004; Zhang & Qu, 1996; Cai, Lehto & O’Leary, 2001; Pan & Laws, 2003; Ryan & Mo, 2001; Yu & Weiler, 2001). These studies have evaluated the Chinese outbound market from a variety of international and national perspectives. By being located in countries that have received ADS tourists the longest, the tourism industries of Australia and New Zealand have benefited from the implementation of the ADS scheme. However, the actual operation of the ADS in these destinations has been under-researched. The purpose of this paper is to take an initial step in correcting this. Specifically, the goal is to review existing studies and present partial results of a 2008 exploratory study done by the first author to paint an overall picture of what has been learned. The initial section of the paper will focus on the origins of Chinese international travel and the specific forms of travel allowed under ADS agreements. The next sections will examine the structure of the travel industry that has consequently developed, both in China and Australia/New Zealand. This is followed by a discussion of research that has been done on Chinese tourists’ perceptions of New Zealand. The discussion of primary research results on the understanding that New Zealand tour operators have gained of the Chinese market closes the review. The paper concludes with a discussion of the overall perspective of the ADS scheme and points the way towards future research that could enhance understanding.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHINESE OUTBOUND TRAVEL

There was little development of tourism in China before the implementation of the open-door policy in 1978 (Wen & Tisdal, 2001). International tourism was a diplomatic activity rather than an economic activity. Outbound travel was limited to government officials and diplomats. Domestic tourism in China rarely existed as the Chinese people were not encouraged to travel away from home (Hall & Page, 2000). The introduction of the two-day weekend in 1994 encouraged domestic travel. Later the establishment of three seven-day-long public holidays (Spring Festival, International Labour Day and National Day) further stimulated both domestic and outbound travel. During these early years the dominant travel form of Chinese domestic tourism was the all-inclusive package tour (Qu, 2006). This has had a large impact on the form of outbound tourism products. Under ADS, international tourism still occurs exclusively as package tours.

The specific features of ADS tourism are as follows. First, Chinese tourists are only allowed to visit an approved destination. Second, they are only allowed to purchase overseas travel in the
form of an organised tour. Third, these tours are only handled by approved international travel agencies that are authorised by the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA). This structure assures that outbound travel from China will be conducted in a planned and controlled manner. Strict regulations are placed on travel agencies as well as on Chinese tourists by both the Chinese government and the destination countries. The tight restriction on China outbound travel results in a small number of travel agencies dominating the market on the Chinese side. To date, a clear distinction between wholesaling and retailing has not emerged, indicating that Chinese tourism development is still in an early stage (Qu, 2006).

A chronological ordering of the development of Chinese outbound tourism reveals that, in the initial stage of outbound tourism, the Chinese government permitted its citizens to visit their relatives and friends in Hong Kong and Macau (Xiao, 1997). The ADS scheme itself represents stage two, which was first trialed in the Southeast Asian destinations of Singapore, Thailand, and Malaysia in the early 1990s. These were countries that were “connected” to China by land. In 1999, stage three began; Australia and New Zealand became the first two “western” countries to achieve ADS status. These nations are both surrounded by water. One feature of the ADS agreement for both Australia and New Zealand was its limited initial scope. In 1999, both countries limited ADS visas to residents of Shanghai, Beijing and Guangzhou. This was expanded to residents of additional provinces in 2004 (CNTA, 2006). Once the agreement with Australia and New Zealand had eventuated, many other countries wanted to participate and the scheme spread around the world rather quickly. This spread represents stage four. According to the China Outbound Travel Handbook 2008, the Chinese government had signed an ADS agreement with 135 countries and territories and Graff and Hu (2008) have found that 100 countries were actively engaged in tourism promotion. The majority of European countries were added to the ADS list in 2004, while Canada and the USA reached an agreement with China in 2009. Since 2005, the internal limitations have been removed and all Chinese citizens can travel to ADS-approved destinations.

THE ADS AND THE CHINESE OUTBOUND MARKET DISTRIBUTION NETWORK

The ADS scheme is bilateral in nature. China and the host destination each have roles and responsibilities for setting up the distribution network Chinese tourists will use. On the Chinese side, only a small number of government designated companies (e.g. China International Travel Service, China Travel Service, China Youth Travel Service) headquartered in the major cities direct operations from the top; they develop products and sell travel to specified destinations in collaboration with approved overseas partners who provide the ground arrangements within the destination. These Chinese operators receive permission to collect payment for outbound travel from Chinese clients and to remit payment for their clients’ services to the overseas partners (Pan & Laws, 2003). Within China there are additional state-owned enterprises that provide services to customers within the larger framework of China’s socialist-market economy. These services sometimes are complementary and sometimes overlap those of the major operators at the top. All companies exist within a categorical framework that specifies what the types of travel business services they are allowed to provide. Category One agencies are allowed to do both inbound and outbound travel business. Category Two agencies are permitted to do only inbound travel business. Category Three agencies are only able to operate domestic tours (Buhalis &
According to Qu (2006), the majority of Chinese travel agencies are small businesses who offer low prices to survive in the market. Some agencies even offer below cost tour packages to tourists to gain more market share. The price sensitivity of Chinese travel agencies largely influences their performance when conducting outbound tours.

With the passage of time and the success of the ADS scheme, restrictions on selling outbound tourism services have been relaxed to a certain degree (Guo et al., 2007). Consequently, travel agencies became more competitive and reduced the prices of their international package tours by offering charter flights and by partnering with commercial airlines. Chinese outbound travellers tend to prefer trips that include multiple countries rather than only one country or area when they take travel expenditures and time into consideration. Therefore, it is common for travel agencies and tour companies to organise itineraries around visiting more than one country in the destination region to allow the Chinese travellers to visit more places for the same price.

Qu (2006) conducted research on Chinese outbound travel agencies to understand how distribution system relationships functioned between China and New Zealand. Secondary data were initially obtained from official tourism websites such as China National Tourism Administration, Tourism New Zealand, and the Tourism New Zealand Research Council. Primary data were collected through semi-structured interviews with travel companies who were involved in dealing with Chinese tourists. Twenty-two interviews were conducted in China, while 11 of 22 New Zealand inbound tour operators dealing with Chinese outbound market were interviewed in Auckland. Qu (2006) found that New Zealand inbound tour operators acted as a bridge linking Chinese outbound travel agencies and New Zealand suppliers. She also found that the Chinese travel agencies were more likely to rely on inbound tour operators in terms of tour development. The New Zealand inbound tour operators are able to keep regular contact with a variety of domestic tourism product suppliers. They are able to provide Chinese outbound agencies with required information. The interviews with Chinese outbound travel agencies show their key criteria for the selection of New Zealand inbound tour operators were related to the size and scale of the company, reliability, handling fees, technical competencies, and reputation for service delivery. Qu’s (2006) results also showed there was a critical need to educate Chinese outbound travel agencies in order to increase their knowledge of the variety and breadth of experiences available in New Zealand. The lack of awareness of New Zealand as a tourist destination in the Chinese market was a challenge for most of the outbound agencies. Combined with their own lack of knowledge, these travel agents found it difficult to attract first time outbound tourists to visit New Zealand. The results also revealed that Chinese tourists tend to travel to other Asian countries or Europe and the USA before choosing to visit New Zealand (Qu, 2006,).

THE ADS AND CHINESE OUTBOUND TRAVEL TO AUSTRALIA

China has emerged as one of the most significant tourist generating countries for Australia in the past decade. In 1984, only 3,000 Chinese visited Australia (Cai, 1996). In 1999, Australia was the first western country (along with New Zealand) to be granted ADS status and since then the number of Chinese tourists to Australia has increased significantly. China has become one of the top five sources of international market for Australia. During the year ending March 2010, Australia received 360,000 visitors from China, generating 2.3 billion Australian dollars in
economic value (Tourism Australia, 2010). Having an ADS agreement permits the Australian government, through Tourism Australia, to promote Australia as a leisure travel destination in China. Approved travel agents in China must be trained by Tourism Australia as “Aussie Specialists” and must have received training and approval from the Department of Immigration and Citizenship and the China National Tourism Administration before handling ADS travel to Australia. Under the ADS scheme, 51 Australian inbound tour operators organising Chinese outbound tours have been approved.

As part of the ADS agreement, rules exist to ensure the smooth operation of the ADS programme and the compliance of travel agencies and tourists (Guo, Turner & King, 2002). For example, the issuance by the Australian government of individual visas for Chinese group tourists is only valid for the period of the group tour’s itinerary. The visa has no work entitlement and is not renewable for any reasons. Travellers holding this type of visa cannot change their visa status while in Australia. Chinese tourists must also go home at the end of the trip. If a tourist does not leave at the end of the itinerary, any company that has failed to keep track of all tour members will be heavily fined. On the Chinese side, CNTA in cooperation with relevant agencies in Australia has developed a number of procedures to ensure effective regulation of outbound travel agencies in China (Grenke, 2006).

Pan and Laws (2003) undertook research on identifying the characteristics of mainland Chinese travellers to Australia. They found Chinese tourists had several major problems that could compromise the sustainability of Australia’s status as an outbound destination country. These problems included: dissatisfaction with accommodation because of the use of different hotel rating systems; lack of variety of tourism products; ambiguous and conflicting images. A severe problem involved price competition among Australian inbound tour operators; this resulted in unethical practices related to compulsory shopping in duty free shops, a lack of connection and communication with Chinese travel agencies, and excessive language barriers.

To address the unethical issues in ADS operation, the Australian government in 2005 established a set of objectives to restore integrity, competition and fair trading to the inbound sector. These included (1) improving relations between operators and shops, and operators and tourists, and (2) giving Chinese tourists greater knowledge and choice so as to empower them to make more satisfying consumer decisions. Overall, the objectives reformed administrative arrangements to ensure Chinese tourists received a high quality experience of the country. ADS-approved operators were individually audited and, when necessary, were required to comply with the ADS Code and Business Standards and Ethics (Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism of Australia, 2010).

THE ADS AND CHINESE OUTBOUND TRAVEL TO NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand also opened to Chinese outbound tourists in 1999. The original market base of New Zealand is smaller than that of Australia because New Zealand is mostly sold as an add-on destination to an Australian tour (World Tourism Organisation, 2003). Visitors from China increased 66% by April 2000. In July 2000, direct Air China services played an important role in increasing the number of Chinese tourists (Ryan & Mo, 2001). China is now New Zealand’s fourth largest international market, providing 105,190 visitors through the year-ended June 2010,
with a total expenditure of $365 million New Zealand dollars (a 17.2% increase compared with the same time in 2009). By May 2010, twenty-four New Zealand tour operators have been certified as ADS operators to administer and conduct ADS tours (Tourism New Zealand, 2010a).

New Zealand inbound tour operators establish relationships in the international market place and, on behalf of New Zealand product suppliers, work to sell New Zealand travel packages to overseas buyers. They are responsible for preparing itineraries and booking the ground arrangement on behalf of their overseas clients (Tourism New Zealand, 2010b).

Though people from all parts of the country can now take a tour to an ADS country, data from the New Zealand Ministry of Tourism (2009) indicates the majority of visitors from China (79%) came from the twelve provinces along the south and east coasts. Almost half of the visitors (48%) came from the three major economic areas of Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong Province. The great majority purchase New Zealand as an add-on destination; more than 90% of all holiday visitors and three-quarters of all Chinese arrive in New Zealand after visiting Australia. New Zealand itineraries for most Chinese visitors are tightly controlled by the tour companies based in China. Seventy-one percent of the overall Chinese market and 89% of the holiday market are on a group or packaged tour. Fully-independent travellers (FITs) make up only 12% of the holiday market and 30% of all arrivals from China. A significant number of these FIT travellers are visiting friends and relatives. Within New Zealand, the areas that are most visited by Chinese tourists are the northern regions of Auckland, Rotorua and Waikato. The dominance of the northern region reflects the very limited time frame most tour itineraries allocate in New Zealand.

Chinese visitors spend less time in New Zealand during their combined Australia-New Zealand trip (Ministry of Tourism, 2009). In fact, Chinese visitors have the shortest length of stay of all of New Zealand’s main markets. The average stay for holiday visitors was only 5.1 days in 2008. This short stay profile is indicative of Chinese tour companies combing Australia and New Zealand on 10 day itineraries. The average total spend per visit by Chinese visitors was among the lowest, as a result of the short length of stay, although the expenditure per night by Chinese holiday visitors was the highest for all of New Zealand main markets.

Statistics from the New Zealand Ministry of Tourism (2009) show that most Chinese visitors travel by bus (69%). Popular activities and attractions experienced by Chinese visitors include walking/trekking, volcanic/geothermal attractions, natural attractions, land-based sightseeing activities, cultural or heritage attractions and gardens. Data collected on accommodation show that Hotels (83%) are by far the most common type used by the overall Chinese market. The typical Chinese visitor is middle aged - between 30-59 years. From 2005 to 2008, the gender split for all Chinese visitors has moved towards a more even balance (55% male and 45% female, respectively, in 2008).

**CHINESE TOURIST’S EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF NEW ZEALAND**
Tian (2008) undertook qualitative research to investigate whether Auckland, as Chinese tourists’ main destination, was able to provide facilities and services to meet expectations and requirements. Thirty-two Chinese tourists, 18 guides/inbound tour operators and 32 tourism industry members were interviewed. The Chinese tourists were middle-aged, well-travelled and had above-average income and education levels. Their trips were primarily motivated by a desire to go sightseeing to areas that they have not previously visited, and ultimately to have a holiday that was relaxing. Many stated they were visiting New Zealand simply because it was part of the package tour to Australia. Tian’s (2008) results showed that most Chinese tourists had no clear expectations or requirements about Auckland due to lack of information about the city. After arrival, most Chinese tourists did not have the opportunity to learn more about Auckland due to the fact that the coach tour visited only sites with “free entry.” The tourism products and activities experienced did not provide high levels of satisfaction.

Tian’s (2008) results also revealed that the accommodation facilities in Auckland did not meet the requirements of the ADS-certified tour operators. Insufficient accommodation in central Auckland forced the operators to reserve hotels/motels from peripheral locations or even to postpone the group’s arrival to New Zealand. Her research findings emphasized the importance of promoting Auckland as an urban destination to Chinese markets to improve awareness levels and of developing new attractions to suit the requirements of Chinese visitors. She recommended that Auckland-based Chinese travel agencies themselves needed to better understand the value of Auckland’s major attractions so they could better serve their Chinese customers.

NEW ZEALAND TOUR OPERATORS UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHINESE MARKET

In 2008, the first author conducted an exploratory study of small attraction owner/managers from the Auckland region. The objectives of the research were to identify attraction operators’ understanding of the Chinese market and to explore operational strategies available to meet Chinese market expectations. Ten semi-structured interviews were conducted with tour attraction managers who were selected from seven categories listed in the Tourism Auckland operators’ database. The interview data informed questions that were asked in an online survey which focused on a larger sample group. The qualitative information obtained from interviews provided explanations for the survey results. Two hundred fifty-two operators who met the sampling criteria were invited through Tourism Auckland to participate in the online questionnaire survey. Altogether thirty-nine respondents completed usable questionnaires (15.4%). Results of the online questionnaire survey were analyzed using SPSS software to generate descriptive patterns and trends in the findings.

The results showed that 16 of the 39 survey respondents (41%) had been involved with the Chinese market. The majority of these 16 respondents had been serving this market for over three years. A minority had been working with Chinese customers for between six months and a year. Approximately half of the respondents had never worked with Chinese customers. Not surprisingly, and in agreement with Tian’s (2008) results above, the respondents’ answers indicated they had limited understanding of Chinese market expectations about New Zealand as a destination.
The respondents were first asked to describe their operational plans to meet the needs of the growing Chinese market. The results show that the majority (83%) did nothing in particular. It was found that specific components were not very sophisticated among the 17% that had developed plans. For example, about half of the respondents stated they might start networking with inbound tour operators in order to get more customers, or they planned to network with operators who had experiences with Chinese and thus would be able to tell them how to satisfy Chinese customers. A similar picture emerged with respect to marketing activities. Nearly half of the respondents had no plans to market to Chinese tourists at all and only 44% of them expressed an interest in doing this. Some of the respondents planned to improve their marketing efforts by updating websites and/or advertising in Auckland’s Chinese newspapers. A few respondents suggested providing brochures and on-site signage in Chinese writing. The main reason for this low level of planning was found to be because only 25% of the respondents believed the Chinese market would increase in size. More than half of the respondents answered that they didn’t know whether the market would grow or not. Few had done any research about the Chinese market, in spite of the fact that it was the fourth largest for New Zealand.

Quotes reproduced from the survey indicate reluctance, even a defiance, to put in any effort to improve the quality of tourism for Chinese customers. Respondents explained: “We offer a standard New Zealand product and showcase New Zealand in general.” “We treat the Chinese the same as everyone else.” “We do nothing about the Chinese market. We go to the Auckland airport to leave our brochures there but 95% of our business is from the locals”. “No plans, any market information is useful for us, not necessarily the Chinese market.” “We are not going to particularly tailor our tour just for the Chinese market”.

The interview results showed a more positive relationship for those operators who have had past experiences with Chinese tourist groups. These operators maintain an interest and are prepared to design programmes and activities to meet Chinese market requirements. One interviewee noted:

We have had Chinese living with us since the 1990s, so we have a reasonable understanding of Chinese culture. We research what newspapers and magazines they read and where they live. We do market research all the time to find out what is happening in the community in Auckland.

Another interviewee commented: “I don’t have any particular drive to develop the Chinese market… … It is a little bit of unknown situation. If they come to me and are interested in what we do, then we will modify what we’ve got here”.

Overall, these findings show that New Zealand tourist attraction owners/managers had a limited understanding of the Chinese outbound market. In general, this was due to lack of first-hand involvement with Chinese tour groups that have been arriving for a decade under ADS. The majority of the respondents did understand the importance of knowing something of Chinese culture and language. A few had developed Chinese brochures and hired Chinese speaking staff. Some realized the problems associated with the distribution and delivery of iconic experiences in New Zealand to the Chinese market and suggested that more assistance was needed from Tourism New Zealand to control the quality of experiences being offered. Yet an unexpectedly
large percentage considered China to be an unknown market and emphasized the need to be careful about growth because “we don’t see many Chinese travellers here.” Given the potential growth in Chinese outbound travel, the research implies the importance for New Zealand tour attraction owners and operators to achieve a better understanding of the market expectations in order to develop products that better serve Chinese tourists’ needs.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Until recently, China’s outbound tourism market was small due to low income levels and the difficult visa application process. Since the implementation of the ADS scheme, travelling overseas has become easier for mainland Chinese. Coupled with rising living standards, China’s outbound tourism has been developed significantly, even explosively. The ADS programme was “developed by the Chinese government to establish a managed, orderly and controlled system for a greater number of its citizens to travel abroad” (CNTA, 2005). The system it created has, overall, succeeded very well. Chinese, in package tours, are now able to travel to a great number of countries. The host nations’ governments and tourist industries want Chinese visitors. However, the ADS system contains built-in limitations. Some are applicable to all ADS agreements; others are specific to a single ADS country. Examples of the former include the limitation in the number of tour operators in both China and the destination country, Chinese tourists’ need to travel in packaged groups, and the obligation of the group guide to carry the passports of all the people in the group. While ADS has provided opportunities for both the Chinese outbound travellers and the receiving countries, an ADS agreement does not bring into existence a perfect tourist system. ADS-status cannot ensure that the destination provides high value tourism products. It cannot control product specification and prices. It cannot guarantee that Chinese tourists obtain high quality experience. Finally, it cannot detect or resolve non-compliance with regulations on its own (CNTA, 2005). The new released ADS provisions by Tourism New Zealand (2007) have strengthened the monitoring of visitor experiences to ensure they meet or exceed expectations. Time will tell if they succeed.

Based on this review of research conducted in New Zealand and Australia, it can be concluded the ADS scheme has created a tourism system that is rather different from that New Zealand has with other source nations. The lack of understanding of New Zealand by Chinese-based operators, combined with stiff price competition, has meant that New Zealand has been mostly a short add-on to a trip to Australia, rather than becoming a destination in its own right. The nature of the bilateral agreement limits who can service Chinese package tours. This in term restricts the nature of the tours themselves. One result is that product providers in New Zealand mostly have no expectations of being able to have Chinese customers, hence do not create specific products for them or market to them. On the other hand, the Chinese tourists who knew little or nothing about New Zealand before arrival find they are little better informed from having visited. They thus have a low level of satisfaction. This has raised the question whether it is a sustainable situation for a major market for New Zealand.

With more than half of the world’s nations joining the ADS system, the Chinese outbound market has more choice than ever before. This will affect the competitive advantage for those countries that signed an ADS agreement early on. ADS nations, such as Australia and New Zealand, need to better understand the structure of tour operations the scheme creates as well the
nature of the Chinese market, if they hope to achieve the goals of satisfied tourists and increasing numbers. However, the ADS scheme is not likely the final situation. The very success of ADS will perhaps lead to its being replaced with a policy that “opens the door” to Chinese travel even wider. Since 2003, Hong Kong and Macau, the most important destinations for mainland Chinese, have replaced ADS with a newer system - the Individual Visitor Scheme (IVS). Under the IVS, mainland Chinese from certain cities are able to travel to Hong Kong and Macau on an individual visa application basis and they do not need to join a tour group (WTO, 2010). This was exactly the situation at the dawn of ADS and it can be anticipated that host destinations will soon succeed in getting IVS status. However, in the meantime, future research needs to focus on how appropriate business practices can be designed to ensure the effectiveness of the ADS scheme.

REFERENCES


CELEBRATING DIWALI: INDIAN CULTURE KIWI STYLE

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WORKING PAPER

New Zealand’s sporting success lies at the heart of Kiwi national identity (Burke, 2008; Ryan, 2005). Government strategic plans include supporting the Rugby World Cup 2011 as well as planning and supporting leisure activities for the expected number of local and international tourists (RWC, 2009). Among scheduled events is the 2011 Diwali Festival. A pilot study identifies stakeholder expectations of the 2011 Diwali Festival a year before the event. Interviews of the producers and participants and documentation through photography, media reports and promotional materials identifies 2011 stakeholder expectations at the smaller Diwali Festival held in Auckland City 30-31 October 2010.

The Diwali Festival is an annual cultural festival that is held in various locations across New Zealand. It is organised by local city councils in conjunction with the Asia New Zealand Foundation (Johnson & Figgins, 2005). Festivals and mega-events are increasingly being used as marketing tools by cities as well as by nations in order to promote themselves (Long & Robinson, 2004). The hosting of such events is often developed because of the tourism and economic opportunities as well as the social and cultural benefits generated for communities (Raj., Walters & Rashid, 2008).

Festivals are events that involve the idea of community in some form and that encompass a celebratory nature. The social functions and the symbolic meanings of festivals are framed within a series of overt values that communities recognize as essential to their common ideologies and worldview. Festivals embrace a community’s social identity, unity, historical continuity, and sustainability (Wood, 2009). Festivals and mega-events are increasingly being used as marketing tools by cities as well as by nations in order to promote themselves. This proliferation of community festivals and the growth of local government involvement in the production process is a global phenomenon (Brown & Chappell, 2008; Getz, Anderson, & Larson, 2007; Long & Robinson, 2004).

Organisers use historical and cultural themes to develop annual festival events that attract visitors and create cultural prestige for their cities (Getz, 1997; Hall & Rusher, 2004; Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules, & Ali, 2003). Richards (2007) links this phenomenon to major trends in cultural policy since the 1970s, especially increased competition between cities for tourism dollars. The sheer size and media presence of festivals and other major events means that they are capable of attracting significant numbers of visitors to a destination (Richards, 2007). The
wider roles that festivals and events play are important for developing both national identity and national entrepreneurship through cultural activities (Aitchison & Pritchard, 2007).

Such aspects of community identity and unification are ultimately what the festivals celebrate. A festival, therefore, as Wood (2009) argues, must involve the idea of community in some form and encompass a celebration of some aspect of this community. Festival organisers are now using historical and cultural themes to develop annual events to attract visitors and create cultural images in host cities by holding festivals in community settings (Yeoman, Martin, Drummond & McMahon-Beattie, 2004).

Carnegie and Smith (2006) identify Melas as festivals traditionally serving to celebrate ethnic communities and folk cultures in India but increasingly becoming showcases globally for Indian culture. Mela is a Hindi term for a gathering. Melas typically include music and dance, fashion, food, and more recently film. Melas have been developed across the India diaspora as community events that have become increasing regular features in cultural calendars across Western Europe and increasingly in the United Kingdom (Carnegie & Smith, 2006; Johnson, 2007).

Small community produced events have grown into focal points for ‘national’ celebrations of diasporic cultures. Along with Caribbean Carnivals in the United Kingdom, Melas have come to symbolise all that is ‘colourful’ about diaspora, transforming ethnicity into a cultural showcase for growing numbers of non-Indian participants and tourist audiences. Melas when transposed into cultural forms by immigrant communities, non-Indian audiences and public policy in the United Kingdom, inherent power relationships are created.. The British government supports Melas with the intention to promote cultural diversity (Carnegie & Smith, 2006). Event management issues arise including the nature of programming and the mosaic of cultural forms that constitute Mela representation of the multiplicity of diasporic cultures and identities (Johnson & Figgins, 2005)

The Indian community in New Zealand is represented annually by a ‘Mela” that is branded Diwali (Festival of Lights). Diwali is an annual Hindu festival steeped in religious traditions. Diwali was once a relatively private sphere of ritual and performance within the Indian community which has been transformed into an annual festival held in the major cities of Auckland and Wellington since 2002 (Johnson, 2007).

The festival has been held annually in Auckland and Wellington attracting tens of thousands of people for the past nine years (Asia:NZ, 2010). Diwali maintains support not only from various Indian groups (businesses, cultural and religious) but is a major public festival receiving assistance from Auckland as well as Wellington city councils, a partially government funded organisation the Asia New Zealand Foundation, the Indian government and corporate, community and private sponsors.

Asia New Zealand Foundation is a non-partisan and non-profit organisation dedicated to building New Zealanders’ knowledge and understanding of Asia. Established in 1994, they represent a partnership of the public and private sectors. The Asia New Zealand Foundation is a partially funded by the New Zealand government that develops support and partnerships with Asian government cultural agencies as well as business development agencies and private corporations (Asia:NZ, 2009).
Asia New Zealand Foundation has the role of marketing, organising overseas funding and sponsorship, overseas performers and liaising with the City Councils. 2010 was the ninth time the Diwali Festival of Lights was held in Auckland, Wellington and Dunedin. However, for the first time in 2010, a Diwali festival was also held in Christchurch. In addition to the many local performers, the Asia New Zealand Foundation, in partnership with The Indian Council for Cultural Relations and the High Commission of India, brought to New Zealand a Rajasthani music and dance troupe. Dance and music in India’s desert state of Rajasthan have been passed down over generations by tribal castes like the Langas and the Manganiyar. Both castes are converts to Islam, but many of their songs are in praise of Hindu deities and celebrate Hindu festivals such as Diwali and Holi. The Rajasthani group performed at all festivals as well as at the Garba night hosted by the Wellington Indian Association on 23 October (Asia:NZ, 2010)

This pilot study aimed to identify stakeholder expectations of the 2011 Diwali Festival a year before the event. Producers and participants event experiences and 2011 event expectations at the smaller 2010 Diwali Festival provided data which will be utilized for a comparison study of the larger, higher profile Diwali Festival 2011 during the Rugby World Cup 2011. Local performer and business opportunities, international acts and perceived opportunities and threats were identified. Through interviews, photography and participant observation, event management issues, promotion and profit expectations were explored. Issues including festivalisation, cultural representation and the role of the Indian community in marketing New Zealand culture were examined.

The preliminary results of the study identify that they have come with friends to enjoy the food, crowds and the music. Diwali reinforces Auckland as a multi-cultural city. The majority of those completing surveys had not idea that Diwali was being considered as an alternative tourist attraction for the Rugby World Cup visitors. Once aware they expected increased crowds. This is not perceived as a bad thing as the most popular reason for attending or participating in the management of Diwali is to experience an event that is crowded, alive, colourful and creates the atmosphere of a celebration.

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ETHNIC TOURISM AND CULTURAL IDENTITY

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Ethnic tourism has been employed as an economic development strategy in many developing countries. However, while such tourism has been actively promoted in regions characterized by ethnic populations, there is little empirical evidence on how tourism may affect local identities and how the changes in the self-identities of minority people influence tourists’ reactions to their encounters with host populations in the context of ethnic tourism experiences. Thus, there is a need to assess the interplay between ethnic tourism and minority identity and to explore planning strategies for sustainable ethnic tourism development. This research is aimed at exploring tourism-induced identity change among the Mosuo minority, a unique matrilineal society living around Lugu Lake, in northwest Yunnan, China. Data for the study were collected using a variety of methods including surveys, interviews, informal discussions, observations, and secondary data analysis in Yunnan, China in the summer of 2009. The results show that involvement in tourism has had various impacts upon Mosuo communities, economically, culturally, and politically. As Mosuo people have gained greater economic returns from tourism, the way of life has evolved from traditional matrilineal families to assimilation into modern marital life. Active involvement in tourism and expressions of Mosuo cultural traditions have resulted in the consolidation of a collective Mosuo identity for cultural, social and political purposes. Ethnic tourism has become an important venue through which cultural identity of the Mosuo is represented, reinvented, and reinforced.
EXAMINING THE ROLE OF 'GREEN' EVENTS AS A CATALYST FOR PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

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Encouraging sustainable behaviour is increasingly becoming a priority for governments at a national and local level. One mechanism for achieving this goal is to organise events with a sustainability focus, which aim to foster behaviour change amongst attendees. These events are often run at a local level, showcasing sustainable businesses and providing information for attendees on how to engage in sustainable behaviour. This paper reports on a case study of the Nelson Ecofest in New Zealand, which has been run annually over the past decade by two local councils, and explores the expectations and satisfaction levels of attendees, as well as their attitudes towards sustainability and climate change. Findings suggest that these events attract individuals who are already significantly committed to sustainable behaviour. Although expectation levels were high and attendees were broadly satisfied with the event, many attendees appear to be leading highly sustainable lifestyles and were using the event as a source of encouragement and positive feedback for their lifestyle choices. As such, they are not the audience that the organisers needed to reach in order to achieve their aim of behaviour change at a broader scale. This paper considers the implications of these findings for environmental education and the future promotion and marketing of these events.

Keywords: Events; sustainability; trans-theoretical model

There is growing recognition of the rapidly increasing impact of climate change on society (IPCC, 2007) and the importance for society of sustainability and increasing levels of environmentally sustainable behaviour (Font & Harris 2004; Swarbrooke 1998, Weaver 2006). Encouraging pro-environmental behaviour is becoming a significant undertaking for local, state and government bodies (Verplanken & Wood, 2006). Along with measures such as improving recycling services, many local authorities are turning to events as potential interventions to facilitate pro-environmental behaviour change among residents. The literature has established that there are links between staging events and increased levels of community wellbeing (inter alia Deery, Jago & Fredline, 2004). However, research has not yet identified whether there are links between green events and green behaviour – i.e. whether attendance at ‘green’ events can facilitate an increase in pro-environmental behaviour among attendees. This paper aims to fill this gap by exploring the role of green events in pro-environmental behaviour change.
Research suggests that changing behaviour to be more environmentally friendly is complex. Social psychological theory posits that human behaviour and behaviour change are determined both by the individual and by the external environment (Maio et al. 2007). According to Bamberg and Moser (2007), pro-environmental behaviour is characterized by a mixture of self-interest and pro-social motives. In addition, many contextual factors, such as infrastructure, facilities and availability of products may facilitate or constrain environmental behaviour, and influence individual motivations (Olander & Thøgersen, 1995). Verplanken and Wood (2006) propose two types of social marketing interventions that may be successful in changing behaviour – ‘downstream’ interventions (which aim to alleviate existing negative outcomes and are generally aimed at the individual) and ‘upstream’ interventions (which target contextual support for desired actions and are often undertaken at a community or societal level). Research suggests that interventions to change behaviour that focus only on the former (for example, attempts to change attitudes and beliefs simply by providing information) are unlikely to be successful on their own and therefore an integrated approach is necessary (Verplanken & Wood 2006). One way of conceptualising how an upstream intervention in the form of a ‘green’ event might assist in encouraging sustainable behaviour change is the TTM (Trans-theoretical Model) (Prochaska 1979; Prochaska & DiClemente 1983).

The TTM (often referred to as the ‘Stages of Change’ model) and widely used in social marketing (Halpern, Bates, Beales & Heathfield, 2004), suggests that the individual moves through a sequence of five stages as they adopt voluntary changes in their life (see Table 1). Those in the early and late contemplation stages (already with the motivation to engage in pro-environmental behaviour, and considering any costs or barriers) are most likely to be open to attempts to encourage change. The TTM also deals with the processes of change that an individual goes through – 10 processes are outlined (including consciousness raising; environmental and self re-evaluation; social liberation; counter-conditioning; helping relationships; and reinforcement management). These processes are closely linked with the stages of change.

Table 1 – Stages of Change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage of change</th>
<th>Characteristics of individuals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-contemplation</td>
<td>The individual is not aware of any need for, or thinking about, changing behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contemplation</td>
<td>Early contemplation is when the individual is intending to change, but is not yet ready to take action – they are identifying the motives or benefits of the new behaviour; Late contemplation is when the individual, having ascertained the benefits of the behaviour, is now considering any costs of, or barriers to the behaviour).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>The individual is taking steps to make the change possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>The individual is willing and able to act and requires only opportunities and self-confidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>The individual continues to maintain the new behaviour, perhaps simply requiring some rewards or reminders to continue to act.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The TTM was originally developed within the psychology discipline and has been utilised extensively in the areas of health including substance abuse, diet, and physical activity (Hutchison, Breckon & Johnston 2009). Nisbet and Gick (2008) argue that environmental psychologists and policymakers should apply models of health behaviour change to develop more innovative and successful environmental interventions. In addition, according to Hutchison et al (2009), the processes and stages of change highlighted by the TTM are global in nature and as a result are likely to fit with a wide range of behaviour change settings, including environmental behaviour. It may be reasonable to suggest that an intervention in the form of staging a ‘green’ event may well target people within the pre-contemplation stage, by providing information about the sustainability issue and stressing its importance (which targets consciousness raising and environmental and self re-evaluation) and by offering easy access for participants to ‘green’ businesses and their practices (which targets awareness that social norms are changing in favour of sustainable options).

This research reports on an investigation of a sustainability expo held in New Zealand in August 2010. Short structured interviews were conducted with 42 attendees of the Nelson Ecofest on the first day of the two-day event. Participants were approached by the researchers and asked to answer a few questions relating to their expectations and satisfaction levels with the event, as well as their attitudes towards sustainability and climate change. The responses were analysed for key themes. The researchers also conducted site observations, focusing on the messages that the event was sending to attendees and the range of organisations and businesses involved in the event. They watched attendees at the event, to see what people were typically doing at the event and how they were reacting to the activities on offer and products being showcased.

Findings suggest that these events attract individuals who are already significantly committed to sustainable behaviour. Although expectation levels were high and attendees were broadly satisfied with the event, many attendees appear to be leading highly sustainable lifestyles and were using the event as a source of encouragement and positive feedback for their lifestyle choices. A few attendees were building or renovating their houses and needed advice on the latest developments on green technology and sustainable building. They indicated that the lectures and demonstrations on offer were extremely useful in increasing their understanding of sustainability issues, mostly concerning gardening and growing food. Most attendees indicated that they regularly carry out sustainable practices such as monitoring energy use, separating waste and recycling. They have also invested in a number of different sustainable facilities/practices such as energy efficient appliances, loft insulation and a compost bin. It appears that rather than representing the pre-contemplators and contemplators, these attendees are almost certainly in the action and/or maintenance stages. As such, they are not the audience that the organisers needed to reach in order to achieve their aim of behaviour change at a broader scale.

These findings have implications for environmental education and sustainable events. If the organisers wish to reach those people who have yet to embrace sustainable lifestyles, they will need to consider alternative means of doing this than staging an event such as the Ecofest. These
might include measures targeting consciousness raising and social liberation processes such as a widespread social marketing campaign.

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FORUMS AND BLOGS ANALYSIS ON NEW ZEALAND’S PRESENCE IN SHANGHAI WORLD EXPO 2010

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WORKING PAPER

Shanghai World Expo 2010 was held from 1st May to 31st October 2010 on both banks of Huangpu River. It involved more than 200 countries and 50 international organisations and attracted more than 73 million visitors from China and across the world. With approximately NZD $80 billion investment from both the Chinese and Shanghai City government, Shanghai World Expo is by far the most expensive expo in the event’s history. As a participant, the New Zealand government invested more than 30 million New Zealand dollars to build its pavilion which doubled the spending in Aichi Expo in Japan 2005. The New Zealand Pavilion held its grand opening ceremony in late April 2010 and around 4.5 million people visited the pavilion during the six months Shanghai World Expo.

New Zealand’s participation in the previous World Expo held in Aichi Japan 2005 has been proved to set up a connection with Japanese tourists and has successfully improved New Zealand’s exposure to Japan as a creative, environmentally conscious, and multi-cultural nation (Caswell, 2010). After a Free Trade Agreement was signed in 2007, China has become New Zealand’s second largest trading partner (Chapman, 2010). According to Statistics New Zealand, visitors to New Zealand from China more than doubled from August 2009 to August 2010 making August the busiest on record. In September 2010, Pacific Asia Tourism Association advised that New Zealand should focus on Asian emerging markets since Asian countries were recovering much faster than the rest of the world following the 2008/09 economic down turn (Flynn, 2010). China as the centre of Asia as well as the biggest market in the world has attracted New Zealand’s attention due to its potential importance to the future of New Zealand tourism.

The purpose of this working paper is to evaluate the performance of New Zealand pavilion and its team in the Shanghai World Expo through secondary data collected from postings and blog articles from Chinese websites. Comments related to New Zealand’s presence from three popular public websites will be analysed and categorised into themes. The websites to be analysed include Shanghai world expo official website (www.expo2010.cn), Tianya Club (www.tianya.cn), and Masses review website (www.dianping.com). Shanghai world expo official website (www.expo2010.cn) is the only website authorised and managed by the Bureau of Shanghai World Expo Coordination to provide accurate and timely information on the development and the operation of the Expo 2010. Tianya Club, founded in 1999, is one of the most popular internet forums in China. According to the statistics from Tianya club, it has more than 41.7 million registered users. Tianya forum is famous for its openness to different opinions. Politicians have made use of the forum to get support and to campaign (Andrews, 2007). Masses
review website (www.dianping.com) which was founded in April 2003, is well known for its reviews on hospitality and tourism. According to Masses review website, it won the title of Top 100 entrepreneurs in 2009, Most Valuable website in service category 2009, and Most Valuable enterprises for investment top 50 in 2009. This project will also involve 50 top viewed blog articles searched from Google on the New Zealand pavilion in the Shanghai World Expo.

283 reviews posted to Masses review website under New Zealand pavilion’s forum during the six months’ Shanghai Expo were analysed and categorised into either pleasant or unpleasant experience. Figure 1 illustrates that more than 31 per cent of the comments mentioned the rooftop garden as a pleasant and memorable experience, followed by the 1.8 ton pounamu boulder placed in front of the pavilion as “the stone to touch for luck”. The Maori’s cultural performance in front of the pavilion on the stage was also highly evaluated for the performers’ enthusiasm and “unique interpretation of a Chinese song----friends”.

Figure 1. Pleasant experience with New Zealand pavilion in Shanghai Expo

![Figure 1. Pleasant experience with New Zealand pavilion in Shanghai Expo](image)

Around 10 percent of the comments were from poor experience and have been categorised into customer service, display inside the pavilion, overall arrangement, design of the pavilion, and the souvenir shop. The biggest portion of the negative comments is on the overall arrangement of the pavilion followed by the display and shows inside the pavilion. Most of the negative comments focused on the “boring theme”, “narrow corridor”, and “bad customer service”

Figure 2. Unpleasant experiences with New Zealand pavilion in Shanghai Expo

![Figure 2. Unpleasant experiences with New Zealand pavilion in Shanghai Expo](image)
These data will be used to generate themes and comments from Chinese internet users who have visited New Zealand Pavilion in terms of their perceptions of the New Zealand’s presence in the Expo. The outcomes of this research will contribute to the strategic planning of promoting New Zealand at future World Expos and other international events such as Rugby World Cup 2011.

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A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ATTRACTING GENERATION Y TO THE HOTEL INDUSTRY USING A SEAMLESS HOTEL ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

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A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ATTRACTING GENERATION Y TO THE HOTEL INDUSTRY USING A SEAMLESS HOTEL ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

ABSTRACT

The hotel industry is currently facing the confluence of two major environmental forces that are beyond its immediate control. First is the increasing sophistication of well traveled customers and the second is the burgeoning young demographic known as Generation Y. The latter will form the bulk of new hires for the industry and who, by the nature of their drastic differences in work values and lifestyles, will not be attracted to hotel organizations as they are currently operated. The purpose of this paper is to examine these environmental forces and propose a conceptual framework for an organizational structure at the unit level in the hotel industry. This paper provides a conceptual framework for a change in the hotel organizational structure to create a more attractive work environment for this new generation of potential employees. There are four sections to this article. The first section will examine the characteristics of Generation Y and how the hotel industry, if amenable to some basic changes, can actually be an attractive work environment for this generation. The second section will discuss revisions to a model, proposed by Solnet and Hood (2008) of a research framework for incorporating Gen Yers into the hospitality industry work force. This revision will include the component of organizational architecture which consists of three elements; organizational structure, human resource strategies, and process improvement strategies. The paper will continue by focusing mainly on the element of organizational structure and the third section will discuss the strengths and weaknesses of current hotel organizational design. The final section will present a conceptual framework for a new organizational structure for hotels that will provide a work environment that will be more attractive to the values and attitudes of the Y generation.

INTRODUCTION

The hotel industry is currently facing the confluence of two major environmental forces that are beyond its immediate control. Firstly, as the services sector of the world economy has grown, customers of services have become more sophisticated, experienced and demanding. They desire services to be tailored to their unique needs with speed and flexibility. This is especially true of the hotel industry as today’s hotel guests are better traveled than previous generations and have clearer notions of the meaning of good service. Thus, improving service quality has often become the centerpiece of corporate strategy to create and keep customers. However, corporations are realizing that the road to improving service quality is fraught with many hurdles and not easy to implement among the frontline employees who face customers daily. The present organizational design and structure of hotels makes it harder to implement innovative quality improvement strategies. The pyramid shaped functional organizational structure has survived since the beginnings of the modern U.S. hotel industry in the 1800s and this hierarchical structure cannot produce the necessary improvements in speed, quality, and productivity required for an organization to be competitive today.

Secondly, a new generation of prospective employees is on the doorstep or already crossing the threshold of the world’s lodging organizations. Generation Y, also known as the Millennial Generation, Echo Boomers, I Generation, Einstein Generation, Google Generation (Yan, 2006) is
the largest generation in history and accounts for more than 70 million people in the United States, almost three times the size of their immediate predecessors, Generation X (Huntley, 2006). These potential employees are “showing up with a whole new perspective, a different set of values, a different work ethic….they arrive in the workplace with higher expectations than any generation before them…they are so well connected that, if an employer doesn’t match those expectations they can tell thousands of their cohorts with one click of the mouse” (Raines, 2002, p. 2). They are the first generation to have been born in and to have grown up in a digital world and their emergence will require organizations to better understand them and design specific techniques for attracting and retaining them. The characteristics of this generational change is evident in the United States (Deloitte Consulting, 2009) and studies in Australia (Cairncross & Buultjens, 2007) and Scotland (Maxwell, Ogden & Broadbridge, 2010) show that this could be a happening in much of the developed world. While specific research on Gen Yers in Asia is scant, business executives have noted that the behavior of consumers of this generation is different and most corporations are not addressing their needs adequately (Solomon, 2008).

PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is to examine these environmental forces and propose a conceptual framework for an organizational structure at the unit level in the hotel industry. There are four sections to this article. The first section will examine the characteristics of Generation Y and how the hotel industry, if amenable to some basic changes, can actually be an attractive work environment for this generation. The second section will discuss revisions to a model proposed by Solnet and Hood (2008), of a research framework for incorporating Gen Yers into the hospitality industry work force. This revision will include the component of organizational architecture which consists of three elements: organizational structure, human resource strategies, and process improvement strategies. The article will continue by focusing mainly on the elements of organizational structure and the third section will discuss the strengths and weaknesses of current hotel organizational design. The final section will present a conceptual framework for a new organizational structure for hotels that will provide a work environment that will be more attractive to the values and attitudes of the Y generation.

Characteristics of Generation Y (Yers)

Gen Yers belong to a complex generation with apparently contradictory lifestyle choices such as wanting meaningful personal relationships but spending more time on their computers, or wanting to get married but not settling down (Huntley, 2006). According to Huntley they are:

- Highly mobile and willing to change careers, companies, cities and even countries. Training and retraining is very appealing to them (p. 16).
- Technologically savvy, they have never known a world without remote controls, CDs, computers, cable and satellite TV. The cell phone is an icon for this generation (p. 16).
- Committed to their friends to a much greater extent than they are to a job, a company, a brand, a political party or even a sexual partner (p. 40).
- Accepting of gender equality, viewed as an important social goal, they believe that opportunities for women are limitless (p. 47).
- Highly educated and value institutionalized learning. (p. 89).
• Looking for a balanced life and struggle to find meaning in work and career, wanting to learn, succeed and earn money to fuel their other interests (p. 99, 102).
• Repelled by the idea of ‘a job for life’, they have a self reliant attitude and would rather jump from one job to another than climb the ladder. The majority talk about a similar role in a different company, country or a different career altogether. They don’t stay in jobs they don’t like (p. 96, 98, 102).
• Inclined to travel and value flexibility and diversity in their working lives. They have translated employment insecurity into vocational freedom (p. 97).
• Inclined to take jobs that provide travel opportunities. Yers want to integrate travel into their working lives and are willing to use brief periods of work to fund backpacking trips (p. 97).
• Interested in things like working from home, marketing their ideas rather than their time, and moving away from the 9 to 5 routine (p. 97, 98).
• Not likely to embrace a deep commitment to their job, lack long term loyalty to their employer and tend to change employers frequently (p. 98).
• Likely to value jobs that provide income to do what they want to….have fun, travel and spend. Yers do not live to work…….they work to live. Work/life issues are a priority (p. 99).

According to Raines (2002), Yers seem to be more goal-oriented and ready to overcome any challenges they face but are seldom willing to pay their dues as other generations have done. However, they are more service oriented and civic minded than previous generations and would like their employers to be involved with the community at large. In addition, they look for a work environment that includes a certain amount of fun, excitement, and irreverence (Lewis & Portland, 2008, p. 2). They will not enjoy compartmentalized organizations that do not allow socialization and are “likely to respond positively to an organization structure that promotes flexibility and a dynamic work environment”.

There are many reasonable explanations as to why Yers acquired these characteristics. They were brought up in nuclear families often with doting Baby Boomer parents who had organized a structured life filled with activities to keep them busy as children. They were more exposed to culturally diverse ethnic populations and witnessed major events such as September 11, 2001, Columbine, and Oklahoma City massacres, and the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. Most importantly, this generation has been the most exposed to the rapid rate of the development of personal technology devices, computers, and software applications that could be used both in school and at home.

*The Good News for the Industry?*

The lodging industry can satisfy some of the expectations that Generation Y seeks in employment opportunities. Generation Y is ambitious and empowered. Hotels seek employees who can go above and beyond to satisfy a guest. Hoteliers expect employees to ensure guest satisfaction by any means necessary within reasonable boundaries. ‘Empowerment’ is a buzz word that has been adopted by many hotels to increase guest satisfaction. According to Harris (2007), empowerment allows service employees the flexibility and discretion to make decisions that will satisfy the immediate needs of customers and this work environment in the lodging industry is more attuned to the expectations of Generation Y.
Generation Y are technology oriented. They communicate by text messaging, Facebook, and Twitter throughout the day. Some industries have accepted and in fact, embraced employees’ needs by offering high-tech breaks as long as the work gets done (MSNBC, 2009). Further, eliminating technology in the workplace has been found to make the workplace an unpleasant environment, decrease productivity, and even hamper retention (MSNBC, 2009). The introduction of training programs using the latest technology is being introduced in hotels. The Hilton Garden Inn launched an innovative training program as a recruiting tool for the next generation utilizing PSP (PlayStation Portable) and the Ultimate Team Play game to train employees in guest satisfaction. Additionally, the use of high technology in hotels will require employees to have a greater knowledge of technology oriented devices. Hotels are introducing products such as wireless, handheld personal digital assistants to check-in guests.

Generation Y are characterized as highly mobile and willing to change careers, companies, cities, and even countries. The lodging industry can appeal to Generation Y by offering employees transfer and advancement opportunities to other properties in other locations. New openings of hotels, shortage of employees, and offering open positions in house or to transfer employees are valuable prospects that can be offered to Generation Y. Since many of these positions can be offered through multiple lodging companies tend to offer multiple brands in many United States (U.S.) states and countries, this may be alluring to Generation Y.

Another trait of Generation Y is their civic-minded nature. They are very ‘green’ and expect their employers to operate with an environmentally conscious approach. Green hotels are seen as energy, water, and material efficient, conserving and preserving by saving water, reducing energy usage, and reducing solid waste. Many hotels are aware of the negative impacts of their industry on the environment and are focusing on curtailing these. Hotels (not only those catering to eco-tourists) can attract Generation Y as employees by highlighting their conservation efforts.

Diversity is an important attribute in the workplace and is valued by members of Generation Y. A 2008 corporate diversity survey measuring CEO commitment, human capital, corporate and organizational communications, and supplier diversity, rated Marriott as the highest ranked company in the lodging industry (PR Newswire, 2008). Marriott spent a record $478 million (13.6 percent) with women and minority-owned businesses, increased spending with minority-, women-, gay-, and lesbian-owned U.S. suppliers in 2009, and started outreach to diverse suppliers internationally. Marriott was also distinguished as one of the “Top 10 Companies for Executive Women” (PR Newswire, 2008).

Organizational Architecture

Solnet and Hood (2008) proposed a research agenda to further study the impact of the entry of Generation Y into the hospitality workforce. Their Generation Y research framework outlined relationships between Generation Y work values and hotel industry human resources strategies, which together influence Generation Y work attitudes and work behaviors, leading ultimately to organizational outcomes. However, the authors stated that this framework is a starting point, so we propose a change in their framework which replaces the section titled “HRM Strategies” with the broader concept of “Organizational Architecture” as shown in Figure 1. This is based on the
premise that hotel organizations that recognize the need for strategies to serve customers better using the talents of Generation Y, must be willing to engage in a redesign of some parts of their organization. Fitzroy and Hulbert (2005) coined the term ‘organizational architecture’ which consists of three intertwined elements. These are organizational structure, human resource strategies, and internal processes. Architecture “determines the firm’s role configuration, the processes it adopts to meet customers’ needs, and the way in which it manages its own staff” (Fitzroy & Hulbert, 2005, p. 316).

Strategy and Structure

While there is no one best way to design an organization, changing structure is not an end in itself but rather a more effective means to achieve a chosen strategy (Enz, 2009). Recently, it has become increasingly evident that hotel products (i.e., physical structure, rooms, baths, lobbies, restaurants and other tangible elements) have almost reached commodity status within particular product classes of hotels. The major differentiating factor is the quality of service provided by employees directly to customers (Parasuram, Zeithmal & Berry, 1988). Therefore, in today’s dynamic hospitality industry environment, if a high level of service quality is the viable competitive strategy, then organizational structure must be adapted to be more conducive to this chosen strategy (Blum, 1996).

Organizational Structure
The functional organizational structure was created during the industrial revolution when economies of scale and narrow specialization of workers were seen as competitive strategies of successful manufacturing organizations. It has the advantages of providing clear lines of authority and control while maintaining consistency and efficiency. These characteristics were important to the manufacturing organizations in the early 20th century when workers were largely regarded as needing to be controlled under the watchful eye of a supervisor. However, as times have changed the weaknesses of such a functional organizational structure, especially in the hotel industry, have become evident and have been well documented (Nebel, 1991). These include the creation of fiefdoms by more powerful department heads; difficulty in coordinating activities of functions that are closely interdependent; production of specialists who are not well prepared to move to higher levels in the organization; resistance to innovations and changes that may reduce power; and a tendency to focus on rules and regulations, and on doing things right, rather than doing the right things to address guests’ requests. Other weaknesses include monotony of work and a lack of flexibility to serve guests’ needs better because of cumbersome operating rules and regulations. This type of organizational structure is especially objectionable to Generation Y (Barron, Maxwell, Broadbridge, & Ogden, 2007).

**THE SEAMLESS HOTEL ORGANIZATION**

The seamless hotel organization structure is designed to be circular, flat and dynamic. Circular so that all boundaries of the hotel, where employees serve customers, are equally accessible, flat, to reduce the number of hierarchical levels within the hotel, and dynamic, to create the flexibility to serve the changing needs of guests. In this seamless design there will be no departments as exists currently, only two job categories: the first is Guest Service and the second is Internal Service. The main differences between these two categories are the intensity and the frequency of guest contact. Any employee whose primary function is to provide guest service and whose primary duty results in intensive guest contact will belong to the Guest Service job category. This will include the functions of the Front Office (including Front Desk, Communications, and Uniformed Services), Food and Beverage Service (including Food, Beverage, and Catering Services), and any other services where employees interact directly with guests. These employees are crucial to attaining the ultimate objective of the organization – i.e., guest satisfaction, and will all be in one team.

The second job category, Internal Service, will include functions in the hotel that support and help Guest Service employees serve the guests better. This job category will resemble the traditional functional staff departments since they require unique job qualifications and skills. This will include the traditional functions of Accounting, Food and Beverage Production, Housekeeping, Maintenance, Personnel, Sales, and Security (of course, these names will be changed to match the changes in the functions of these departments, as seen later). These employees have less direct guest contact and their ultimate goal is to serve and satisfy the needs of employees in Guest Service - hence the name ‘Internal Service’ (Figure 2). This is based on a suggestion by Raines (2002, p. 4) that the “millennial work force will cause business to make internal customer service a way of doing business….treating employees the way customers should be treated”.

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Guest Service

Guest Service (G.S.) employees in this type of organization take care of all guest needs in the hotel. This means every employee in this job category must be trained to be truly multi-skilled and to be prepared to work in cross-functional teams. The first and most important skill must be the ability to satisfy each guest’s unique needs. This means that employees must be effective communicators with guests so that they can carry out the traditional functions of greeting, listening, handling complaints, and problem solving. In other words all G.S. employees will be trained to respond to guests like Front Office or Restaurant Supervisors, and will eventually be empowered to satisfy guest requests using their own judgment and initiative.

Another important skill is the ability to carry out the procedural component of service. For example, G.S. employees must have the job knowledge to carry out their duties. Understanding the processes involved in the provision of guest service is an essential premise of reengineering. However, within this new organizational structure, which is not functionally based, the major difference is that there is no distinction between Bell Persons, Front Desk Receptionists, Food and Beverage Servers, and other G.S. personnel. Employees have to be multi-skilled and they have to be trained to be capable of conducting all the procedural aspects of all guest service.
functions. This means that after continuous training, the ideal G.S. employee could, if necessary, be a Door Person, Bell Person, Receptionist, and Waiter all rolled into one. This is true multi-skilling, with the objective of creating employees who are generalists in hotel procedures but specialists in guest service. This is consistent with the recommendations of Solnet and Kralj (2010) for Gen Yers to be involved in diverse job functions allowing them to develop skills in several different aspects of the hotel. More attention will have to be paid to cross-training and lateral movement across the various parts of the organization. There must also be a continuous commitment to the development of skills and knowledge so that decision-making can be moved down, and left largely to the discretion of frontline employees. Job specifications, on the other hand, will also have to be changed. Multifaceted service jobs require people who can be trained to become multi-skilled. Employees should have a deep-rooted commitment to serving guests. They have to learn to be good listeners, effective communicators, and must be willing to solve guests’ problems using any legal and ethical means. They have to be mature enough to accept the responsibility that comes with empowerment. Most important, they have to be eminently trainable in all the procedural aspects of hotel guest service since on any given day they could be at the front desk, in the restaurant, in room service, or in any other guest service area. Employees will also have to be prepared and psychologically ready to play their roles as members of cross-functional teams rather than as individual superstars. The ultimate goal is for teams to be self-directed with team members capable of moving from one team to another depending on organizational needs. Each team would have a coordinator whose role will be to coordinate rather than supervise. This would address some of the concerns raised by Martin (2005) regarding the independent and self-reliant tendencies of Gen Yers and their dislike for micromanagement and autocratic management styles.

**Internal Service**

The Seamless Hotel Organization concept recognizes that there are certain specialized skills, apart from guest service, that are necessary for the effective functioning of the hotel. These are traditionally called staff functions, except, in this new organization the purpose of each staff group will be redefined. Employees in this job category have the primary responsibility of supporting Guest Service employees. Support could range from needs for timely financial information to needs for clean hotel rooms. The internal service concept must be supported by structural changes which ensure that these employees are working in the best interests of their frontline counterparts. Internal Service will be divided by technical knowledge into the following areas and objectives. In addition, new names to replace the old ones are suggested as follows:

1. **Internal Marketing (Human Resource Management)**
   1.1 To match the jobs available in the hotel with the needs of potential employees while recognizing that proper employee selection, training, and compensation provide a competitive edge. The job is the product that is marketed to the employee who is the customer; just as hotel sales people match a hotel's strengths with targeted market segments.
   1.2 To fulfill all the legal and administrative requirements associated with human resource management.

2. **Financial Advising (Accounting)**
2.1 To assist G.S. employees in keeping track of all financial aspects of the hotel including daily revenue and cost reports, income statements, balance sheets, and budgets.

2.2 To prepare all legally required financial reports.

3. Risk Management (Security)
3.1 To ensure that the hotel is covered with regard to managing financial, employee, and guest risks.

4. Product Renewal (Housekeeping and Maintenance)
4.1 To renew the hotel product so that G.S. employees can provide the service that lives up to or exceeds guest expectations.

5. Sales and Employment Security (Sales and Marketing)
5.1 To match hotel strengths with targeted market segments which are compatible with each other and which can be served well.
5.2 To provide employment security to all employees by assuring an adequate flow of customers at the right price.

6. Food Production (If necessary)
6.1 To support G.S. employees who are responsible for taking care of guest food and beverage needs.

The relationship between Internal Service and Guest Service should be based on the principles outlined by Block (1993, p. 126) who emphasizes the role of core work groups (G.S.) as the primary customers of staff employees (I.S.):

As customers, line groups gain more control over the relationship and can obtain a unique response from staff groups. Staff groups give up power in this process in exchange for the possibility of serving the organization in a more important way. Instead of maintaining consistency and control, their contribution is that of capability.

This represents a major shift of power from staff groups to guest contact employees, and the main question that should be asked of Internal Service is, "What value have you added to the process of delivering our service to the customer?" I.S. job descriptions should reflect the specialized tasks required for the various areas based on the objectives outlined earlier. These should include a description of where each job fits vis a vis the process of service delivery to guests. In addition, I.S. employees will be responsible for preparing crucial operating information and explaining all specialized reports to G.S. employees so that they can enhance their job performance. Technology will play a vital role, not only to facilitate the information sharing process but also for the rapid transmission of new information. The Seamless Hotel Organization now resembles a circle where guests in the center are served by Guest Service employees who are guaranteed support by Internal Service employees.
CONCLUSION

Some hospitality industry employers have already begun gearing their recruitment and retention strategies to be more sensitive to the “culture” of the Y generation (Cairncross & Buultjens, 2007). As Solnet and Hood (2008) have suggested, service organizations that implement human resource strategies that are more consistent with the values of Gen Yers are likely to have an advantage over their competitors. However, these strategies will be more effective if they are implemented within the framework of a supportive organizational structure. So, the time has come to redefine the nature of hotel organizational structure. As Generation Yers become more and more prevalent in the workforce, hotels which truly want to set themselves apart must redesign their organizational structures. Trying to fit square pegs in round holes will only result in getting ill-fitted employees who may be half-hearted in their commitment to service, less innovative in their evaluation of situations that require critical thinking, and unwilling or unable to accept organizational positions that empower them to quickly and effectively solve guest problems. Lewis and Portland (2008) indicated that Gen Yers are more likely to be attracted to organizational structures that are flexible and this article is only the first step in redesigning the organizational structure of hotels to be more attractive and conducive to the characteristics of this new generation of employees. It is not set in stone but intended to provoke a good discussion among hospitality practitioners, educators and researchers.

REFERENCES


INSIGHTS INTO HOSPITALITY LEADERSHIP: A COMPARISON OF THE UK AND HONG KONG

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INSIGHTS INTO HOSPITALITY LEADERSHIP: A COMPARISON OF THE UK AND HONG KONG

ABSTRACT

This research explores effective leadership and how it is developed, according to the views of successful hospitality and tourism leaders in the UK and Hong Kong. Understanding what makes a successful and effective leader is vital for the training and developing of future industry leaders. There is a vast body of literature pertaining towards leadership, with much previous research focusing on identifying innate leadership traits or exploring potential outcomes of effective leadership as a means to understand successful leadership. This research explores effective hospitality leadership using empirical qualitative interview data collected from twenty five leaders in the UK hospitality industry and ten leaders in the Hong Kong tourism and hospitality industries. Findings are explored in relation to four areas; where leadership skills were learnt, what makes an effective leader, advice for aspiring leaders and leadership issues specific to the hospitality industry. The findings reveal that the leaders, for the most part, learn their skills from personal experience and from observing others, whilst some also felt that leadership skills are innate. What makes a leader effective is a variety of personal skills, with communication, trust, transparency, integrity and having vision seen as crucial. Advice for aspiring leaders includes being fair and consistent, self-belief, being honest and trustworthy, caring for others, and being enthusiastic and not work shy. Leadership issues specific to the hospitality industry include industry reputation, diverse workforce challenges, and industry volatility. Comparisons between the two countries are made and conclusions are discussed in relation to similarities or differences.

Keywords: Hospitality leadership, comparison, UK, Hong Kong

INTRODUCTION

The subject of leadership has a long history of research and a well established body of theoretical and practical work (Clark, Hartline & Jones, 2009; Lowe & Gardner, 2002). Review papers on the development of leadership studies are a useful way of condensing the many different aspects and approaches, for example work by Mackenzie and Barnes, (2007). Certainly, research in leadership is large in scope and covers a broad range of issues such as leadership challenges (Bennis, 2007), developing leaders (Chiang & Jang, 2008), and cultural orientations (White, 2006). Ladkin and Weber (forthcoming), identify that the earlier studies of leadership focused on the extent to which leadership is different from management and more recently, much of the research has focused on identifying potential benefits of effective leadership for organizations. This may be in the form of departmental or organizational performance (Patiar & Lockman, 2009) or improved employee behaviour (Testa, 2001). Much of the research is dominated by positivist methodologies and findings. It mostly originates from the United States and consequently is largely based in Western settings (Ladkin & Weber, forthcoming). Bryman’s (1992) work in trends in leadership theory and research identify trait approaches, style approaches, contingency approaches and new styles of leadership including transformational and charismatic leadership as a chronological way of understanding trends in leadership theory and research. Northouse (2004) reduces leadership research into common themes and problem areas.
(leadership as process; leadership involves influence, leadership occurs in a group context and leadership involves goal attainment).

A comprehensive review of the leadership literature from management and organizational fields is clearly beyond the scope of this paper. Four themes in the literature are relevant to this research. The first is leadership training and teaching. Given the importance of leadership, it is no surprise that there is a wealth of research that explores how best to teach leadership (Hegarty, 2005; Law & Glover 2000; Scheule & Sneed, 2001) and leadership training (Saunders, 2004). The common conclusion from these and other studies is that teaching and training leaders is best undertaken both in the classroom and in practical workplace situations. There is also some support that for the idea that being a leader is an innate ability which cannot necessarily be taught (Scheule & Sneed, 2001). Essentially, there are different views and ideas about the best way to train leaders, but it is widely recognised that a combination of theory and practical training is beneficial (Weber & Ladkin, forthcoming).

Second, the characteristics common to and the skills required of leaders has relevance to this research. As identified by Weber & Ladkin (forthcoming), a series of publications from Michigan State University explore various aspects of leadership in clubs in the United States and lodging and commercial foodservice operations in both the United States and Japan (Cichy & Sciarini, 1990; Cichy & Cook, 1991; Cichy, Aoki, Patton & Sciarini, 1992; Cichy, Aoki, Hwang & Patton, 1993; Cichy & Schmidgall, 1996; 1997). Communication, trust, perseverance, and vision are identified as the foundations of leadership, while the ‘secrets of leadership’ were found to be related to credibility, dependability, accountability, self-confidence, loyalty, and decisiveness. Kriegl (2000) identified the most important skills hospitality managers require in an international work environment, namely cultural sensitivity, interpersonal skills, and managerial flexibility. Their leadership abilities were also perceived as critical, especially an adaptive leadership style that is open to new ideas and overcoming cultural differences.

The third theme of relevance for this research is cultural influences on leadership. Extensive research as been undertaken by Testas (2007; 2009) who investigated the impact of culture on leadership issues in the cruise industry. Specifically the focus was on the effect of cultural congruence between leaders and employees on the perceived leadership style, leader-member exchange and employee citizenship behaviour. Results indicate that cultural similarity between leaders and subordinates lead to higher levels of trust and satisfaction with their leader, compared to situations where the leader and subordinates had a different cultural background. Research by Litrell (2002) explored this in the context of China, surveying expatriate and Chinese managers in two hotels in Inner China. Findings indicated there were no main differences apart from for the variable ‘tolerance for freedom,’ with Chinese managers being more tolerant of freedom than expatriate managers.

The fourth theme has been recently explored by Wong and Chan (2010) and is the importance of contexts in leadership. They argue that context can be viewed from both a macro level in terms of the understanding of a whole society, and a micro level which is the behaviour of an organizations members (Wong & Chan, 2010:437). Wong and Chan (2010) have identified two main groups of researcher that study the relationship between context and leadership. One group uses a qualitative approaches (for example Bryman, 2004, Alvesson & Svenningson, 2003) and the other a leadership perception approach (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Lord, Brown, Harvey & Hall, 2001). Taking a macro perspective, two of the macro contexts identified by Wong and Chan are
useful for this research. The first is national culture on leadership, and cites studies by Gerstner and Day (1994) who found significant differences in leadership perceptions of according to cultural dimensions. The work by Testas (2007; 2009) described above is also cited as evidence of the effects of culture on leadership. The second context refers to industry settings and characteristics and leadership. Included in this are the ways in which the industry context affects leadership. The unique features of the hospitality industry are that it operates in settings with frequent personal interactions (Wong & Chan, 2010), and it has it owns set of practices, cultures, and industry characteristics (Guerrier, 2008; Pizam, 1993). As a consequence, hospitality leaders may need a specific set of skills. Browness (2008) argues that effective communication skills and interpersonal competences are crucial in the hospitality environment. Wong and Chan’s (2010) study of understanding the leadership perceptions of staff in China’s hotel industry through the integration of macro and micro aspects of leadership contexts reveals that industries, levels and cultures do indeed have an impact on leadership perceptions. One interesting and previously unknown finding relates to professionalism. This is seen as the most significant characteristic of leadership in the Chinese hotel industry and it is closely related to the contexts of the hotel industry development and the economic development currently taking place in China.

The research presented in this paper compares two highly developed economies and mature tourist destinations, the United Kingdom and Hong Kong. Both are multi-cultural environments, with historical links through Hong Kong’s position as a British colony until 1997, when Hong Kong became a Special Administrative Region of China. Both are concerned with maintaining their position as leading destinations for international business and leisure travel, and therefore have a continued demand and need for strong leadership and management of the tourism and hospitality industries. Therefore, the development of leaders, what contributes to their success, advice for leaders and leadership issues that are specific to the tourism and hospitality are all areas of importance for both destinations. Furthermore, a comparison of research findings from the two places allows for an exploration of any contextual or cultural difference or similarities.

THE STUDY

The study enables a comparison between Western and Asian leaders in the tourism and hospitality industries and offers a number of insights into hospitality leadership in these two different contexts.

Methodology

This research was undertaken initially in the UK, followed by a replication of the study in Hong Kong. For both surveys, primary data was collected through the use of in-depth interviews. The merits of using interviews as a method of data collection are many, and include their flexibility, the richness of the data collected, and their lack of constraint on respondent’s answers (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Importantly for this research was the fact that interviews allowed the researcher to return to topics if necessary throughout the interviews, and also to ensure that all issues were explored (Bailey, 1994).

For the UK sample, two different groups of people were identified as potential participants. First, those who the industry itself thought were its most effective leaders; and second, those who had been recognised by their own staff. The first group was identified by inviting Fellows and
Members of The Institute of Hospitality to nominate industry leaders who they felt were worthy of recognition. Ten people were identified and interviewed from this group. The second group was identified from two annual surveys; The Sunday Times ‘100 Best Companies To Work For’; and The Caterer’s ‘Best Companies to Work For in Hospitality’. From the seventeen hospitality-related companies that were recognised in these two surveys over the past three years, it was decided to approach the leaders of these companies to be interviewed. Fifteen leaders agreed, giving a total sample size of twenty-five. Interviews took place between January and June 2007.

In Hong Kong, a list of potential suitable interviewees was compiled from a variety of published sources and local knowledge of the faculty from one of the authors’ academic institution. These potential respondents were from both tourism and hospitality organisations, the final list comprised of twenty-five possible respondents, of which ten leaders agreed to be interviewed. The in-depth interviews took place between December 2007 and February 2008.

For both the UK and Hong Kong samples, each interview took approximately one hour, and was conducted in English. The interviews were recorded and were later transcribed. The analysis was conducted by two people, one acting as the principle data analyst, and the other analysing the transcripts without knowledge of the outcome of the first round of analysis. This is a comparative technique, as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998). In the initial analysis, broad themes and sub-themes were identified. At the time of writing, the UK data had been explored by the principle data analyst only. The Hong Kong data has been previously explored in the context of leadership issues and challenges and developing effective leadership (Ladkin & Weber, forthcoming; Weber & Ladkin, forthcoming).

The profile of the samples is shown in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UK Respondent Number</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Hong Kong Respondent Number</th>
<th>Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Contact Catering</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Travel Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Brewery</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Conferences &amp; Exhibitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hotel Chain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hotel Chain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Independent Hotel</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Travel Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cruises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Contract Catering</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Theme Parks &amp; Attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Inns</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Conferences &amp; Exhibitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Industry Representative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Gaming</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Hotel Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Conferences &amp; Exhibitions</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Hotel Association &amp; Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 shows that the respondents came from a range of industry sectors, representing a broad range of views.

Findings

The findings are presented in relation to four areas; where leadership skills were learnt, what makes an effective leader, advice for aspiring leaders and leadership issues specific to the hospitality industry. Each is considered in turn with themes and sub-themes summarised and quotes used as illustrative examples. The quantitative presentation of the qualitative data is to indicate the frequency of occurrences in this primary analysis stage.

1. Where leadership skills were learnt

The purpose here was to ascertain where the leaders had learned their skills. The results were remarkably similar for both the UK and Hong Kong. For both samples, learning by experience, learning from others and possessing innate leadership traits were identified. The main difference was in the priority of each theme.

Table 2 shows the main themes and sub-themes identified in the data, the number of interviews during which they occurred in both samples, and in brackets, the ranking of each theme.
Table 2. Where Leadership Skills were Learnt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Frequency &amp; Rank UK</th>
<th>Frequency &amp; Rank HK</th>
<th>Subthemes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>20 (2)</td>
<td>10 (1)</td>
<td>‘Real life’ learning, no substitute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reflecting on experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘Common sense’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Learning ‘on the job’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Learning from challenging situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>From reading about theories and inspiration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Trial and error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From others</td>
<td>24 (1)</td>
<td>10 (2)</td>
<td>Mentors and bosses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Good and bad people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Learning from others mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Watching others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innate</td>
<td>5 (3)</td>
<td>3 (3)</td>
<td>Innate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Combination of innate and learned characteristics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A central theme from the respondents was learning from personal experience. This was discussed the most by the Hong Kong sample as all respondents felt it was the most significant way to learn. It was second most discussed for the UK sample. By doing the job, handling different situations and learning from your mistakes are all considered important. Illustrative quotes from the leaders include:

“I think learning from the job is important, when you are learning by actually doing it, it’s the best way, so a leader always has to be reflexive and say how come I have done this job right? Or how come I have messed this up, what have I done wrong?” (Respondent 7, HK)

“Experience is very important but learning from experience is more important; very often people don’t learn from their experiences!” (Respondent 16, UK)

“You have to learn from experience. From each situation you get a better insight from the issues and get a better insight on how to apply this problem to the other situations. This is a kind of learning process. Very important.” (Respondent 10, HK)

I think through a combination of doing the job so, therefore, learning by experience - that sort of action centred approach. (Respondent 17, UK).

“Unfortunately, you have to learn it yourself” (Respondent 9, HK)

“I think, very much trial and error.” (Respondent 4, UK).

The second theme, learning from others, was also a widely discussed topic and it dominated the UK discussion. These could be formal mentors and senior colleagues, but also included learning from a range of different people and situations. For example, Respondent 1 (UK) states;

“I don’t think there has been one person or one thing that has influenced me. It really is a continual journey and it’s an amalgamation of lots and lots of different reading, different
learning, different observations that have developed my leadership skills and I’m still developing, you know.” (Respondent 1, UK)

“You can pick the good points of individuals and try to merge it with your own way of management, your way of being a leader.” Respondent 3 (HK)

“I always try to listen to other people irrespective of whether they are high ranking, even minor business, minor issues, even ordinary people with ordinary parties, whether it is related to the travel trade or hotels, it doesn’t matter. (Respondent 1, HK)

“I’ve learned them just by working with some fabulous people.” (Respondent 25, UK)

Learning specifically from mentors is illustrated by comments from Respondent 2 (HK);

“I really learnt from mentors and so from watching people who thought they were leaders but weren’t. I learnt from their mistakes”.

Others commented that it was possible to learn from both good and bad managers and leaders. Respondent 6 (HK) states;

“Sometimes I think your best teacher is your worst teacher... I mean, sometimes the worst people I work for are the best teachers for me because I knew I wouldn’t do it the same way when I got the opportunity to work at that role.”

“When you are growing up in a business, you learn from other people, the good and the bad.” (Respondent 3, UK)

Comments related specifically to education were also given, for example,

“In the early days, some of my leadership skills, I think, were given to me in a classroom environment.” (Respondent 9, UK)

The third theme relates to whether leadership skills can be learned or if they are innate. Some of the respondents felt strongly that leadership could be something that is innate in an individual, and some traits could mean you may be more likely to become a leader. For example, Respondent 4 (HK) noted;

“Of course skills are very important, but they can be learnt with training, you can learn it with education, but some people are born to be leaders”.

“Certain important values that leaders need are inherent to a degree. You learn certain leadership skills from others who you have either worked with or admired; and with experience over the years you see the things which work or have inspired you and you in turn try and emulate.” (Respondent 19, UK)

The above findings in relation to where leaders learnt their skills confirm the value of experience. Although some of the respondents stressed that an understanding of leadership
theory, reading about leadership and classroom education can enhance understanding, ultimately it was different experiences that counted in terms of how they developed leadership skills. It could be argued that certain innate characteristics have a role to play, however, it appears but there is no substitute for experience. The themes were remarkably similar for both the UK and HK samples, with a slightly different emphasis. However, in reality learning by experience and learning from others are intertwined.

2. What makes an effective leader?

The leader’s views on what makes an effective leader again revealed similar themes between the two samples. However, the relative value of each element was different. Eight themes are identified and are shown in table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Frequency &amp; Rank UK</th>
<th>Frequency &amp; Rank HK</th>
<th>Subthemes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business Knowledge</td>
<td>3 (8)</td>
<td>10 (1)</td>
<td>Invest in people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Far sighted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determination</td>
<td>10 (5)</td>
<td>8 (2)</td>
<td>Focused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Don’t quit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Positive thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Support</td>
<td>23 (2)</td>
<td>7 (3)</td>
<td>Give people opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Motivate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Minded</td>
<td>22 (3)</td>
<td>7 (4)</td>
<td>Discovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Far sighted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admit failures</td>
<td>10 (5)</td>
<td>5 (5)</td>
<td>Listen to other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Take advice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>25 (1)</td>
<td>5 (5)</td>
<td>Keep people informed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect &amp; Personable</td>
<td>16 (4)</td>
<td>5 (5)</td>
<td>Reflect on experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gain respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Handling yourself and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Humor</td>
<td>10 (5)</td>
<td>3 (8)</td>
<td>Have fun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many of the respondents gave this question considerable thought, with most giving narratives of situations to illustrate the points they were making. Due to the large number of comments provided by these discussions, only one quote from each sample is selected for illustrative purposes.

For business knowledge; Respondent 3 (HK) notes;

“to be a leader, you have to know all factors of the business because they look upon you as a leader, so they come to you for knowledge etc.”
“It really helps if you understand the business inside out.” (Respondent 12, UK).

In terms of determination, Respondent 4 (HK) states;

“You have to be very strong and firm also, after you have collected all the views, and then you need to be very strong and firm to speak out what you have chosen.”

“It’s very important that you know what you want to achieve and you can perceive what your goal is. If you can perceive what your goal is you’ve then got to be able to persuade other people to help you in doing that.” (Respondent 14, UK).

Having the right team is illustrated by Respondent 3 (HK) who states;

“to be a leader, you can’t lead by yourself; you have to have the right team, the right department heads to help you. So, you have to have the right caliber of people to help you along, to make sure your strategy works as a team.”

“Having a good and happy workforce is vital.” (Respondent 4, UK)

Clear communication with all levels of staff is seen to be crucial for effective leadership. This is summarized by Respondent 5 (HK) who says;

“Clear communication is key.”

“I think they’ve got to be a good communicator and I think you’ve got to devote time. I think that is probably one of the differences. I think you’ve got to devote a lot more of your time to listening and consulting and communicating with people and supporting people than you probably do with actually doing activities.” (Respondent 1, UK)

With regard to admitting to mistakes, Respondent 3 (HK) acknowledges;

“after you make a decision, you have to make sure you carry out the decision rightly or wrongly. Further down the road, you may find it is wrong, and then as a leader, you have to admit that you are wrong, you got to take responsibility, and you got to be accountable as a leader.”

“Be human and honest and admit when you are wrong.” (Respondent 24, UK)

Being open minded and curious was illustrated by Respondent 4 (HK) who states;

“Actually, leaders need to be open minded because you have to accept all the views, like you have to be open and accept different views from your team, however, you have to be very strong and firm also to have, like after you have collected all the views, and then you need to be very strong and firm to speak out what you have chosen. That’s number one.”

“Be open minded and prepared to listen.” (Respondent 5, UK)
In terms of showing charisma and earning respect, Respondent 2 (HK) states;

“A leader has to be likeable, likeable to the degree that people respect that person and because they are likeable, they would inspire more and get result back more from the inspiration.”

“A leader has to be approachable and has to have charisma.” (Respondent 8, UK)

The final set of comments related to leaders having a sense of humor. According to Respondent 6 (HK);

“The next thing is the sense of humour which I think you need sense of humour for anything you do, and obviously it is easier for me within the theme park environment because you can have fun doing what we do and have fun anywhere.”

“Make work fun. Having sense of humour really helps” (Respondent 1, UK)

The above findings show there are many traits that combined to make an effective leader. These traits relate to personality characteristics, approaches and motivations, with knowledge of the business being the only exception. Although both samples identified similar themes there is a marked difference in the importance of these themes. For the Hong Kong sample, business knowledge is key, particularly in relation to long term views. For the UK sample, communication is seen as the most important thing, with open-mindedness and fostering team support also strongly advocated.

3. Advice for aspiring leaders.

This question resulted in much comment and reflection from the leaders. The responses are diverse, although broad similarities could be identified. These broad themes are, first, being enthusiastic and passionate about the business as reflected in the following quotes:

“Think carefully about whether you really like this industry. If you are not interested in this industry, the job will be very hard and you won’t be very successful. (Respondent 1, HK).

“I think passion is important, the passion to make other people happy, (Respondent 7, HK).

“If you want to be a leader in a particular industry you have to actually passionately enjoy it.” (Respondent 15, UK)

Second, learn all you can about the business, as illustrated by Respondent 2 (HK) who states;

“No matter what industry they entered, my advice is to learn every single thing about the industry that they can possibly learn even they do it on their own. The most effective leader is going to be a leader that truly understands the business they are leading and the people they are leading. So do everything you can to understand the business and anything you can to understand the people, to appreciate the people and to be empathetic.”
"Well, I think it would be that they had to know the business. I think that’s the most important thing, because if you don’t know what you want, and you don’t know the business, you’re in the hands of other people and you can’t be a proper leader.” (Respondent 16, UK)

Third, is to be a good person who others will want to follow, as shown by Respondent 5 (HK);

“You have to do the right thing, just because you are the leader, you don’t boss people around, you can show your authority and you can also show your compassion, so that you have to be sensitive, dealing with people is a difficult thing.”

I think that the caring side of it, making sure you are a leader that people can see and that as a leader you care about people, is important.” (Respondent 16, UK)

A leader has to build relationships with his or her staff based on mutual respect and trust. This might be achieved by being value driven, open, trustworthy, honest and approachable.” (Respondent 19, UK)

For Hong Kong, a fourth theme was not to be afraid of hard work, and investing time in the industry was also seen as crucial.

“Don’t be afraid of hard work. Don’t think that it is hard so I don’t want to do it. Actually in any business, not only the travel business, for those who are young and just entering the industry, they have to remember that, they have to work very hard, they have to be willing to work hard and fast and up and know more and be open.” (Respondent 4, HK)

For the UK, a fourth theme was to be yourself and be honest.

“To listen, just listen to your people and digest and act on that, but definitely to listen and have empathy.” (Respondent 25, UK)

Advice for those aspiring to become leaders in the hospitality industry was that you have to be honest about how much you want to be involved in the industry. The view is very much that you cannot be half hearted about the profession as it demands much time and effort. However, those who are passionate about the industry stand a very good chance of success. The interviewees noted the need for a successful leader to have a strong passion for the industry, a desire to interact and enjoyment of dealing with people of different backgrounds.

4. Leadership issues specific to the hospitality industry

This area showed considerable diversity between the two samples. For the UK sample, four specific leadership issues were raised. There was strong consensus on the following factors:

- The industry does not have a good reputation for career development and this can deter people from entering the industry;
the environment is very competitive, so you have to create a culture for staff that creates loyalty to the brand;
- due to the volatility of the industry, both good and bad times have to be managed, so you need to be an effective leader for both, and
- you have to be able to lead a very diverse workforce, and often one that is geographically spread, with the lowest paid being the company ambassadors due to the nature of service. This takes a particular type of leadership to be able to motivate everyone.

For the Hong Kong sample, the dominant theme to emerge from the interviews was the industry’s universal ‘people orientation,’ of the industry. Therefore, more so than in other industries, leadership skills revolving around interpersonal relations and communication were perceived as particularly important. Given the importance of the provider-customer interface to customer satisfaction, the need to hire the ‘right people’ for the job was strongly emphasized. For example, Respondent 3 stressed that

“The single most important aspect of how we deliver good service is hiring the right people”

and Respondent 9 referring to the need for having the right people in a team, stating that

“A hotel is very labour-intensive, so trying to get the team work together is very important, you have to have the right people.”

The findings reveal marked differences in terms of specific leadership issues. Common to both is the idea of having to have the right people, both in terms of attracting them to the industry and their subsequent development. It is not surprising that workforce diversity is considered more of an issue in the UK than Hong Kong as many nationalities are employed in hospitality organisations.

CONCLUSION

The research has offered an initial insight into hospitality leadership from both the UK and Hong Kong perspective. Three initial conclusions are drawn.

The first relates to the development of leadership skills. There is no doubt that formal education and training has a role to play in the development of leaders. In agreement with previous research (Hegarty, 2005; Law & Glover 2000; Scheule & Sneed, 2001), the study found that leaders recognised the value of leadership theory and classroom based learning. However, more significant was the role of learning by experience. The present research does not explore whether learning by experience is more important than formal education, or in what form the learning by experience takes. For example, it could be that learning by experience is gained over time on the job or it might be as part of work integrated education. What is clear is that learning by experience has no substitute, therefore in the context of teaching and training it highlights the need for practical work based training and development. Furthermore, it appears there is also no substitute for time spent in junior and senior roles as part of the learning process. The role of
mentors was also seen as useful to facilitate learning by experience and again could be applied to both employment after education in the workplace or as part of work based education.

Second, the characteristics of leaders and the skills required for leadership are many, relating largely to personality attributes and skills. Leaders are expected to have vision, good communication skills, loyalty, decisiveness, perseverance and a range of interpersonal and management skills. These have been previously identified in the literature (for example, Kriegl, 2000, Cichy & Schmidgall, 1996; 1997). The present study finds support for these issues. Some cultural distinctions are also evident here. In the Hong Kong context, business skills are valued very highly, whereas in the UK sample, communication was viewed as the most important. The balance between learned skills and personality attributes is often a blurred, but clearly there is a role for both.

Third, the research uncovers some evidence of differences between leadership issues for the hospitality industry in the UK and Hong Kong, reflecting the different situational contexts of the two destinations. This is not surprising given the different labour markets and industry trends that are affecting each place, and it adds value to the notion of the importance of context explored by Wong and Chan (2010). Furthermore, differences are evident in the emphasis given to the leader’s perceptions of what makes an effective leader. Previous research (for example, Testas, 2007; 2009) has highlighted the importance of cultural differences. Whilst this research cannot be conclusive in this claim, it can be suggested that cultural differences are evident in terms of the relative importance of the different themes. Although commonalities are found in terms of where skills are learned, characteristics and skills required to be an effective leader and advice for aspiring leaders, the relative importance of these themes varies slightly. Whether these differences are due to situational contexts or cultural distinctions is not known, therefore further research into these contextual and cultural differences would be a way forward for this research and would also assist in widening leadership studies that consider the Asian context.

REFERENCES


ACCULTURATION EXPERIENCES AND WORKPLACE CULTURAL DIVERSITY DYNAMICS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CHINESE, INDIAN AND EASTERN EUROPEAN MIGRANTS IN NEW ZEALAND

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

As a migrant receiving nation, New Zealand’s workplace is today culturally diverse, increasingly in the hospitality and tourism industry. Within the scope of organisational behaviour and given the culturally diverse backgrounds of the migrants from Asia and Eastern Europe, this study’s emphasis is on finding out how the Chinese, Indian and Eastern European migrants interact with their co-workers, supervisors or managers, and how these encounters and dynamics may shape their learning and behaviour. These migrants differ significantly to New Zealand’s traditional migration sources such as from the United Kingdom in terms of their diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds, different customs, practices, norms and languages. Adopting a qualitative methodology, this study hopes to elicit a deep level understanding of the complexities interwoven into the workplace dynamics encountered by these migrants, through one-on-one in-depth interviews. It is anticipated that the study’s findings will inform on how the Chinese, Indian and Eastern European migrants acculturate and deal with issues in their acculturation process and, from a workplace perspective, providing a source of knowledge, learning and understanding. The study will compare and contrast these migrants’ acculturation experiences, particularly how migrants handle workplace interpersonal dynamics. It is advanced that Chinese, Indian and Eastern European migrants contribute a richness of cultures, skills, expertise, knowledge and experience to the New Zealand hospitality and tourism workplace. Hospitality and tourism organisations which embrace cultural diversity and have an effective diversity management policy will be able to harness these strengths from their workforce, turning them into the organisation’s competitive advantage within an industry which is highly competitive.
BY 2015 YOU WILL RECEIVE A WORLD CLASS EXPERIENCE, BUT WHAT IS A WORLD CLASS EXPERIENCE?

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Even though luxury accommodation is self classified by both the supplier and consumer in New Zealand, the demand for this type of accommodation has increased over the last ten years from both the domestic and international sectors. Consumers are demanding more from all hospitality providers as they have shifted from simply consuming products and services to expecting an entire experience. This shift is reflected in the New Zealand Tourism strategy of 2015. The aim by 2015 is to be able to produce a world class quality visitor experience within the uniqueness of manaakaitanga. Although many studies have been conducted on the subject of luxury hotels, these studies have usually taken a uni-dimensional perspective on the topic – tending to focus on either supply (management) or demand-side (consumer) perspectives, while other key actors in the provision of luxury experiences (such as staff) have tended to be ignored. This paper will look at the luxury hotel experience in New Zealand from all three perspectives – consumers, staff and management.

Keywords: Strategy, experience, luxury, New Zealand, hotels
DEFINING A HOSPITALITY ICON: THE WHITE LADY

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper recognises a kiwi icon; the White Lady. For actors, the White Lady exemplifies New Zealand’s kiwiana heritage, culinary and cultural history values. Maximising Ancona, Goodman, Lawrence and Tushman’s (2001, p. 645) “temporal lens” and Eggermont’s (2001, p. 132) concept of a “site of struggle” this paper posits a framework within which actors have attributed iconic status to this culinary and social institution within a framework of streetscape change. This research identifies seven domains actors use to confer iconic status to the White Lady. This paper provides hospitality based researchers a classification framework of iconic attributes that are transferable to other hospitality businesses. For the White Lady, iconic status reflects the embrace of holistic concepts within hospitality and the provision of a social barometer and social service, clearly evident throughout actor perceptions and business longevity. Actors have used their association with the White Lady to advantage; they negotiate and form meaning within New Zealand’s ongoing social change because of the White Lady’s consistency and transcendence. This has reinforced enhanced meaning associated to the White Lady and contributed to perceptions reinforcing iconic status.

REFERENCES


PERSONALITY OR SKILL? THE DIFFERING EXPECTATIONS OF HOSPITALITY MANAGERS AND STUDENTS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper examines hospitality managers and students assumptions about the preferred attributes of hospitality employees. Using a quantitative approach, 74 hospitality managers and 137 students were surveyed, revealing a significant divergence in views. Students believed knowledge and skills were important for new employees and to get promoted, they would need to become good communicators. Industry however, was far more interested in the personalities of new employees and prioritised initiative over specific skills. The concern is that while educators are helping to develop graduates with specific skills, industry may not value these, being more interested in the kinds of people they are. Their expectations and assumptions are significantly different and the gap is a cause for concern for educators and industry to address.

Keywords: Hospitality education, students, New Zealand, hospitality management
WHERE WE HAVE COME FROM: STORIES THAT REFLECT CAREER JOURNEYS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper argues for a more innovative and contemporary approach to hospitality career research. Traditionally hospitality research has tended to be positivist in nature and empirically based. In recent years there has been a call for more qualitative methods to be utilised that go beyond superficial generic interpretation (Lynch, 2005). Hospitality research has continued to evolve, and Lugosi, Lynch and Morrison (2009, p. 1465) remark that there is evidence of “a broadening scope” and “conceptual complexity” in hospitality management research. However, there is a great need to employ further critical interpretative frameworks that are “subjective and reflexive” (Morrison & O’Gorman, 2008, p. 217). This paper urges the adoption of an intersectionality approach to hospitality career studies and highlights the advantages of two mixed methods in particular; auto-ethnography and memory-work. The term intersectionality is used to describe the mutually constitutive relations among social identities (Shields, 2008) and allows various dimensions such as age, ethnicity or gender to be studied without privileging any one in particular. Memory work is a form of group storytelling and auto ethnography represents the writing down and critical analysis of one’s personal experiences. As auto-ethnography can bridge the gap between theory and experience in much the same way as memory-work (Holman Jones, 2005), both prove rewarding research methods when used in tandem with one another. In this paper the significance of employing these methods is outlined and it is illustrated how valuable they may be in exploring the labyrinths of hospitality career journeys.

Keywords: Intersectionality, auto-ethnography, memory-work, hospitality career

REFERENCES


WORK AND IDENTITY: A STUDY OF HOTEL GENERAL MANAGERS IN HONG KONG

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The study focuses on the world of work and the ways in which identity is shaped by an individual’s occupational role. The work-identity relationship is a fundamental part of an individual’s self-image, as the answer to the question “who am I?” invariably includes reference to a particular occupation or working environment. It is often the case that we view people through a screen of occupational categories, not just in terms of practicing a particular vocation, but as if they were ‘physically infused’ with the quality of being, for example, a postman or a plumber. The research investigates the ways in which this ‘physical infusion’ of identity manifests itself among hotel general managers and in so doing explores the less visible aspects of work and identity; the unwritten rules, norms, values, attitudes and beliefs that serve to connect (or disconnect) individuals to particular occupational groups. The research consists of empirical data collection through in-depth interviews with hotel general managers. Four themes are explored; career routes to becoming a GM, what it is like to be a GM, what it is like to work in this profession in Hong Kong and the culture of the GM profession. This group of managers were selected because their status, and visibility their experience and the level of commitment required to operate at this level means they are particularly informative cases capable of producing significant insights into the culture of the profession and the work-identity relationship. To date, six interviews have been undertaken.
Theme: Food and Beverage

A longitudinal analysis of restaurant locations in the city of Hamilton, New Zealand: An application of three classic retail theories.
(Full paper).
Girish Prayag, SKEMA Business School, France, Martin Landré, NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences, Netherlands and Chris Ryan, University of Waikato, NZ.

An evaluation of the effectiveness of Auckland restaurant websites.
(Working paper - abstract).
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Menu analysis today and what the future might hold.
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Organic dining - just another trend?
(Presentation summary).
Jill Poulston and Albert Yiu, AUT University, NZ.
A LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF RESTAURANT LOCATIONS IN THE
CITY OF HAMILTON, NEW ZEALAND: AN APPLICATION OF THREE
CLASSIC RETAIL THEORIES

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A LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF RESTAURANT LOCATIONS IN THE CITY OF HAMILTON, NEW ZEALAND: AN APPLICATION OF THREE CLASSIC RETAIL THEORIES

ABSTRACT

Existing location studies relate mostly to retailing firms such as grocery and department stores. Over the years, many theories have emerged to explain location decisions but central place, spatial interaction and principle of minimum differentiation are the most popular. Despite location remaining one of the most important and long-term strategic decisions for a restaurant today, relatively fewer studies have been devoted to their locational patterns. Also, the application of these retail theories for understanding restaurant locations remains limited. Using Hamilton city as a case study, the main objective of this study is to assess the pattern of restaurant locations over a period of 12 years. A database of restaurants was compiled using the yellow pages and contained 981 entries of location addresses. Using GIS techniques such as geocoding, mapping and clustering, it was possible to identify two clustering periods for restaurants in the city. The findings indicated locational patterns of agglomeration of restaurants within a short-walking distance of the CBD in line with central place theory. The findings also revealed patterns that could be explained by the principle of minimum differentiation theory. Some methodological limitations and future research directions are also discussed.

Keywords: location theories, restaurant, spatial patterns, GIS, Hamilton

INTRODUCTION

Hamilton city is the fourth largest city in New Zealand. With a population of approximately 166,100 (3.2% of the total NZ population) and a significant proportion of youths—around half of residents are under 30 years old, it is one of the fastest growing cities in NZ (Hamilton City Council, 2008). While the country is undergoing an ageing of the population, Hamilton is forecasted to have the lowest median age by 2026 (35.3 years compared to 41.4 nationally). NZ Europeans make up three quarters of the population and Maoris 19% of the local population. The city is home to more than 80 different ethnic groups. It is also home to one of the richest agricultural and pastoral areas of the world and locally milk powders are referred to as ‘white gold’ such has been the revenues from the dairy industry. As of 2008, 11,000 businesses were located in the city. Retail sales in Hamilton for the year ending June 2007 were up 9.6% on the previous year. Total retail sales for the year stood at $2.5 billion (Hamilton Economic Update, 2008).

The city has a record of growth for over a decade, and withstood the 2008-2010 recession well. A number of factors account for this apart from the strength of the dairy industry, and include a growing tourism industry that has elicited significant investment that in turn sustains the growth. Among developments within the last five years, new, good quality hotel accommodation has been built and is managed by the Accor group through the Novotel and Ibis brands. The Australasian casino chain, SkyCity, has developed a casino while major refurbishment of the Grand Hotel was undertaken by the Rydges Group. A promotional policy based on major events has been pursued by the City and includes a round of the World Rally Championship (to 2010),
the Australian V8 Super Saloon Car series, and the Southern Hemisphere’s largest agri-business show, Fieldays. The city is served for international flights from Australia and the South Pacific through Hamilton International Airport, which is a growing centre for a freight business. The hotel and casino developments are among those that have introduced new restaurants to the city. The city also benefits in terms of the provision of bars, clubs and restaurants by being a significant educational centre with two university campuses, a polytechnic and Crown Research Institutes present along with a number of private sector educational providers. In short a number of factors exist that have helped sustain the restaurant industry. The question remains, however, have the number of restaurants increased and have there been changes in spatial distribution, and what factors might account for any observable patterns of change or stability?

In the retailing literature, many studies exist on retail location selection criteria (Cheng et al., 2005; Durvasula et al., 1992; Mahajan et al., 1985; Wood & Tasker, 2008) but few (e.g. Smith, 1985; Tzeng et al., 2002; Yang & Lee, 1997) have investigated these in the context of restaurant location specifically. Some of the larger hotel, resort and restaurant franchises have also sophisticated models of location but these remain proprietary (Smith, 1995). Also, longitudinal examinations of the evolution of patterns of retailing businesses in a geographical area remain non-existent, despite the growing use of GIS techniques in other fields to understand for example, customer shopping patterns and visitor travel patterns (Chancellor & Cole, 2008; Chen, 2007; Feng & Morrison, 2002). Therefore, with these knowledge gaps in mind, the main objective of this study is to assess the pattern of change or stability of restaurant locations in Hamilton city over a 12-year period. By doing so, the paper contributes to the growing literature on restaurant location and the use of GIS techniques to understand evolutionary patterns. Next, the paper reviews the pertinent literature.

CENTRAL PLACE THEORY

Several seminal theories have been advanced relating to the nature and significance of retail locations. Of these, central place, spatial interaction and the principle of minimum differentiation theories remain the most utilized (Litz & Rajaguru, 2008). Central place theory suggests that retail location is determined by the ‘range’ and ‘minimum amount of demand’. The range is defined as the maximum distance consumers are willing to travel to obtain a good and this determines the outer limit for the retail store’s market area. The minimum amount of demand refers to the lowest acceptable level of demand that must exist in an area for a store to be economically viable (Craig et al., 1984). In spatial terms, these suggest that a store will be located in an area containing the population that can support the restaurant within an acceptable travelling distance for consumers (Christaller, 1966). The application of this theory can be seen in the fast-food industry, where franchise stores select sites that ensure close proximity to the customer base so that sales are maximised (Austin et al., 2005). Despite the simplicity of this explanation, the main criticisms of the theory are related to its inability to account for differences in retail location pattern on the basis of product offering, store image, and competition levels (Craig et al., 1984; Ritz & Rajaguru, 2008). Also, this theory fails to account for agglomeration effects, which refer to the clustering of retail stores in particular areas of a town or near a shopping centre that increases the attractiveness of the area for consumers (Teller & Reutterer, 2008).
SPATIAL INTERACTION THEORY

As a consequence of the weaknesses of central place theory, spatial interaction theory was developed by Reilly (1931) based on Newtonian law of gravitation and is more commonly known as the ‘law of retail gravitation’. The explanation offered by this theory assumes the possibility of customers making trade-offs between store specific product and service related differences in relation to the location’s attractiveness (Litz & Rajaguru, 2008). Therefore, it considers not only distance but also attractiveness of alternative shopping opportunities. It implies that customers are willing to travel further if the product and service of one provider is superior or better than those of close-by competitors. Thus, what is transacted is more important than where the transaction occurs (Litz & Rajaguru, 2008). Implicitly, this theory underlies many principles of central place theory such as that of a store having a minimum level of attractiveness that must be achieved given the population of an area (Losch, 1954). Yet, its mathematical complexity and the fact that it can be more successfully applied in urban than rural retail settings have been the subject of much criticism (Babin et al., 1994). Also, as a locational tool, it fails to take into account numerous competitive and logistical forces which could greatly influence the success of a retail operation (Babin et al., 1994). Therefore, a third theory that remains popular for its explanation of retail location is the principle of minimum differentiation theory.

PRINCIPLE OF MINIMUM DIFFERENTIATION THEORY

This theory emphasises the concept of clustering effect, thereby suggesting that the degree of proximity to competitors in a geographic area is an indicator of attractiveness and competitiveness of an area (Chou et al., 2008). Hotelling (1929) asserted that not every transaction is dependent on access to the entire market. Instead what mattered was relative proximity in relation to other sources of the same product or service. In other words, proximity to rivals is more critical than proximity to customers (Litz & Rajaguru, 2008). An accompanying principle of this theory was developed by Nelson (1958), which suggests that “a given number of stores dealing in the same merchandise will do more business if they are located adjacent, or in proximity to each other than if they are widely scattered” (p.58). This concept is better known as the ‘principle of cumulative attraction’ (Litz & Rajaguru, 2008).

This principle of cumulative attraction is manifested through retail agglomerations or retail clusters and several explanations have been offered for their existence (Oppewal & Holyoake, 2004; Shaefer et al., 1996; Teller & Reutterer, 2008). First, retail stores cluster together to facilitate comparison shopping. Second, clustering increases the attractiveness of individual stores and the area as a whole. Third, the clustering effects allow economies of scale and synergistic effects. Fourth, retail agglomerations enable sharing of costs of facilities such as parking and promotional efforts. Fifth, such agglomerations allow for better representation of retailers’ shared interest with local government bodies (Craig et al., 1984; Oppewal & Holyoake, 2004; Smith, 1995; Teller & Reutterer, 2008). For consumers, this ‘bundling’ of retailers means wider choice in a restricted area, reduced search costs and uncertainty, and shorter trips to an area thereby delivering increased utilitarian and hedonic consumption values to customers (Oppewal & Holyoake, 2004; Teller & Reutterer, 2008).
For restaurateurs specifically, agglomerations build up ‘co-opetition’. On the one hand, they cooperate through sharing of the same infrastructure such as parking facilities, participation in site-related marketing concepts such as food festivals or simply the benefits derived from the stream of consumers attracted by the whole agglomeration (Teller & Reutterer, 2008) in terms of variety of cuisine and service levels. On the other hand, they compete with others for share of wallet and/or time dedicated by consumers to the agglomeration (Teller & Reutterer, 2008). Agglomerations can affect consumer behaviour in terms of site choice, buying and patronage intentions and retention proneness (Teller & Reutterer, 2008), thereby suggesting that new restaurants should open in areas where there are existing similar restaurants (Smith, 1985). For example, Simons (1992) found that the presence of other restaurants had a positive effect on sales of new outlets of the same franchise restaurant chain, which indicates that shoppers are drawn to a particular area rather than a specific store.

**SPATIAL PATTERNS OF LOCATION**

All the three classic theories of retailing share at least one common characteristic, they emanate from “positivist premises, which presuppose, essentially, that there is an identifiable order in the material world, that people are rational, utility-maximizing decision makers and that economic activity takes place in a freely competitive, equilibrium-seeking context or settings” (Brown, 1993, p.186). Therefore, each perspective offers a different and complementary perspective on the nature of locational advantage. For example, central place theory emphasises the relative density of a store’s trading area while spatial interaction theory posits performance related differences emanating from the specific competitor’s product and service offering. To the contrary, the principle of minimum differentiation suggests that proximity to rivals enhances performance (Litz & Rajaguru, 2008). Thus, within the restaurant location selection process, these three perspectives offer broad explanations to existing patterns of retail location. For example, agglomeration effects would explain why full service restaurants prefer to locate near hotels, motels, entertainment complexes and convention centres (Schaefer et al., 1996).

In general, the literature suggests two spatial patterns of retail location. The neighbourhood wave pattern is characterised by subsequent outlets being located at ever-increasing distances from the initial outlet. A hierarchical pattern involves locating outlets successively in towns of decreasing population size. The two patterns can coexist (Craig et al., 1984). Smith (1985) in his analysis of location patterns of urban restaurants in eight cities in Ontario, Canada found tendencies for agglomeration and deglomeration for restaurants of the same category as well as of different categories. Wall et al. (1985) in their study of point patterns of accommodation in Toronto found that large hotels were concentrated in the downtown area and the airport environ. Similarly, an analysis of restaurant locations in one geographical area would allow concentration areas to be identified while areas without a cluster of restaurants might indicate a market opportunity for restaurateurs. The visualization capabilities offered by GIS today can enable patterns of restaurant location to be efficiently displayed for a variety of past, current and potential future situations. Thus, enabling researchers to determine trends and consider prospective scenarios (Chancellor & Cole, 2008).

**METHOD**
GIS remains a useful tool in the retailing and tourism fields to understand retail decisions, customer demographic data and visitor travel patterns (Austin et al., 2005; Chancellor & Cole, 2008; Chen, 2007; Feng & Morrison, 2002; Hernandez, 2007; Tayman & Pol, 1995). Simple map overlay features can allow for example, the relationship between retail store locations and population growth to be explored (Benoit & Clarke, 1997). The strength of GIS with respect to the availability of time-series data is that it enables the visualization of change that can occur in a trading area over-time (Hernandez, 2007). Consequently, this is the approach adopted to achieve the main objective of the study. GIS is used mainly for visualization purposes and for the identification of patterns in the data set. The basic graphical units of display are points, lines, polygons and raster data that allow for example, trade area mapping (Chancellor & Cole, 2008). For restaurants specifically, GIS applications offer opportunities to understand development on land use (Chen, 2007). GIS mapping can provide visual snapshots of clusters of restaurant locations at national, regional, market or micro-level.

The Data

The data for this study were obtained from the New Zealand yellow pages for the Waikato Region, as this was considered the most reliable source. Kranade and Lombard (2005) used a similar source of data for their study on location strategies of broad-line retailers. One of the authors manually screened all the yellow pages available for a period of 12 years (1996-2008) and recorded in tabular form the restaurant name and address. These addresses were cross checked with the New Zealand Restaurant Guide (eatout.co.nz) to ensure correctness of the entries. This was not possible for all the years given that the guide is published only from 2004 onwards. The data set contained 981 entries for the 12-year period.

Data Analysis

While Feng and Morrison (2002) and Kranade and Lombard (2005) used zip code for geocoding purposes, in this study the actual addresses were used. All 981 observations were geocoded using ESRI’s ArcGIS. Geocoding is a function of ArcView that translates street address information into map coordinates on a street map theme (Karande & Lombard, 2005). Given that a recent city map of Hamilton was used, it was possible to attain a 100% match rate after geocoding address information. Also, the availability of street addresses allowed the determination of the latitude-longitude coordinates of the restaurants using GPS Visualizer’s Address Locator. This software converts multiple addresses in a batch geocoding process. The coordinates in a text file were then imported in an Excel worksheet, which was saved in dbf format for use in ArcGIS. A set of point feature maps for each year could subsequently be created, where every point is linked to a record in an attribute table. One restaurant had to be removed from the list as its remote location would have created too much distortion in the analysis. To analyse the distribution of restaurants for pattern identification, two techniques were used: average nearest neighbour distance and multi-distance spatial cluster analysis.

FINDINGS

In terms of absolute growth, the number of restaurants grew by 48.3% over the 12 year period. Table 1 shows the yearly distribution of restaurants. It can be seen that from 1996 to 2001, the
number of restaurants in the city was fairly constant. The largest relative growth occurred between 2001 and 2002 that could be explained by the opening of the Tainui Novotel and the SkyCity Casino in the city. Thereafter, the number of restaurants remained fairly constant with a notable decrease in 2007.

Table 1: Yearly distribution of restaurants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of restaurants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>66</td>
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<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned earlier, the first technique used for pattern identification was the nearest neighbour distance.

**Nearest Neighbour Distance**

This technique calculates the distance between a feature and its nearest feature. After creating a hypothetical random pattern, it calculates the ratio of the observed average distance between nearest neighbours and the expected average nearest neighbour distance using the R statistic:

\[
R = \frac{r_{\text{obs}}}{r_{\text{exp}}} \quad (1.1)
\]

where \(r_{\text{obs}}\) = observed average distance, and 
\(r_{\text{exp}}\) = expected average distance

In this way, the degree of clustering is measured (Wong & Lee 2005, p.239). Table 2 shows that for each year the observed pattern is more clustered than the random pattern. By calculating Z scores, the difference between the observed average and expected average is compared with the standard error. This difference was significant for each year.

Table 2: Average nearest neighbour distance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Z Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>-5.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>-5.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An R scale ranges from R = 0 (completely clustered) to R = 1 (random) and to R = 2.149 (uniform dispersed) (Kariel, 1970), with various distinctions relating to the degrees of dispersal, linearity, uniformity, randomness and clustering as described by Ryan (1991). In Table 2, a lower value of R therefore indicates more clustering. A minor increase in clustering could be detected for the six years after 1998 up to 2000. Thereafter, clustering suddenly decreased. However, after 2005 clustering started to increase again, to even a higher level than in 2004, only to fall back in 2008. A shortcoming of the nearest neighbor distance technique is that it does not account for local variations in clustering. This can be overcome by using multi-distance spatial clustering analysis, also known as Ripley’s K statistic.

**Multi-Distance Spatial Clustering**

Multi-distance spatial clustering analysis measures the magnitude of clustering over different spatial scales. For a point pattern, the distance from a feature to a number of nearest features is calculated for a set of distance bands. The K function then determines which distances produce the most clustering.

The number of points within a specific distance band h is calculated as follows:

\[
n(h) = \sum_i \sum_{j \neq i} I_h d_{ij}, \quad I_{h} = 1 \text{ if } d_{ij} < h, \quad I_{h} = 0 \text{ otherwise} \tag{1.2}
\]

where I and j are indices of points, 
\(d_{ij}\) = distance between points I and j, and 
\(I_h\) = indicator function, where 
\(I_h = 1\) if \(d_{ij} < h\) 
\(I_h = 0\) otherwise 

(Wong & Lee, 2005, p.255)

\(n(h)\) is then used with the overall point density of the study area to calculate K. ArcGIS uses a variation of the K function, often referred to as L(d):

\[
L(d) = \sqrt{A} \sum_i \sum_{j \neq i} I_h d_{ij} / \pi n(n - 1), \quad I_{h} = 1 \text{ (for } I = 1 \ldots n \text{ and } j = 1 \ldots n) \tag{1.3}
\]

where \(A = \text{area, and}\)
In Table 3, what is relevant is the difference, $K_{\text{diff}}$, between the observed $K$ ($K_{\text{obs}}$) and the expected $K$ ($K_{\text{exp}}$). Three distance bands were used to evaluate clustering effects (300m, 700m and 1100m) given that these indicate the extent of concentration of restaurants in a specific area from a specified point. An example, for $h = 2$ (300 m distance), the difference in 1996 was 1547, and for $h = 6$ (700 m distance) and $h = 10$ (1100 m distance) it was 2392 and 2736 respectively. The $K_{\text{diff}}$ indicates that some clustering had occurred. When the figures for the whole period are compared with each other, the changes in clustering found for the three selected distance bands do not differ much from the changes found with the average nearest neighbour distance. For $h = 2$, nearest to the point, clustering began to increase substantially after 1999, with relatively high levels of clustering in 2003 and 2004. However, a remarkable difference from the result obtained with the average nearest neighbour distance is that the even higher increase in clustering that started after 2005 did not materialize by 2008. When a comparison for $K_{\text{diff}}$ is made between the three selected distance bands, a clear similarity can be seen, which gives much more credit to the detected changes in clustering.

Table 3: Multi-distance spatial cluster analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>h=2 300m</th>
<th>h=6 700m</th>
<th>h=10 1100m</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$K_{\text{exp}}$</td>
<td>$K_{\text{obs}}$</td>
<td>$K_{\text{diff}}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>1747</td>
<td>1547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>1865</td>
<td>1665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>1851</td>
<td>1651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>1851</td>
<td>1651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2019</td>
<td>1819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2067</td>
<td>1867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2073</td>
<td>1873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2289</td>
<td>2089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2280</td>
<td>2080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2232</td>
<td>2032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2193</td>
<td>1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>1940</td>
<td>1740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1802</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For all of the selected distance bands, the correlation between number of establishments and clustering statistic is high: 0.80 for $h = 2$, 0.74 for $h = 6$ and 0.68 for $h = 10$. The relationship between number of restaurants and clustering is therefore substantially stronger than in the average nearest neighbour distance case. It can therefore be concluded that a growth in the number of restaurants is a major factor in the increase of clustering. This relationship is evident when the spatial pattern of restaurants for 1996 (low clustering with 60 establishments) is compared with that of 2003 (high clustering with 88 establishments) (see maps 1 and 2). Consequently in 2003 while there were more restaurants spread over the Hamilton urban area than in 1996, the majority were added to the existing concentrations in the central area, thereby increasing agglomeration effects. This was achieved against a background of increased housing development in the north of the city in an area known as Te Rapa, and the development of a
major retail park with some fast food outlets being built in the same zone. However, by 2008, as seen in Table 1, that area began to attract new restaurants in a zone between the retail and housing zones – a development that began to concern the City Council, which is ever mindful of the perceived need for a dynamic central business and leisure oriented centre (see map 3).

Map 1: Location of restaurants, 1996
Map 2: Location of restaurants, 2003
Map 3: Location of restaurants, 2008

IMPLICATIONS & CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study was to assess the pattern of restaurant locations in Hamilton city for a 12-year period. The results indicated distinct periods of clustering that have theoretical and managerial implications. Theoretically, the results supported all three theories of retail location described earlier. For example, central place theory suggests that retail locations would concentrate around areas where they would be a customer base and minimization of travelling distance. Thus, the relatively small size of Hamilton compared to other cities in New Zealand, leads to minimisation of the travelling distance between the CBD where most restaurants are located and customers’ place of residence. Possibly, the maps indicate a future emergence of a subsidiary node in the Te Rapa area due to residential development in that zone. As for spatial interaction theory, the number of restaurants within the CBD may help to make the area more attractive to customers, thereby supporting Litz and Rajaguru’s (2008) proposition that what is being transacted (as a group) is more important than where it is being transacted. Yet, the results tend to support more strongly the principle of minimum differentiation theory given the agglomeration or concentration effects that can be noted around the CBD. This may suggest that for mainstream restaurants in the city, locating near other similar restaurants is a key criterion influencing the location of new restaurants, and arguably is to some extent independent of the Council’s planning regimes. Overall, the results confirm the proposition that the three theories
are complementary in nature as opposed to being competitive (Brown, 1993; Litz & Rajaguru, 2008).

Also, the use of GIS mapping (Maps 1, 2, and 3) offers a simple and visual understanding of the location of restaurants in the city. The clustering effects that were identified reinforce the usefulness of the tool as suggested by others (Austin et al., 2005; Benoit & Clarke, 1997; Chancellor & Cole, 2008; Hernandez, 2007) and reaffirm the ability of the various techniques to analyse temporal data (Hernandez, 2007). The different GIS application techniques available also offer the opportunity to complement the weakness of one technique (nearest neighbour distance) with the strength of another technique (multi-distance spatial clustering), thereby providing greater validity of the results obtained and confirmation of patterns identified. Consistent with findings discussed in the literature (Chen, 2007), the results of this study show that it is possible to use GIS applications to understand restaurants’ land-use in a city. Given the concentration of restaurants within the CBD, would explain the higher land cost and retail costs experienced by new restaurants.

From a managerial perspective, a longitudinal study of this nature allows town planners and potential restaurateurs to identify new development areas and potential locations for new restaurants respectively. From Maps 1, 2 and 3, it can be observed that most restaurants concentrate within CBD while CBD periphery could be redeveloped to attract new restaurants. From one perspective, the concentration of restaurants within the central CBD provides evidence of a vibrant café/restaurant scene, especially in Victoria Street, which is supplemented by the night clubs and bars also found there. On the other hand the relative absence of restaurants, bars and cafes in the newer residential areas north of the city represents locations where such restaurants could be provided that would also reduce traffic congestion and parking problems in the CBD, and potentially reduce transport costs and associated carbon emissions. However, in 2010 the City Council was seeking to introduce what is known as Variant 21 to the zoning regulations that would inhibit many commercial developments in such areas to the north of the City in Te Rapa and north of Chartwell. Such initiatives reflect not only concerns by councillors about retaining the vibrancy of the city’s CBD, but also, arguably, the political influence of retailers in the city centre who are concerned about a loss of trade as shoppers switch to the peripheral shopping parks and malls where parking is cheaper (if not free) and easier, and in some instances closer to growing residential zones. As might be imagined, these proposals are controversial, and are being opposed, notably by local Maori iwi, the Tainui peoples, who have been major commercial developers on land to the north, and who are traditionally the tangata whenua – the indigenous people of the Waikato.

While the study has offered an insight into patterns of restaurant locations in the city, the findings are not without limitations. First, the nature of the data available did not allow for other information such as restaurant size, sales figures or type of ownership to be assessed. Future studies can look at incorporating such micro-level information so that the patterns identified can be explained by specific changes in demographic population or restaurant characteristics in the city. Second, the study does not account for those restaurants that do not advertise in the yellow pages, although it is thought that these are very few in number if they exist at all. Third, the GIS techniques employed have their own limitations yet the simplicity of the techniques have nonetheless provided insights into the existing patterns of location. Future studies can
incorporate geo-visualisation techniques which are extensions of the traditional GIS mapping. One advantage of the data set has been the development of a longitudinal study – and as discussed above, while clustering has tended to remain high in the central CBD, nonetheless the spatial patterns do reveal sensitivities to the changing population and land usage patterns of the city. What is of interest to Hamilton is how, especially in the period since 2000, increased industrial development to the north of the City and improving road access to Auckland, has generated residential, retail and leisure developments. Thus, the maps represent a tension between the predisposition to adhere to a city centre and a wish to move toward new nodes of residence, and may explain the demand on the part of the restaurant industry. As ever therefore, there remains a need to monitor such developments.

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AN EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AUCKLAND RESTAURANT WEBSITES

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ABSTRACT

Few sectors of the economy have felt the impact of the World Wide Web more than the hospitality and tourism industry. It enabled small independent businesses to compete on an (almost) equal footing with large multinationals which are household names. Much early development was by hospitality and tourism professionals with an interest in ICT. Gradually large organisations built up an understanding of the way in which to do business in the online environment. Researchers followed these developments with interest and some carried out primary research. Morrison is certainly one of the most prolific researchers covering developments in the hotel and tourism industry. One of the things he developed was a tool to assess the effectiveness of websites (Morrison, Taylor & Douglas, 2005) and this has been used in the assessment of hotel and travel websites. This pilot study adapts and updates this research tool for use in the evaluation of Auckland’s restaurant sector. By carrying out an audit of a sample of websites of Auckland’s restaurants registered with www.menus.co.nz, it identifies examples of best practice in customer communication and makes some recommendations for restaurants which have not yet embraced this way of building customer relationships and loyalty and co-creating a service experience. In the current challenging economic climate every opportunity to engage with our customers should be evaluated. Some recommendations and opportunities for further research and comparative studies are also offered.

REFERENCE

DINING WITH THE STARS: THE CONSTRUCTION OF SUBJECT POSITIONS IN RESTURANT REVIEWS

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ABSTRACT

This paper uses techniques based in discourse analysis to ‘un-pack’ constructions of common participants in a body of restaurant reviews. The study will examine how various subject positions (chefs, owners, managers, servers, customers, and reviewers) are constructed within such reviews and consider their relationships and potential effects. Cuisine Magazine is the premiere gourmet magazine in New Zealand and has been published bimonthly since January 1987, establishing itself as one of the dominant voices in New Zealand’s culinary culture. Cuisine is a successful magazine, its high readership and influential status makes it an ideal site of analysis from which to investigate the production of subject positions. The paper examines 100 restaurant reviews published online by Cuisine Magazine over a 4-year period from 2007 to 2010. We take a discursive approach to the study of texts. As Wetherell, Taylor & Yates (2001, p. 16) states, discourse ‘is constitutive of social life. Discourse builds objects, worlds, minds and social relations. It doesn’t just reflect them’. Thinking about discourse in this way we begin to consider how restaurant reviews actively construct objects and social relations. In defining a research site we follow Phillips and Hardy’s (2002) notion of ‘important texts’, those that are widely distributed, produced by the most influential actors and associated with changes in practice. The paper raises questions regarding the influence of class, power and self-interest on the construction of various review participants and voices concerns over the impacts of these constructs on the hospitality industry and society as a whole.

REFERENCES


MENU ANALYSIS TODAY AND WHAT THE FUTURE MIGHT HOLD

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This working paper provides a brief overview of the genesis and development of menu analysis and seeks a pathway for future research to create a comprehensive profitability analysis model for the restaurant industry. For over 30 years researchers have sought menu analysis models that optimise the menu’s offering. Many of the early menu analysis models are based on the matrix approach and are limited by including only food-cost and sales related data. To overcome this limitation, more quantitative data was added to previous models through the use of activity-based costing (ABC) systems. However, this approach still suffers from a common fault relating to the variable interdependency created by the intersection between vectors in the matrix. An alternative approach that replaces the matrix approach is the multi-factor menu analysis using data envelopment analysis (DEA) which integrates more accurately a range of input variables that affect menu item costs. All of these models focus mainly on product profitability and fail to account for how much it actually costs to serve customers. Customer profitability analysis (CPA) allocates both revenues and costs to specific customers and allows the business to determine the profitability of each individual customer or customer groups. Current restaurant profitability research seems to be focused on developing and refining models that either concentrate on Product Profitability or Customer Profitability. Future research should try to pull these two research streams together. The next logical step would be to apply Activity-Based Management (ABM) practices into creating a comprehensive, user-friendly profitability analysis model with the overall aim of matching the most profitable menu items with the most profitable customer segments. To achieve this objective, it is proposed that a research project is undertaken across a range of restaurants in Auckland. The study will be divided into two parts; a preliminary study and a subsequent model development and testing phase. The preliminary study aims to investigate two specific questions. Firstly, do restaurants in Auckland utilise any of the current menu analysis and customer profitability models to manage their business? Secondly, do these restaurants use ABC methodologies to allocate and trace overhead costs to both menu prices and customer segments? The second part of the research process will involve the development and testing of time driven ABC methodologies adopted from the manufacturing and service industry. A comprehensive model that incorporates both menu analysis and customer profitability analysis using time driven activity based costing will then be designed and tested in a local restaurant chain in Auckland.

Keywords: Menu analysis, matrix models, profitability analysis, activity-based costing.
ORGANIC DINING: JUST ANOTHER TREND?

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

Although organic dining is a popular trend globally, in New Zealand it is still a niche concept. This small exploratory study presents views from restaurateurs about the organic dining concept with the aim of identifying their primary motivations for entering this niche market. The study employs a qualitative approach, using data from five semi-structured interviews with Auckland restaurateurs who offer organic menus.

Discussions showed that whereas the most up-market restaurant prioritised profit over principles, others prioritised their green values. Poor government support, supply difficulties, price premiums and poor market demand were all identified as barriers to the growth of organic dining. The most interesting finding was that although most participants were motivated by their green values, these values are not a pre-requisite for entering the organic sector. Two distinct approaches to the concept of dining out organically were readily apparent: one approach was motivated by profit, and the other, by green values.

Keywords: Organic, restaurants, green values, food trends
Theme: Hospitality and Higher Education

An instrument to measure professionalism in students of hospitality studies.  
(Full paper).  
Nithya Tharmaseelan, North Shore International Academy, Auckland, NZ.

First year students' research supported simultaneously across three papers.  
(Full paper).  
Denise Schitko, Alice U-Mackey and Yvonne Wood, AUT University, NZ.

If you don’t know it, they can’t use it: Tools to help students use vocabulary.  
(Full paper).  
Lindsay Neill, AUT University, NZ.

An exploration study of students’ learning satisfaction towards internship.  
(Working paper- abstract).  
Nicole Liang, Ming-hsin University of Science and Technology, Taiwan.

Strengthening the Philippines' brand for hospitality and tourism education: An in-depth analysis of approaches and strategies for opportunities.  
(Working paper- abstract).  
Ignacio C. Cordova Jr, Our Lady of Fatima University, Philippines.

Culturally responsible curriculum development in hospitality, tourism and events management .  
(Working paper- abstract).  
Erwin Losekoot and Linda Wong, AUT University, NZ.

What has Shrek got to do with an international hospitality degree: Shrek, Donkey and the onion of hospitality.  
(Working paper- abstract).  
Tracy Harkison and Erwin Losekoot, AUT University, NZ.

What makes a successful hospitality graduate? Key stakeholder perspectives.  
(Working paper).  
Stephen Cox, AUT University, NZ.

Diversity in international hospitality internships and collaborative programs.  
(Presentation summary).  
Ellis Norman, William F. Harrah College, Las Vegas, USA.
AN INSTRUMENT TO MEASURE PROFESSIONALISM IN STUDENTS OF HOSPITALITY STUDIES

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AN INSTRUMENT TO MEASURE PROFESSIONALISM IN STUDENTS OF HOSPITALITY STUDIES

ABSTRACT

Professionalism is a key ideology that emphasises high standards in professional practice requiring simultaneous development of professional ability and attitude. This research aimed to develop and test an evaluation instrument to assess the professionalism of hospitality students—the outputs of which can inform curriculum development in a manner that would enhance their employability. The study first identifies the professional attributes expected by the hospitality industry, then develops an evaluation instrument to assess students’ professionalism, and finally evaluates the construct validity of the developed instrument. To develop the evaluation instrument, firstly, a literature review identified the theoretical basis for the evaluative items and located relevant items in existing instruments and secondly, a focus group discussion with hospitality professionals identified their perceptions of professionalism. A draft questionnaire consisting of 60 items was developed and pilot tested with a purposive sample of 20 hospitality students from an established hospitality training institution in Auckland. The derived data were analysed using SPSS; based on findings the instrument was reformatted and the number of items reduced to 50, each with a 5-point Likert Scale. The study was completed with a 100% response rate from 291 students of the same institution. To explore the construct validity of the generic abilities, data were analysed using principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation which resulted in nine factors: excellence, accountability, loyalty to the profession, service orientation, equality, professional attire, honesty, ethical behaviour, and punctuality. The final instrument, the Hospitality Professionalism Attributes Questionnaire, resulted in 43 relevant evaluative items.

Keywords: Professionalism, hospitality, curriculum development, evaluation instrument

INTRODUCTION

The global expansion of the hospitality industry has contributed substantially to the world’s wealth and provided people with opportunities that had not been available to previous generations. In the contemporary world, globalisation has brought diverse people together to make up a wealthy culture in perhaps every country; therefore, the hospitality industry needs to pay attention to the needs of diverse people. Most importantly, today’s clients want it all: personalised service, comfort and style, excitement, sophistication, reliability, and value with added professionalism and ethics. To meet these demands and the evolving needs of clients, hospitality students need to learn to become highly professional, customer-focused and be able to create memorable experiences for their customers. Hospitality schools and institutes have realised this importance and the teaching of professionalism in hospitality programmes is becoming increasingly common.

Professionalism is one of the most important ideologies that emphasises a high standard of practice in each profession. It can be identified as the behaviours, aims or traits that typify a profession or a professional person (Aramesh, Mohebbi, Jessri & Sanagou, 2009, p. 356). It is important that professional ability (which incorporates skills and competences) and a
professional attitude (which encompasses a positive and proactive approach) are developed simultaneously to become a real professional.

As the Hospitality Standard Institute of New Zealand (http://www.hsi.co.nz/about-hsi) states, hospitality is all about people. The success or failure of a hospitality business is dependent on the quality of its people. Although almost all educational institutions that offer hospitality programmes stress the importance of professionalism, very few studies have addressed this aspect. Course structures of various institutions often include professionalism and ethics as a core paper, but there is no evidence that these institutions assess the level of professionalism among their students or have a mechanism to ensure that a certain level of improvement or development is seen at the end of their course. This is identified as a gap in research in the context of hospitality education.

As a first step towards addressing the need for professional behaviour in hospitality programmes, it is important to understand the level of students’ professional behaviour and characteristics. As Doyle and Freeman (2000) suggest, it is important to have an understanding of the characteristics of the students on training programmes since their attitudes, beliefs and abilities will drastically impact the future direction of their profession. Such understanding facilitated by an assessment of students’ existing attitudes and perceptions towards professionalism is important for the successful design of an instructional plan that has the likelihood of improving professional behaviour (Blackall et al., 2007).

The question remains ‘how can we make sure that those graduates have the necessary attitudes and skills?’ Hands-on skills can be ascertained through conventional assessments such as examinations, assignments and practical tasks. Behavioural skills, however, are more difficult to evaluate. As suggested by previous researchers (e.g. van Mook et al., 2009a, p. 90) providing experiences and setting expectations for teaching and learning professionalism on their own is not enough. Professionalism needs to be assessed if it is to be viewed as positive and relevant.

To the researcher’s knowledge, no previous research on the professional behaviour of hospitality students has been published. However a review of literature indicated that the concepts of ‘professionalism’ and ‘professional behaviour’ have drawn more attention in the medical field than any other. There are a number of instruments available in the medical field to measure professionalism among students and the only need that associated researchers have emphasised (van Mook et al., 2009a ; 2009b) is to improve these instruments. But in the case of the hospitality no validated evaluation instrument can be found in the literature. The unique nature of the hospitality industry reveals the important fact that people carry diverse expectations and standards. Educational institutions need to prepare their students to meet this aspect of the industry. Therefore, an instrument to assess hospitality students’ professional behaviour at different levels is of utmost importance to ensure that the institutions prepare students well for their professional career. This study attempts to address this issue and fill the gap.

THE STUDY
The aim of this study was to develop and evaluate an instrument to assess the professional behaviour of hospitality students and in turn inform the usage of a curriculum that facilitates the employability of these students. To achieve this aim this study intends to:
1. identify and evaluate the personal attributes expected by the hospitality industry; and
2. develop and evaluate the construct validity of an evaluative instrument that can be used to assess students’ professional behaviour.

It is important that the development of an instrument has a definite purpose in its own right (van Mook et al., 2009a); therefore, this study focuses on a formative purpose which aimed to develop and mould students towards success. As Hegarty (2004, p.15) emphasised, the likelihood of any kind of professionalisation being achieved and having effect through curriculum development is a function of the subject development and the end result of this study would be the creation of scholars engaged in curriculum development, teaching, research and learning to develop a pool of hospitality professionals.

REVIEWED LITERATURE

EBSCO host was used as the main source of journal articles. Articles were extracted using the key words of ‘professionalism’, ‘professional behaviour’ and ‘hospitality’. Because there were no relevant studies directly related to hospitality professionalism, articles that contained some relevant materials on professional behaviour outside hospitality were selected and reviewed.

Professionalism is a complex composite of structural, attitudinal and behavioural attributes (Rutter & Duncan, 2010) that is difficult to define (Kennedy, 2007) and multifaceted with many often overlapping aspects (Swick, 2000). While the term ‘professionalism’ has a longer history of use in the medical and legal professions, in the business field there are numerous studies that lead to the conception of a business as an ethical enterprise, motivating and fostering ethical behaviour and the word ‘professional’ has come to mean someone in a business suit as well (Parkan, 2008). Professionalism implies that specialist knowledge, autonomy and responsibility are evident in an individual’s work (Kennedy, 2007). In general, it refers to attitudes representing levels of identification with and commitment to a particular profession (Wynd, 2003). Professionalism represented by attitudes and behaviours are simply not aspects which can be termed right (true) or wrong, like scientific facts (Parker, 2006). They are assessed within the contexts of community standards, professional codes and legislations. The literature (Chisholm, Cobb, Duke, McDuffie & Kennedy, 2006; Du Preez, Pickworth & vanRooyan, 2007; Ginsburg, Regehr & Mylopoulos, 2009; Jette & Portney, 2003; Swick, 2000; van Mook et al. 2009 & 2009a) has indicated that there are various elements or principles of professionalism and individuals need to possess the characteristics of those principles to be true professionals. These principles include altruism represented by serving the best interest of their clients over and above an individual’s own or above that of employers (Du Preez et al., 2007; Hegarty, 2004; Jette & Portney, 2003; Lynn, 1974), accountability (Chisholm et al., 2006; Jette & Portney, 2003), knowledge, excellence and commitment to professional advancement (O’Sullivan & Toohey, 2008; Swick, 2000), honour and integrity (Du Preez et al., 2007; O’Sullivan & Toohey, 2008) compassion or a caring attitude, professional duty and social responsibility (Johanson, 2005), respect for others (Swick, 2000), and, equity and enrichment (Blackall et al., 2007). In addition
to these, other researchers (Cardon & Okoro, 2009) have paid attention to workplace attire as a means of professional impression. According to Cardon and Okoro (2009, p. 355) employees who are well dressed are believed to form better impressions, so dress codes are created to generate the benefits of having a professionally appearing workforce. Some hospitality researchers (e.g. Jaszey, 2002; Vallen & Casado, 2000) have summarised these aspects under ethical principles for hospitality managers.

Previous studies (Chisholm et al., 2006; Jette & Portney, 2003) have paid attention to measuring professional behaviour in students especially in the medical field. Although educators have long recognised the need for identifying and promoting such professional behaviour, appropriate professional behaviour has been difficult to define (Jetty & Portney, 2003). However, the general traits are applicable to any profession. Chisholm et al. (2006, p. 1) developed an instrument to measure professionalism in pharmaceutical students and revealed that students act professionally when they display certain traits including accountability for actions, commitment to self-improvement of skills and knowledge, conscience and trustworthiness, conventional relationship with clients, creativity and innovation, ethically sound decision making, knowledge and skills of a profession, leadership, pride in the profession and service orientation. The dynamic nature and multiple interpretations of professionalism makes any analysis of it as a static, homogeneous concept somewhat difficult (Kennedy, 2007). However, it may be more appropriate to use a practical rather than a theoretical way of assessing professionalism as a fruitful approach to develop professional behaviour among students.

**METHOD**

The students from a renowned New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) accredited hospitality training establishment in Auckland, and which has won many training excellence awards, participated in this study. The institution is a modern facility and is at a well developed stage with approximately 700 students (average per year) of diverse culture. At the time of the study, the institution was in the process of instituting a new three-year, outcome based curriculum, and professionalism and ethics were included in the core curriculum of this new programme.

This study used both qualitative and quantitative methods. Researchers (Guo, Adams & Parker, 2008) argue that quantitative research is limited in what it can reveal about the feelings, actions and behaviours of the people being studied, while qualitative research methods enable researchers to use an exploratory descriptive methodology in addressing these aspects. However, having a standard instrument that can be applied in different contexts and with different people is important for continuous assessment of behaviours and such a need calls for the use of a quantitative instrument provided that it is a reliable and valid instrument. Considering the above needs and limitations, this study adopted a qualitative method using focus groups to identify the expectations of the hospitality industry and using the findings as the basis for developing the evaluation instrument for assessing the students’ professional behaviour.

Although some institutions have development teams to work on curriculum issues and content, and have their papers moderated externally by academic and industry experts, there is no clear evidence that the curriculum fulfils industry needs or that graduates would have the essential
level of professionalism to be able to perform well in their duties. On the other hand, it is often not clear what types of graduates employers expect higher education to produce (Maharasoa & Hay, 2001 cited in Coll & Zegwaard, 2006). Considering this notion, a focus group discussion was conducted with industry partners and hospitality academics to identify what professional behaviour means to the industry and what specific behaviours they expected from hospitality graduates.

The survey questionnaire was developed and administered between August 2009 and May 2010 in three phases: item generation (focus groups and thematic analysis of literature), pilot-testing and final survey.

**Item generation**
The development of the evaluation instrument began with a literature review which identified the theoretical basis for the questionnaire items and located items in existing instruments and was followed by a focus group discussion with hospitality professionals to find out what professionalism meant to them.

**Focus group**
The criterion used for participant inclusion in the focus group was that participants needed a working knowledge of hospitality and culinary arts (either hospitality teaching staff or a professional having long term work experience in a related industry).

The following four questions were put forward in the focus group discussion:

1. What are the behavioural characteristics you expect from a hospitality graduate if you were to recruit him/her?
2. What is your understanding of (or explanation for) ‘professional behaviour’ in the hospitality industry?
3. Can you list different aspects that you think reveal professionalism?
4. How does a student’s attitude affect your decision in offering him/her a job?

A brainstorming session was conducted and ideas were listed. All ideas emerged at this discussion were brought together and a screening process carried out to remove repeated ideas and other ideas that were either not clear or inappropriate. The resulting list of well defined ideas was used to develop the evaluation instrument along with other ideas identified in the literature.

An initial pool of 60 items representing the most common interpretations of professionalism found in the literature and those that emerged from the focus group discussions was generated. The questionnaire included a series of demographic questions at the end.

**Pilot study**
To assess the reproducibility of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted. A purposive sample of 20 students from the same institution was asked to complete the questionnaire. Pilot-test data were analysed using SPSS. The comments received during the pilot-test led to some reformatting and item reduction in the evaluation instrument. Seven items were reworded and five reverse
coded in the final instrument. The review also resulted in the deletion of 10 items leaving the final instrument with 50 items. Item analysis and reliability provided support for item reduction. The alpha coefficient for the entire 50-item scale was 0.95.

The final instrument was subdivided to two sections: key professionalism attributes and demographic data. Each item used a 5-point Likert Scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) format.

Study subjects and survey administration

Convenience sampling was used for this purpose. This method is a ‘set of procedures’ for conducting successful surveys that produce high response rates (Dillman, 2007, p.29) which is an easy and inexpensive sampling technique used in exploratory research. Since the major purpose of the instrument is its future usage within the institution, this method was the most appropriate in this case.

It was decided that the survey would include the entire body of student population in the study block between March and May 2010 since the total number of students was manageable. Five trained teaching staff helped in conducting the survey and all graduates visiting the institution during the same period were also requested to fill out a questionnaire. A total of 291 respondents (263 current students (91%), and 28 graduates (9%)) completed the final survey questionnaire anonymously. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each of the 50 items. All participants were informed of their anonymity and the voluntary nature of participation.

Analysis

Using SPSS, descriptive statistics were calculated and all data were evaluated to determine whether each item had sufficient variance to warrant proceeding with further analysis.

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA), one of the most commonly used exploratory data reduction procedures in social sciences (Osborne & Costello, 2004), with varimax rotation was used to identify the set of common underlying dimensions in the statements provided. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine if there were differences between the responses of current students and past graduates, as well as between the students at different stages of their study.

RESULTS

291 respondents took part in the survey with a 100% response rate. The respondents were primarily international students or were previously international students who had since graduated (85.9%), with a nearly equal distribution between males and females (52:48). The domestic students comprised 14.1% of the total sample. The majority of respondents was in the age range of 17-25 (57.4%) followed by those aged 26-35 (27.5%). Most were single (67.4%). Table 1 provides a summary of participant demographics.
Table 1: Participants’ demographics

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<th>n (%)</th>
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<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>151 (51.9)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>140 (48.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enrolment status</td>
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<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>250 (85.9)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>41 (14.1)</td>
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<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>17 – 25</td>
<td>167 (57.4)</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>7.91</td>
<td>.46</td>
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<td>26 – 35</td>
<td>80 (27.5)</td>
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<td>36 – 45</td>
<td>37 (13.0)</td>
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<td>46 – 55</td>
<td>8 (2.4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>56 and above</td>
<td>1 (.3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
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<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>196 (67.4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>82 (28.2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>8 (2.7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Divorced/separated/widowed</td>
<td>5 (1.7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student/graduate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>263 (90.4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>28 (9.6)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Source of course fee</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Parents/family aid</td>
<td>178 (61.2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personal savings</td>
<td>83 (28.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employment during the course</td>
<td>1 (.3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student loan</td>
<td>25 (8.6)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4 (1.4)</td>
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To explore the construct validity of the generic abilities, data were analysed using a principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation. Factor analysis can be utilised to examine the underlying patterns or relationships for a large number of variables and to determine whether or not the information can be condensed or summarised as a smaller set of factors or components (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Kaiser-Meyer – Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.95, p<.0001) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (Chi-square 8063.182) indicated that these data could be factor analysed. This analysis resulted in nine factors with Eigen values greater than 1, accounting for 60.8% of the cumulative variance. The results showed that 44 of the 50 items in the list loaded highly with commonalities of .550 or higher. Factor loadings of ±.50 or greater are considered significant (Hair et al., 1998), thus the larger the absolute size of the factor loading, the more important the loading in interpreting the factor matrix. Factor loadings represent the correlation of that item with the factor. The items’ loadings for extracted components along with Cronbach’s alpha associated with each factor are shown in Table 2.
Table 2: Factor loadings

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>F 1</th>
<th>F 2</th>
<th>F 3</th>
<th>F 4</th>
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<th>F 6</th>
<th>F 7</th>
<th>F 8</th>
<th>F 9</th>
<th>Com.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Enjoy learning</td>
<td>.633</td>
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<td>.610</td>
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<td>Lifelong learning is important</td>
<td>.656</td>
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<td>.553</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enjoy presenting ideas</td>
<td>.563</td>
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<td>.614</td>
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<td>Important to have knowledge of the profession</td>
<td>.535</td>
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<td>.561</td>
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<td>Look for learning opportunities</td>
<td>.773</td>
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<td>.621</td>
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<td>Make sure of capability to do things</td>
<td>.778</td>
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<td>.659</td>
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<td>Taking responsibility for actions</td>
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<td>.628</td>
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<td>Able to make own decisions</td>
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<td>.714</td>
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<td>.580</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accomplish all important things</td>
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<td>.731</td>
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<td>Readily accept consequences for actions</td>
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<td>.708</td>
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<td>Fulfil all commitments</td>
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<td>.588</td>
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<td>Accomplish tasks independently</td>
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<td>.611</td>
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<td>.460</td>
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<td>Not afraid of criticisms</td>
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<td>.587</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy to take a job outside hospitality/culinary arts</td>
<td></td>
<td>.608</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrol in more courses if the employer increases salary</td>
<td></td>
<td>.600</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other professions are more important</td>
<td></td>
<td>.533</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality/culinary arts should be classified as a profession</td>
<td></td>
<td>.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of hospitality/culinary arts is not understood</td>
<td></td>
<td>.541</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love hospitality/culinary arts profession</td>
<td></td>
<td>.687</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not take up any other jobs even if they paid more</td>
<td></td>
<td>.625</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look for opportunity to volunteer in the service of others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.577</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give the best service to others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.600</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make sure environment is safe for others when doing tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.668</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take opportunities to serve others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.756</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should respect everyone no matter who they are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.598</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All people should receive equal service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.643</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give equal service irrespective of nationalities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respecting everyone is very important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.700</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should dress in professional attire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.595</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms are important in the hospitality profession</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.650</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers are happy to see uniformed professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.568</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used to get respect in uniforms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.644</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally honest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.618</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.590</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always genuine in work and tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.652</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Believe in obeying regulations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.696</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should think about what is right before acting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.693</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used to acknowledge sources in assignments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.753</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining confidentiality is important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow rules and regulations all the time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.812</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact appropriate person to inform lateness soon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.746</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important to offer timely service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.746</td>
<td></td>
<td>.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to class/work on time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.633</td>
<td>.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attend class/work daily unless something is beyond control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cronbach’s alpha</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cronbach’s alpha</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cronbach’s alpha</strong></td>
<td>.826</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td>.814</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>.772</td>
<td>.764</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The isolated factors were later named excellence (learning and knowledge of the profession), accountability, loyalty to the profession, service orientation, equality, professional attire, honesty, ethical behaviour, and punctuality.

Factor 1: Excellence
This first and predominant factor comprised six items and accounted for 37% of the variance. This factor comprised items that represented attitude towards learning, the importance given to learning and knowledge relevant to the profession, and the extent to which individuals made an effort to acquire the necessary knowledge.

Factor 2: Accountability
This factor comprised seven items and accounted for approximately 5% of the total variance. This factor comprised items that represented attitudes towards taking responsibility for actions, ability to make decisions concerning actions, ability to accomplish important things, willingness to accept consequences for actions, ability to fulfil all commitments, ability to accomplish tasks independently and no apprehension to give or receive criticism.

Factor 3: Loyalty to the profession
This factor comprised seven items that accounted for approximately 4% of the variance and represented attitudes towards the hospitality and the culinary arts profession. In addition to attitudes towards the profession, it also tried to identify whether students were loyal to the hospitality profession if the choice of the course were an outcome of some other reasons. The items covered in this factor comprised students’ willingness to stay in the profession, aims for further training, and love of the profession etc.

Factor 4: Service orientation
This fourth factor accounted for 3.5% of the total variance and comprised four items – an individual’s willingness to look for opportunities to serve; take opportunities to serve other people, give the best service and look for the safety of others while doing work.

Factor 5: Respect for others
This factor accounted for 2.5% of the total variance and comprised four items that represented equal service to everyone irrespective of who they were or what their nationalities were and the importance of respecting others.

Factor 6: Professional attire
The sixth factor accounted for 2.4% of the total variance and comprised four items that represented the importance of wearing professional attire.

Factor 7: Honesty
This factor accounted for 2.3% of the total variance and comprised three items that represented honesty, trustworthiness and genuineness at work.

Factor 8: Ethical Behaviour
The eighth factor comprised five items representing behaviour towards rules and regulations, thinking before acting in deciding what is right, maintaining confidentiality, believing
regulations and acknowledging intellectual resources and which accounted for 2.1% of the total variance.

**Factor 9: Punctuality**
The last factor accounted for 2.0% of the total variance and comprised of four items representing timely service, being on time to work or class, informing absence to the person concerned and regular attendance.

Although many of these factors were in agreement with previous factors identified in the literature, loyalty to the profession and punctuality emerged as new dimensions from the study. The final instrument resulted in 44 items and was named the *Hospitality Professionalism Attributes Questionnaire* (HPAQ). Table 3 shows the mean scores and standard deviation for each of the factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellence</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty to the profession</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service orientation</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equality</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional attire</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical behaviour</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuality</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Lowest to highest achievable score is 5 to 15 for honesty, 5 to 20 for service orientation, respect for others, professional attire and punctuality, 5-25 for ethical behaviour, 5-30 for excellence and 5-35 for accountability and loyalty to the profession.*

**Analysing differences**
In order to analyse the differences (if any) between different types of research participants, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted.

The level of qualification and the status of the participants (student or graduate) as nominal variables and the unequal sample sizes of number of students in different years and the number of students vs. graduates (guaranteeing independent samples) suggested the Kruskal-Wallis test was an appropriate choice for analysing variances on related variables. Table 4 presents the chi-square values with respective significance values.
Table 4: Kruskal-Wallis Test statistics for respondents’ study level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Excellence</th>
<th>Accountability</th>
<th>Loyalty to the profession</th>
<th>Service orientation</th>
<th>Equality</th>
<th>Professional attire</th>
<th>Honesty</th>
<th>Ethical behaviour</th>
<th>Punctuality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>7.462</td>
<td>11.14</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>2.982</td>
<td>5.152</td>
<td>4.974</td>
<td>3.293</td>
<td>1.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig.</td>
<td>&lt;0.006</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.941</td>
<td>&lt;0.037</td>
<td>&lt;0.084</td>
<td>&lt;0.026</td>
<td>&lt;0.070</td>
<td>&lt;0.226</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Chi-square statistics were not significant \((p > .05)\) in four of nine cases. Excellence, accountability, service orientation, professional attire and honesty proved to be significantly different for first year students and second year students. The improvement is visible during their study.

Table 5: Kruskal-Wallis Test statistics for respondent’s status (students vs. graduates)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Excellence</th>
<th>Accountability</th>
<th>Loyalty to the profession</th>
<th>Service orientation</th>
<th>Equality</th>
<th>Professional attire</th>
<th>Honesty</th>
<th>Ethical behaviour</th>
<th>Punctuality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>2.764</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>2.709</td>
<td>4.591</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td>2.390</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig.</td>
<td>&lt;0.036</td>
<td>&lt;0.022</td>
<td>&lt;0.052</td>
<td>&lt;0.038</td>
<td>&lt;0.032</td>
<td>&lt;0.429</td>
<td>&lt;0.122</td>
<td>&lt;0.368</td>
<td>&lt;0.033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This analysis also revealed a definite difference in excellence, accountability, service orientation, equality and punctuality between current students and graduates.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The topic of professionalism has been widely discussed in medical and related disciplines. However the topic has not gained the attention of researchers in relation to hospitality. Nevertheless, developing the professional behaviour of hospitality students and improving the image of the hospitality profession has been an important consideration for hospitality educators and the hospitality industry. Incorporating professionalism in related curricula is a contemporary phenomenon in hospitality and tourism courses although there are no tools available to assess the outcomes. This study identified nine underlying dimensions of professionalism within the context of hospitality and took a pioneering effort in developing an evaluation instrument to measure professionalism in this industry. The study has some similar dimensions to earlier
studies in professionalism in different contexts. The dominant factor, which explained 37 percent of the variation in professionalism, was excellence (the knowledge and learning of the profession). This is similar to the findings of almost all previous studies. This is followed by the factors accountability, loyalty to the profession, service orientation, equality, professional attire, honesty, ethical behaviour and punctuality. Importance given to these factors varied in earlier studies, although most of the factors identified were similar. However, none of the earlier studies found punctuality to be an important factor as did this study. This may highlight an aspect that is comparably more important for the hospitality industry.

The hospitality industry with its unique global nature requires a high standard of professionalism to be displayed in all aspects of its business. The preparation of professionals needs considerable effort and needs to be guided by industry requirements. It is the responsibility of tertiary institutions to move into practice based programmes to ensure behavioural changes occur as a result of professionalism education. The analysis in this study revealed that there are differences in attributes of professionalism between students at various levels and between current students and graduates. This is an important outcome that meets the stated objective of this study. To ensure that education improves professionalism, educational institutions develop curriculum that can raise the level of professionalism in their students.

This study represents the first of many needed steps to develop an instrument that hospitality students can complete to measure their professionalism. However, this study has its limitations. The data were collected at one institution only, thereby restricting the generalisability of findings. Replication of the instrument is important for cross-validating current findings. A better balance of respondents of various backgrounds such as institution of study and course of study (degree, postgraduate etc.) would help increase the validity of findings. Further research could focus on hospitality students of other institutions in New Zealand and other countries.

This study employed a rigorous scale development procedure to establish an instrument that measures professionalism among students. Students critically evaluated and rated themselves to provide a score on each item which resulted in those items being included in one of nine dimensions of professionalism. Through understanding such dimensions specific to the hospitality industry, educators stand a better chance of training students to be professionals meeting industry demands.

Future research in the following areas is highly recommended:

1. From an educational quality assurance perspective, learner outcomes need to be linked with their employability. A follow-up research comparing students’ perceptions and the industry perceptions of professionalism and the ways to minimise the gap, if any, could result in appropriate curricula and teaching methods.

2. A cohort study involving the administration of this instrument at regular intervals with a group of students might help educators in assessing the possible need for changes in related curricula.

3. Professionalism is a key competency required by any profession be it hospitality, tourism, medicine or business. Applying this instrument to other related areas could result in a universally agreed instrument to measure professionalism in any discipline.
Assessment of professionalism will carry its real weight when it is incorporated into curricula with appropriate teaching methodologies (e.g., experiential learning methods). The researcher’s way is to facilitate the institute concerned to develop its own curriculum on professionalism for hospitality programmes. The instrument will provide guidelines for curriculum developers and teachers in their way in guiding their students.

REFERENCES


FIRST YEAR STUDENTS’ RESEARCH SUPPORTED CONCURRENTLY ACROSS THREE PAPERS

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FIRST YEAR STUDENTS’ RESEARCH SUPPORTED CONCURRENTLY ACROSS THREE PAPERS

ABSTRACT

This paper is a case study examining the various learning benefits that can be derived from collaboration among lecturers who deliver first year subjects to diploma level students. There is much research on teacher collaboration within a single subject but there seems to be a paucity of literature that focuses on co-ordination among lecturers of different subjects delivered concurrently. This paper describes and discusses the collaborative approach taken by three lecturers of different subjects. It also includes the lecturers’ reflections on their support and scaffolding of the students’ first attempt at tertiary level research, based on an assignment. The core content of this student research assignment is driven by the content in another paper on Accommodation Operations. This paper is supported by an Academic Literacies in Hospitality paper for language, writing and communication style, and an I.T. (i.e. Information Technology) for Hospitality paper in which formatting and information searching skills are introduced. By offering this inclusive approach to the student researchers, the lecturers are able to guide them towards best practices for active and collaborative learning, which benefits the students by providing a practical application framework for a research project. Many of these students progress to higher learning and this integration of papers at an early stage provides them with the confidence and basic skills to engage in further research. Moreover, the particular area of research undertaken for the assignment forges links with the hospitality industry, both for lecturers and students. For students, this can possibly lead to employment, which is often needed to support their studies. The paper concludes with recommendations for effective collaboration across different subjects.

Keywords: industry links, collaborative teaching, higher research, hospitality, students

INTRODUCTION

This paper is a case study of how first year students’ research was concurrently supported across three papers. It discusses how first year students’ learning can be built on, with collaboration among three different papers. The students in this case study are currently studying on the Diploma in Hospitality Management (DHM) programme at AUT University. The DHM programme was structured so students undertake four papers per semester, known as a ‘band’ within the school. The structure of the DHM papers in the band is presented in Figure 1. Four papers are taught in a ‘band’, so the students are all enrolled in the same papers. The Payne and Schitko (2006) text and workbook was developed to be used across the four papers. Three of the lecturers in this particular band decided to work more closely together in an effort to enhance the students’ learning experience. The model they developed has been used by the same lecturers for three consecutive years, and during that time changes have been made to improve delivery of the material and to ensure the papers cross over and complement one another without duplication of topics.
Figure 1: Structure of the Diploma in Hospitality Management programme

Objectives

In 2005, it was recognised that many first year students needed support for their academic writing skills and English proficiency. To address this, an Academic Literacies paper was introduced, and during the development of this paper, other lecturers provided input into the content to reflect the cohesiveness of the student learning experience across the papers in the semester. The lecturers decided to bring together the content strength across the different papers, to eliminate repetition of material and reduce the need to teach areas that they were not expert in.

The skills development was spread across the papers to build on the students’ learning experience and the lecturers ensured that the necessary content and skills were delivered prior to the students’ group research assignment deadline. For example, the I.T. paper delivered instruction on how to format the work for the assignment, while the Academic Literacies paper helped students develop their referencing and academic writing skills, essential for the group research assignment in the Accommodation Operations paper. Students were given feedback to enable them to build their skills across their concurrent papers. The three lecturers also formed part of the marking panel for the group presentations and helped with marking the other assessments across papers during the semester.

Furthermore, because students are encouraged to go onto higher learning, they needed to be equipped with some knowledge of the research skills that would be required. As the DHM programme does not have a research module, all lecturers needed to instruct the students as to how to undertake the research and gather the research data, for their group research assignment. The students’ group research assignment was on ‘accommodation providers and guests with different disabilities’. According to Schitko (2009, p. 8) ‘Many of the student participants … may well go on to become employers in the future so their attitudes will be influential in the acceptance or otherwise of disabled guests’. As Accommodation Operations is the only paper that addressed disability issues within the DHM, it was also considered important that students understand the relevance of this sector to the hospitality industry.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This case study looks at student learning across multiple papers and how the lecturers worked as a collaborative team, as ‘by working together, team teachers can discuss issues relating to students, such as behavioural expectations, students motivation and teaching policies and end up with improved solutions’ (Goetz, 2000, p. 9).

Although there have been many articles written about team teaching a single subject (e.g. Robinson & Schaible, 1995), less research has been undertaken around teaching across several
subjects and this has been suggested as a possible area of research (Coleman, 2008). Coleman 
(2008, p. 1) further states that ‘there are many behaviours that are too complex to learn in just 
one attempt’. Schaible and Robinson (1995) suggested that there are benefits in having teachers 
work collaboratively to model useful behaviours and skills to the students. The three lecturers 
therefore chose to model collaborative leadership as a form of group work, research experience 
and academic endeavour of the type that was also expected of the students during the semester.

An important shift in the way that teaching is delivered at tertiary level is seen in the focus on the 
overall student learning experience rather than in the individual paper content (Panizzon, Pegg, 
& Mulquiny, 1999). The idea that fits with the team work philosophy of teaching is also found 
in the collaborative leadership literature. ‘Collaborative leadership’ is the term that captures the 
essence of working together and the image of building something together. Other leadership 
terms that are often used interchangeably in the literature are ‘distributed’, ‘shared’, ‘democratic’ 
and ‘participative leadership’, and the common theme that these terms all share is the move away 
from the traditional style of top-down leadership (James, Mann, & Creasy, 2007; Harris, 2008).

Three main features of collaborative leadership suggested by Woods, Bennett, Harvey and Wise 
(2004) are:

- The pooling of initiatives and expertise which leads to outputs which are greater than the 
  sum of the individual contributions
- An openness of boundaries in leadership
- A dispersal of skills across individuals which changes according to the context, where 
  expertise is then shifted through a mutually trusting environment to develop these to an 
  adapted and improved level.

These ideas are not new and may have always been a part of what leaders do. Nevertheless, 
collaboration is currently enjoying a resurgence, which is reflected in both the literature and 
research (Gronn, 2008).

Prior to collaboration, the three lecturers in this study used the traditional top-down leadership 
style and were the individual leaders on their separate papers. This style of leadership is 
sometimes described as individual or hero leadership (James et al, 2007; Gronn, 2008). The 
literature shows the shifting away from the individual hero as a current trend; it ‘is an idea whose 
time has come’ (Gronn, 2008, p. 142). However, it must also be recognised that lecturers operate 
at different levels and that leaders may exhibit several and even competing leadership behaviours 
depending on the current situation and context (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995).

Goetz (2000, P.7) suggests that for team teaching to be effective, lecturers must ‘understand the 
philosophy behind team teaching, the rationale of how it will fit within the rest of the department 
programme’. This can also lead to benefits for the lecturers when teaching their individual paper 
content. The ability to build on knowledge from other papers demonstrates unity within the 
papers and reinforces student learning and comprehension.
Especially in relation to working with students who are required to engage in group work, the modelling of collaborative teaching is an important behaviour to copy (Schaible & Robinson, 1995). Codd (2006) suggests three ideas supporting collaboration in education:

- Education is more effective when there is cooperative collective action (rather than isolated individual effort).
- Trust in colleagues is required.
- Professional judgement is central to the decision making process that can have profound effects on others lives.

Although the literature is yet to support the positive impact of collaborative leadership styles as an improvement to teaching and learning (Robinson, 2008), some researchers assert that the idea of collaboration and its benefits are being extolled ahead of any formalised evidence (Lakomski, 2008; Storey, 2004). The lecturers in this study therefore hoped to contribute to this practice as they felt that this style of collaborative leadership had benefitted their practice.

**STUDENT RESEARCH SUPPORT**

In their Australian study, McInnis, James and Hartley (2000) found that many first year students were not well-prepared for tertiary studies and were uncertain about what was expected of them at university. Likewise, Katavite and Hoogland (2006, p. 226) found that the academic constraints to academic achievement of Pacific Island students included ‘language barriers, limited study and communication skills, lack of academic support and unfamiliar educational pedagogies. Although students’ self-efficacy beliefs may also influence academic outcomes, self-efficacy alone may not be influential for academic performance (Cassidy & Eachus, 2000; Zeegers, 2004) and is not necessarily a direct predictor of academic achievement (Zeegers, 2004). Entwistle and Smith (2002) state that students’ approaches to learning depends much on their expectation, intentions, motivations and perceptions of the demands of tasks.

The three lecturers acknowledged the students’ needs to be aware of the demands of tertiary studies as well as of the requirements of the papers they are enrolled in. It was evident to the lecturers that working together across the band was a strength for preparing the students in their first attempt at conducting research. This case study highlights how they undertook the role to support these students in their first research assignments. The students’ group research assignment in Accommodation Operations had many components that could be exploited and therefore, that assignment was chosen as the focus of this study. The group research assignment details are shown in Figure 2:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP ASSIGNMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Written Report: Overview:</strong> Guests with special needs will require different or extended services from those usually available and if the property is unable to meet these requirements, reservations should not be accepted. For this assignment, you must:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Research three accommodation providers for disabled guests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Evaluate the facilities offered by those accommodation providers for their disabled guests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Design an ideal room for your particular category of guest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Procedure:**

**Part One:**

• Decide what special facilities would be required by your particular category of guest. This may involve contacting the society concerned and arranging an interview with a public relations spokesperson. Remember there is a department at AUT which assists students with special needs. All people interviewed must complete consent forms that are included in the appendix section of the report.  
• Inspect three accommodation providers and assess whether or not their facilities meet the needs of these guests, not only in the public areas but pay particular attention to the room setups.  
• Check whether the hotel advertises and accepts bookings for these guests.  
• Evaluate how well the emergency facilities would cater for these guests.

**Part Two:**

• Design a hotel room set-up specifically for your guest with explanations of your suggestions.  
• Make recommendations regarding appropriate emergency procedures.

This report will be formally presented orally to a panel of industry representatives during Week 11.

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Figure 2: Group research assignment requirements (AUT DHM Accommodation Operations Paper Handbook).
Table 1 summarises the contributions from the three papers: I.T. for Hospitality, Academic Literacies in Hospitality, and Accommodation Operations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IT for Hospitality</th>
<th>Academic Literacies in Hospitality</th>
<th>Accommodation Operations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Formatting Word documents to a professional standard, APA formatting, numbering, references layout</td>
<td>• Developing academic language and writing skills</td>
<td>• Working in groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Use of graphics, tables SmartArt and floor plans</td>
<td>• Working in groups</td>
<td>• Minute taking (in meetings)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Formatting work to ‘fit the page’ (eg interview questions)</td>
<td>• Writing meeting minutes</td>
<td>• Report writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Templates for Minutes</td>
<td>• Writing sections of report</td>
<td>• Research techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• PowerPoint as a presentation tool</td>
<td>• Developing research skills</td>
<td>• Interviewing skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The internet as a search tool</td>
<td>• Using APA referencing style</td>
<td>• Industry liaison</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Assessment due Week 7 | Assessment due Week 9 | Assessment due Week 11

Table 1: Student research support across three papers

**RESEARCH APPROACH**

*I.T. for Hospitality*

The content in the I.T. paper could be structured around any content from the other papers, so using the students’ first research assignment provided a relevant focus for this case study, which tied in with both the weekly teaching from other papers and the students’ personal contribution to their group research assignment. Although choosing to focus on a major assignment from another paper created more work for the lecturer on this paper, the benefits of working as a wider teaching team made it worth the effort. Also, the lecturers found it became more rewarding to use examples that were relevant to the students’ group research assignment. This enabled lecturers to draw on past strengths (from working within in the industry) and to subtly reinforce connections within the hospitality industry, through examples of specific hotels’ letterheads and other documentation. From an academic researcher perspective, it enabled the lecturers to talk with students about their own research endeavours, how to prepare for interviews and site visits, and the documentation formatting required in lecturers’ own academic endeavours.
The use of Microsoft Word (particularly the formatting) was structured to reinforce the APA conventions required, including formatting of reference lists, page numbers and how to create an automatic table of contents. In the past, an understanding of these concepts often occurred after an individual assignment was due for the students, but now the lecturers ensured students had the necessary skills prior to being assessed on them. To make the assignments more than ‘words on a page’, some time was spent focusing on page layout, the introduction of graphics, and creative ways in which the work could be displayed. The introduction of templates provided examples of meeting minutes, and the expectation was that the template could be used in other papers. These templates were adapted from hotels’ examples of corporate stationery. The students were encouraged to create their own letterhead that could be used for a job application covering letter. This led to internet searching, from where students found out information about hotels (including their letterhead logo) prior to approaching a hotel for an interview.

Different ways of using PowerPoint were demonstrated in the lectures and tutorials, and the lecturers discussed what different approaches aimed to achieve. There was also a notable focus on learning to use PowerPoint whenever lecturers declared their roles in marking and being on the panel for the students’ group research assignment presentation for Accommodation Operations (see assessment timings in Table 1).

**Academic Literacies in Hospitality**

The content in the Academic Literacies paper, like I.T., was structured around the content and assignments of the Accommodation Operations paper. This provided a focus for the Academic Literacies paper that was relevant to both the weekly teaching from all papers and the students’ personal contributions to their group research assignment.

This paper provided input and discussions followed by practice tasks planned to develop research, academic writing skills and oral presentation skills required for the students’ group research assignment in the Accommodation Operations paper. Such skills include using appropriate linguistic features and academic writing style; understanding and analysing assignment tasks/questions; working in multi-cultural groups; understanding roles and responsibilities as group members; arranging meetings; writing meeting minutes and writing contents of each section of a report appropriately. More importantly, students were scaffolded into the research process of data gathering; writing up findings; using APA referencing style for in-text references; writing lists of references, and as editing and proof-reading their assignments.

The research and writing skills were taught in conjunction with the oral presentation skills which were also complemented by the skills taught by the I.T. lecturer. All the skills assessed in this paper were assessed prior to the group research assignment in the Accommodation Operations paper (see assessment timings in Table 1). This allowed students to use the feedback from the Academic Literacies paper assignment to improve their assignment for the Accommodation Operations paper.

**Accommodation Operations**

The group research assignment in this paper required students to research facilities for disabled guests in three accommodation operations. The students drew from a pool for membership of the group – this was done to split up the class rather than have students working with friends. The
group then had to make alliances with new class members and decide what each member’s strengths and weaknesses were. The groups were given a particular disability to focus on. Once the disability had been researched students then visited three accommodation providers to assess their facilities for disabled guests. Finally, a report was handed in and a presentation made to a panel of industry personnel and the other lecturers of the band papers. This was a culmination of the assessments from the supporting papers as shown in Table 1.

During this assignment the Accommodation Operations lecturer was required to monitor the groups to ensure the project was on track. Each time the group had a meeting the minutes were recorded using the minute format from the I.T. paper and forwarded to each group member and the lecturer. This note-taking showed the lecturer what was happening in the group and who was attending meetings.

The report writing followed the style and format taught in the Academic Literacies paper. The lecturer helped students with research techniques which included reviewing questions they had written; selecting properties where interviews would be conducted, and learning how to write up the transcripts. Prior to the research students had practised interview skills in class and were given guidance on question writing. Several students were invited by the industry personnel they had interviewed to submit their CVs, as employment opportunities were available. This type of contact is most important for students who often need to supplement their student loan incomes.

Experts from industry and representatives from various disability societies together with lecturers formed the judging panel and the feedback given to students was done to assist them in the preparation of future presentations and research.

Results

The results indicated that support for students’ first research experience across several papers only works well if the lecturing team is willing and open to working in a collaborative manner, which was the foundation that the case study was built on. Although teaching across a range of papers has various advantages and disadvantages, the main benefits to lecturers, and students greatly outweighed the possible disadvantages. ‘Given that students are the recipients of university teaching… the benefits (of) teaching …. academic research (means) students are the most important group to consider’ (Neumann, 1994, p. 324).

The sharing of individual academic strengths and abilities from the three lecturers was the main benefit. From an I.T. perspective, the I.T. lecturer was able to share, assist, model and provide training on Blackboard, the online teaching platform used by the university. Similarly, the Academic Literacies paper ensured that the band lecturers used consistent language with regard to explanations, instructions and developing a research culture.

Whilst the literature is yet to strongly support collaborative leadership benefits through research, there is some emerging research that shows the benefit of collaborative leadership in regards to technology. Wong, Li, Choi and Lee (2008) found that integrating technology into the educational context has two primary drivers for the leadership style, and these drivers are a climate for collaboration and experimentation. When such circumstances exist it has been found that the pedagogical use of technology improves. Honey, Culp and Carrigg (2000) also found that keeping the use of Information Technology within the relevant setting supports the effective use of Information Technology within education generally. Hence supporting and developing the
use of Blackboard across the band made it much easier for the teaching team to grasp the basic concepts, since they were keeping it within their context and working collaboratively.

With regard to students, this meant that they were receiving a consistent learning product. Students could download course material from Blackboard for all band papers which were presented in a uniform format, prior to class sessions. This helped to eliminate repetition of material and allowed more time for lecturers to complement the other lecturers’ teaching material. To highlight the unity of the band, the lecturers demonstrated to the students their access to one another’s teaching materials on Blackboard.

Even though choosing to focus on a major assignment from another paper created more work for the I.T. and Academic Literacies lecturers, the benefits of working as a wider teaching team made it worth the effort. It was useful to provide examples that were relevant to the students’ group research assignment and it also enabled the lecturers to discuss with the students their own research endeavours, how to write reports, prepare for interviews and site visits, format documents and give oral presentations to an academic audience.

The marking for the group research assignment was conducted by the band by ‘strip marking’. ‘Strip-marking’ is a term used by the lecturers to describe a process in which each lecturer marks a specific section (strip) of the assignment for all students, rather than marking the entire assessment items of each student. One of the benefits of strip-marking was that lecturers became extremely focused on the task, resulting in a quick turn-around of assessments. Strip marking also provided consistency, and internal moderation occurred automatically, which strengthened the cycle for assessing, writing, teaching and marking.

Marking together enabled the lecturers to ensure that they were consistent in their use of terminology and how students’ work was assessed. This provided a much deeper experience and many opportunities for personal growth as the lecturers needed to defend and discuss their expectations and justify the grades they had given. This also provided the benefit of focusing on marking and also saved time once it was realised that moderation could be built into the actual marking time. Another advantage of strip marking was that it highlighted areas of duplication, possible gaps and inconsistent course material and jargon, which reflected differences in styles of previous working environments. However, the main disadvantage of strip marking is the extra time needed for meetings that must be done on a regular basis. Another possible disadvantage could be the time commitment for strip marking during the teaching semester. To be effective a time needed to be identified that each member of the band could commit to.

Working as a band with regular meetings, when the attendance registers were compared, the three lecturers were able to identify any students who were not attending classes across all papers and detect students who were merely irregular in one paper. Students with learning problems (or different learning styles) could also be identified and supported more quickly as the student’s situation became obvious as soon as the first assessment had been marked. Some students tended to identify with one lecturer more than the other two, and once the students understood how the teaching occurred they were able to address any learning issues they might have with their preferred lecturer.

Another benefit from the group research assignment content itself was the ability of the lecturers to reinforce contacts and information from industry (through the students) as well as be kept
informed and updated on some of the industry changes that were taking place. The benefit of drawing on a panel to assess students’ final oral presentations, also enabled the lecturers to hear directly from industry, as they were providing feedback to the students. All this effectively helped bridge the gap between industry and students while giving the lecturers ‘a foot in either camp’. As a result, lecturers were able to interact well with the students through their personal academic scholarship and industry links. ‘The educated teacher is more than a mere facilitator of learning … he or she must be a person who embodies fundamental educational values in personal initiative, self-knowledge and professional autonomy’ (Codd, n.d., p. 15).

In addition to employment opportunities offered to students, this case study also offered lecturers the chance to develop more industry links. Representatives from several hotels were invited to attend the presentations, and several industry personnel requested copies of the student reports which were supplied. These industry contacts also provided employment opportunities for students during weekends and semester breaks.

‘Research on collaborative learning indicates that its benefits for students include higher achievement, greater retention, improved interpersonal skills, and an increase in regard for positive interdependence’ (Johnson et al., cited in Robinson & Schaible, 1995). Although results from this case study have yet to be confirmed in a quantitative study, some of the students’ feedback received during the semester suggested a heightened intention to move on to higher learning. A marked improvement in the performance of students who stair-cased from the DHM to the degree programme has been observed with regard to their research and presentation skills in the first year of the degree, compared to those students who had entered the degree directly from school.

LECTURERS’ REFLECTIONS AND CONCLUSION

By working together in a band with a collaborative approach, lecturers felt they were more accountable for their course material, which was automatically checked by peers. The band system of team teaching also resulted in a faster turn-around of assessments and assessment moderations than could be undertaken at the time of marking. Any queries about student answers could be immediately discussed with the lecturer responsible for the paper to ensure consistency of marking. The team meetings and strip marking sessions also provided a platform for development and constant improvement of the papers concerned. Constructive criticism from their colleagues aided the three lecturers to change methods of delivery and adapt styles of teaching to better suit individual student learning. It was felt that this ‘band’ model could be used across other semester papers once lecturers had ‘buy in’ of the concept.

This type of team teaching required a team commitment and the band meetings were yet another ‘appointment time’. Had the personal commitment not been given, this style of collaborative band teaching would not have worked. From time to time, other lecturers who delivered some papers within the band, did not work well within the band structure. This is consistent with the recommendation from Robinson and Schailbe (1995) who advise keeping the team of teachers to two. This suggests that the team of three lecturers working together, was already at the maximum that this style of team teaching can incorporate.

However, for this model to be successful, the group of papers in a band needs to be delivered to the same student cohort. A major limitation found with this type of collaborative teaching was
that there were always some students who were not taking all the papers within the band. This was sometimes because they had already received a credit for one of the papers or they were only taking three, not four papers in the particular semester. Furthermore, some students who had previously failed papers, were repeating the material, and had therefore already completed the other papers within the band. There were also some issues with timetabling conflicts.

It is recommended that lecturers build on the instructions and strengths of other lecturers as well as industry personnel, in order to make their teaching a cohesive learning package for their students, while still retaining an individual focus on the content of their papers. To successfully support first year students simultaneously across three papers, it is recommended that lecturers:

- work closely together with regard to the content;
- align assessment types and due dates of their papers;
- ensure standardised instructions are used to enable students to understand, analyse and complete the assignment tasks; and
- strip mark to ensure consistency.

Most importantly, it is recommended that lecturers model the behaviour expected from the students by working as a teaching team with a research emphasis.

In summary the lecturers felt this model of collaborative work benefitted the students by providing a cohesive integration of subjects that built on one another. Benefits experienced by the lecturers included full exposure to other subject material ensuring commonality of phrases and teaching practices. Strip marking was the most important aspect as this provided consistency in assessment and exam marks. Overall the lecturers believe this model could be replicated in other programmes providing the basis for future research.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

This paper presents the vocabulary levels of a sample of first year bachelor level students studying hospitality at a multicultural university in New Zealand. The paper comments on their vocabulary understanding when compared to the vocabularies used by chef Gordon Ramsay and academic Conrad Lashley. Two tools were used to measure vocabulary understanding: Nation and Gu’s Vocabulary Test, (2007) for the student group, and Tom Cobb’s Vocabprofile (n.d.) for the Lashley (2000) and Ramsay (1996; n.d.) texts. While vernacular and academic texts are aimed at a diverse readerships and registers, the expectations of universities are that students will subscribe to [the likes of] Lashley’s (2000) academic vocabulary rather than the vernacular language of Ramsay (1996; n.d.). This distinction is important because Snow (1997) reminds us that language is not only the "goal of education but also the means by which all other educational goals are achieved” (p. 292). Because first year students’ language exposure is biased toward the vernacular, they may be disadvantaged as they begin academic study. This paper provides educators with tools that can assist them to improve their students’ vocabulary, as well as help them select texts for lecture use, that are suited to student vocabulary understanding, and provide a platform to structure lecture content that reinforces new vocabulary. While the tools proposed in this paper will help to achieve this, they are proposed as a panacea, the reader needs to be aware that while vocabulary is pivotal to student success, learning itself is impacted upon by a multiplicity of other factors.

Keywords: Vocabulary, academic, vernacular, vocabprofile, improvement

INTRODUCTION

This paper is intended to assist academics in understanding the importance of vocabulary for students in lectures and tutorials, as well as identifying tools that will help them with lecture delivery. While academic demands and the time constraints of delivering a stimulating curriculum may create time management issues for staff, it is hoped that those aspiring success for their students will come to realise the value of these tools in their delivery and curriculum planning. The paper also proposes that some students’ experience vocabulary understanding difficulties at university. This is likely related to their experiences prior to university study which is grounded in vernacular language. Some students may, therefore, experience difficulty
understanding the ‘new language’ of academe. This is complicated by publishers targeting their products at specific market segments, with language used varying greatly. Most students, prior to beginning university life, have been exposed to publications based on a vernacular language usage and, as a consequence, this is reflected in their understanding of language.

VOCABULARY: AN OVERVIEW

Language can be seen as having two major aspects, social language and academic language (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 6).

This section provides an overview of opinion relating to the vocabulary levels learners need. Language and vocabulary are but one aspect of learning, and vocabulary development needs to be viewed within the wider context of academic writing. Within tertiary learning, student-enhancing vocabulary strategies are essential to the success of lifelong learning. However, learners do not begin study with equal vocabulary levels. Clearly, “the teacher needs to decide how much attention to give to vocabulary during the lesson” (Nation & Gu, 2007, p. 1). Schmitt (1997) suggests that teachers are well placed to provide such guidance, but that their experience may not be enough. Vocabulary issues compound this because “where English is studied through the curriculum, there is potentially a double learning load: learners have to learn the content matter of the subject and the language that conveys this content matter” (Nation & Gu, 2007, p. 12). Changing demographics and diversity of the student population at universities support this position, thus promoting Walters and Bozkurt’s (2009, p. 403) suggestion that vocabulary “is experiencing a resurgence of interest, [and that] effective vocabulary learning strategies are particularly interesting”. This is not surprising because “vocabulary is the best predictor of success at university” (Loewen & Ellis, 2001, n. p). This claim is underpinned by Laufer (1997) who posits that vocabulary is also a predictor of reading success.

Cobb (2000) suggests a correlation between vocabulary size and student English language understanding that reflects a clear difference between English first language speakers and English second language speakers. English second language students (including those with English language entry qualifications for university) may know fewer than 5,000 English words—approximately equivalent to the average English first language student new entrant at primary school level (Nation, 2001). However, vocabulary learning potential exists. Goulden, Nation and Read, (1990); D’Anna, Zechmeister and Hall, (1991) all suggest that vocabulary size increases by one thousand words per year until the age of twenty.

While the “acquisition and learning of oral and written language is likely to proceed at different rates,” (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 6), Nation and Gu (2007, p. 51) suggest that “where English is learned through curriculum, learners have the difficulty of coping with unfamiliar language items as well as challenging content matter”. They further suggest that vocabulary understanding can be promoted by engagement; “the more engaged we are in the learning task, the better we will be able to remember a word” (Nation & Gu, 2007, p. 84). Supporting this, Joe (1998) suggests that applied learning is ideal for students to understand contextual meaning and relevant word use.
Nation and Gu (2007) believe vocabulary acquisition is best achieved through lecturers providing limited readings that rely on word repetition. This reinforces vocabulary for learners while reducing learner stress. They also suggest that limiting the subject areas, thus increasing word repetitions and limiting content to increase student vocabulary understanding, makes subsequent word learning easier, thus encouraging students to apply vocabulary in new ways. Brown and Payne (1994, p. 372) outline five key steps for vocabulary understanding: “encountering new words; getting the word form; getting the word meaning; consolidating word form and meaning in memory.”

For students, vocabulary acquisition is further compounded by Schmitt’s (1997) ‘discovery and consolidation strategies’ and, Gu’s (2005) initial handling, consolidation and activation stages. While these strategies are vital, it is vocabulary understanding that will aid students most in gaining academic success. Nation and Gu (2007, p. 44) suggest that “quite a large vocabulary [of around 8000-9000 words] is needed to read newspapers, novels and academic texts” while “most listening activities require a smaller vocabulary [around 6000-7000 words]” Lewthwaite (2007) suggests that English second language students may achieve university entry with a vocabulary size of 3000-5000 words. Nation and Beglar (as cited in Kirkness, Roser, Pawson, Wise & Neill, 2009) note that English second language students cope with university study with 5000-6000 word families.

McCarthy (2007) suggests that 6000-10000 words are needed for ‘considerable comprehension’, while Goulden, Nation and Read (1990) suggest that English first language students need to have a vocabulary of around 17000 words to commence university study. Conversely, Nation (2001, p. 9) notes that this “is way beyond what most learners of English can realistically hope to achieve”. Nation (2006) notes that students need 8000-9000 words for 98% coverage of an academic text. Schmitt (2008, p. 330) notes that a “large vocabulary is necessary to function in English: 8000–9000 word families for reading, and perhaps as many as 5000–7000 families for oral communication. Additionally, learners need to know a number of word knowledge aspects about each lexical item that reflect the nuance of language, that “taken together, amount to a substantial lexical learning challenge, one which many/most learners fail to meet”. To aid learning vocabulary Nation (2001) classifies words by their frequency in a text. Nation (2001) proposes that frequently occurring words tend to be learned before words occurring less frequently (Nation, 2001).

Consequently, Nation and Gu (2007) list the first one thousand [most common] words and the second one thousand [most common] words [K1 and K2 words respectively]. Knowing these word [lists] can be helpful to learners because they can then focus on other less familiar words. The first two thousand words (K2 list) are most important because they cover 80% of words in most written texts. However, an English vocabulary of fewer than 10000 words would mean that the students “run a serious risk” (Hazenberg & Hulstijn, 1996, p. 158) of not reaching the reading comprehension level necessary for first year university studies. When combined, the first 1,000, the second 1,000 word lists and the Academic Word List (AWL) give students 90% coverage of an academic text. Coxhead’s (2000) AWL consists of 570-word families that occur frequently in an academic text but not in other texts. An AWL word family would be analyse and its derivatives; analysing, analysis, analyst, analytical. Knowing the AWL increases a learner’s understanding of an academic text by 8 to 10%. McCarthy, (2007) posits that even at 90%
understanding, the one word in ten that must be guessed at or inferred can be “highly de-
motivating” (p. 24). But for students to read with minimal disturbance, Hirsch and Nation (1992) and Nation (2006), recommend 98% coverage. Nation and Gu (2007, p. 22) compound this by suggesting “if there are too many of these [unknown words for the learner] that make up more than 5% of the words in the text, the text will be too difficult”. While an academic consensus of exact vocabulary levels has not been agreed, all authors concur that the lack of vocabulary for students is problematic.

METHODS

This paper notes the vocabulary understanding of a first year group of university students using the Nation and Gu (2007) Vocabulary Test. This test identifies the following domains: the first two, three, five and ten thousand most commonly used words (K2, K3, K5, K10, respectively; refer Table 1). These results were compared to three selected text readings (two vernacular texts; from Chef Gordon Ramsay’s cookbook and television show, and one academic language journal article from Conrad Lashley). These texts were analysed using Cobb’s (n.d) Vocabprofile. Cobb’s (n.d) classifications include the identification of the first and second thousand (K1 and K2) most commonly used words, an Academic Word List (AWL) and an Off Word List (OWL) (refer table 1). This paper suggests that Nation and Gu’s (2007) Vocabulary Test and Cobb’s (n.d.) Vocabprofile are important resources that lecturing staff can use to help themselves and their students negotiate the ‘culture shock’ in the transition from vernacular language to academic language. Two Ramsay (1996; n.d.) ‘texts’ were chosen because Gordon Ramsay, is a well known multi-media presenter. Two examples from Ramsay (1996, n.d.) balance his language delivery and lexical diversity. This study shows the disparity between first year student vocabulary understanding in academic and vernacular language using Cobb’s (n.d.) and Nation and Gu’s (2007) tools. This disparity may help explain why some students experience difficulty with understanding academic language.

Background: The Nation and Gu (2007) Vocabulary Test

Nation and Gu (2007) posit that students encounter four levels of vocabulary when learning: “high frequency vocabulary, academic vocabulary, low frequency vocabulary (and) technical vocabulary (p. 2). From these levels they suggest that high frequency words comprise 80-90% of a text and that academic words comprise 10% of academic texts with low frequency vocabulary and technical vocabulary comprising significantly yet, lesser amounts. The Nation and Gu (2007) vocabulary test examines words in the 2nd, 3rd, 5th and 10th (1000) vocabulary levels as well as an academic word list (AWL). The levels of tested vocabulary are based on word frequency. Nation and Gu (2007) use a sample of 60 words, from each level, for their test.

Background: Tom Cobb’s Vocabprofile (n.d.)

Developed by Tom Cobb, The Vocabprofile is an electronic tool available on the World Wide Web; www.lexutor.ca/vp/ . Site users upload text to the Vocabprofiler that is analysed within four classifications: the first one thousand most common English words (K1); the second thousand most common English words (K2), the academic word list (AWL), and an off word list (OWL) noting industry specific words. Text analysis notes the word family totals within these
classifications as well as their percentage of the total text. Knowing these data can assist lecturers in text choice, as well as identifying difficult words within the AWL and OWL groups that can be integrated into lecture delivery. While the merits of using the Vocabprofile within academic learning environments has been widely noted (Cobb & Horst, 2001; Morris, 2001; Meara & Fitzpatrick, 2000; Laufer & Nation, 1995; Meara, 1993; Meara, Lightbrown, & Halter, 1997), the Vocabprofiler also holds potential as a tool for student self assessment. This application will be briefly discussed in the findings section of this paper.

Blending: Nation and Gu (2007)/Tom Cobb (n.d.)

Nation and Gu’s (2007) vocabulary test and Cobb’s (n.d) vocabprofile tool are complementary applications. Their compatibility can facilitate better knowledge of vocabulary levels for students and the texts they use within their learning. While Cobb’s (n.d) vocabprofile tends to examine early vocabulary levels (K1 & K2) and the academic and off word lists, Nation and Gu (2007) enhance this by providing analogous data: notably K3, K5, and K10. Table 1 identifies the domains of vocabulary within each application:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary Level</th>
<th>Cobb’s Vocabprofile (n.d)</th>
<th>Nation and Gu (2007) Vocabulary Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWL</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWL</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Freq</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. The Vocabulary Domains of Cobb (n.d) and Nation and Gu (2007).

FINDINGS

The finding of this study reveal that when student vocabulary levels are compared to the text profiles a disparity is seen within the student group. These findings were obtained by using both Nation and Gu’s (2007) Vocabulary Test and Cobb’s (n.d) Vocabprofile.

Student Vocabulary

Table 2 notes the results of the 62 students who completed the Nation and Gu (2007) Vocabulary Test. The demographic profile of this group was typical of the university in which they studied: A mix of English first language speakers and English as second language speakers. The maximum score for this test is 144. Analysis of Nation and Gu’s (2007) Vocabulary Test is illustrated in Figure 1.
These results suggest that 26% (16 students) experienced vocabulary understanding difficulty, whereas 74% (46 students) did not. Of particular concern were students who had low K1 and K2 vocabulary scores. Many of those students showed progressively worse scores within subsequent categories, namely the 5000 word list, the AWL and the K10 word lists.
“Fuck me. Whose is this? And the first name? How long have you been cooking? Just explain to me what it is please. Underdone…. What does that mean? Underdone! Oh, so half baked foccacia bread, oh my god, right now I’d rather eat poodle shit than put this in my mouth. What we put on there…what is it?? Come on ladies, who brought this up? Taste the vinaigrette. What’s in there? Walnuts is with the scallops. Four minutes to the window, one spaghetti, one salad of St. Jacques four minutes. Two quail? Shut the fuck up. Would you mind not being so rude? There’s quail nowhere on that ticket. Just listen concentrate four minutes. To the window now. Would you like me to email it to your fucking blackberry?” (Ramsay, n.d.).
percent of presenting an excellent meal. No matter what the dish, if the essential foundation preparation is not carried out correctly than what follows is a waste of time. There is no time for corrections later. Many of my dishes are a combination of essential elements, or ‘Building Blocks’ as I prefer to call them. Obviously I have a number of staff whose sole responsibility it is to supply me with these elements but most of them can be prepared ahead by one person in a domestic kitchen then chilled or occasionally frozen ready for assembling at the point of finishing and serving.

Figure 5: Ramsay’s Text Profile Showing Distribution of Vocabulary Using Cobb’s (n.d) Vocabprofile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>K1</th>
<th>K2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AWL</td>
<td>72.44%</td>
<td>10.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWL</td>
<td>17.32%</td>
<td>K1 &amp; K2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Lashley’s (2000, p. 793) Text Profile Using Cobb’s (n.d) Vocabprofile

For advocates of empowerment (Barry, 1993; Foy, 1994; Nixon, 1994) there is little variation and variety in the meaning of the term. These writers, and others, rarely define what it means and identify the form it will take in practice. Examples of empowerment in service organizations show that initiatives which claim to be empowering cover autonomous work groups (Ashness
and Lashley, 1995), quality circles (Barbee and Bott, 1991), “whatever it takes training” (Hubrecht and Teare, 1993), team briefings (Hirst, 1992) suggestion schemes (Bowen and Lawler, 1992), and the removal of layers of management (Lashley, 1995). Where definitions are attempted, there are important differences in emphasis adopted by authors. Barbee and Bott (1991) define empowerment as, “the act of vesting responsibility in the people closest to the problem”. (Lashley, 2000, p. 793).

Figure 7: Lashley’s (2000, p. 793) Text Profile Using Cobb’s (n.d) Vocabprofile Showing Distribution of Vocabulary

A clear difference exists between Ramsay’s television text (n.d.), his book text (1996) and the text of Lashley (2000) and the difference is across all the vocabulary domains. Specifically, within the K1 and K2 domains of Ramsay’s (1996; n.d.) works contain the highest levels of K1 and K2 works [84% and 91% respectively, while Lashley’s (2000) contains 72% wording at K1/K2 level. This implies that the Ramsay texts (1996; n.d.) maybe easier to understand because of their higher use of low level vocabulary. Lashley (2000) has the highest level of academic words (10%), with Ramsay’s television text (n.d) having 0.76% and his book text (1996) 6%. This reflects the difference in Ramsay’s (1996; n.d.) spoken and written language, as well as the mediums used to convey them. This has implications for readers and listeners and suggests that again Ramsay’s (1996; n.d.) text work may be easier to read than Lashley’s (2000).

Compounding differentiation in readings is the percentage of words within the OWL. The OWL comprises industry specific words. Lashley (2000) holds 17%, and Ramsay (1996; n.d.) 15% and 3%. When combined with their respective academic word list percentages, the level of understanding compounds; Lashley (2000) now holds 28%, Ramsay’s (n.d) television text 16% and Ramsay’s book text, 9%.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>McCarthy (2007)</th>
<th>“Even at 90% understanding, the one word in ten that must be guessed at or inferred can be “highly de-motivating” (p. 24).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hirsch &amp; Nation, (1992; Nation, 2006)</td>
<td>For students to read with minimal disturbance recommend 98% coverage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation and Gu (2007)</td>
<td>“If there are too many of these (unknown words for the learner) that make up more than 5% of the words in the text, the text will be too difficult” (p.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Student vocabulary ranges indicate that 46 students (74.10%) may hold sufficient vocabulary understanding to read both the Lashley (2000) and Ramsay (n.d; 1996) texts. The Vocabulary Test (Nation & Gu, 2007) scores of these students was 90.27% coverage, within a range of 130-144 (of a possible 144 words). This range is congruent with McCarthy’s (2007) suggestion that while understandable, “even at 90% understanding, the one word in ten that must be guessed at or inferred can be “highly de-motivating” (p. 24). Clearly within this student group Nation and Gu’s (2006; 2007) suggestion that “98% coverage is necessary, and that a 5% vocabulary discrepancy will place the text in the too difficult” (p. 22) category has not been achieved. Consequently, even students with higher scores may benefit from vocabulary support given these findings. Other students, most notably those with Vocabulary Test (Nation & Gu, 2007) scores of between 30-129 (16 students; 26% of the sample), will experience more difficulty in vocabulary comprehension within all text samples. For this group repetition in vocabulary and learning support will be essential tools to assist their learning and consequent vocabulary knowledge and enhancement.

Because Cobb’s (n.d.) Vocabprofile and Nation and Gu’s (2007) tools select word groups, lecturing staff can identify vocabulary needing attention. Most likely this vocabulary will be within the OWL and the AWL (for the 74% of students) and within wider domains for remaining students. Lecturers need to identify words from all domains and through repetition of use reinforce and integrate their meaning into lecture delivery. Lecturers can also reinforce new words by offering students a limited number of readings that repeat unfamiliar words thus reinforcing meaning. These methods are time consuming but, by discussing vocabulary within lecture content, lecturers can stimulate an increased understanding for students in the importance of effective vocabulary knowledge.

Cobb’s (n.d.) Vocabprofile could also be promoted by lecturers as a tool that students could use as a vocabulary resource. Students could upload their assessment work to specifically check the levels of academic words (and general word groups) to ensure that their work coincides with Nation and Gu’s (2007) suggestion that academic writing contains approximately a 10% level of academic words. An added benefit of students using this tool would be their reflection upon their vocabulary usage, and the possibility that by using the Vocabprofile (Cobb, n.d.) they will be stimulated to be self motivated within their vocabulary progression.
CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to introduce a pairing of vocabulary tools that lecturing staff could use to aid student vocabulary progression. Specifically, these tools: Nation and Gu’s (2007) Vocabulary Test and Cobb’s (n.d.) Vocabprofile are complementary and can assist staff in identifying current levels of vocabulary understanding (Nation & Gu, 2007), and vocabulary levels within texts (Cobb, n.d.).

Consequently, this paper suggested that because a first year university students’ language is most likely grounded within the vernacular, the work of Ramsay (1996; n.d.) may be more understandable to them than might be the work of Lashley (2000). However, these tools offer the opportunity to identify and introduce more academic levels of language that aid student vocabulary understanding. However, this paper contains a shortfall, as it holds a narrow focus; vocabulary. As many lecturers and teaching staff know, the student/learning nexus is impacted by a multiplicity of factors and while important, vocabulary is but one of an array of learning variables students need to master. However, it is hoped that this paper can provide a starting point from which lecturing staff can begin to enhance existing teaching practice.

REFERENCES


AN EXPLORATION STUDY OF STUDENTS’ LEARNING SATISFACTION TOWARDS INTERNSHIP

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

This study addresses two overarching questions: What are the key factors contributing to students’ learning satisfaction and how do those factors influence students’ learning satisfaction, especially while they are undertaking the internships? Higher education programmes in hospitality and tourism have embraced both theoretical training and work experience (King, 1994). Most of the vocational education colleges in Taiwan require students to enroll in 18 hours of academic credit awarded through an internship program which consists of a minimum of 1,800 hours industry experience (Teng, 2006). Hospitality and tourism schools emphasize the value of professional training in the industry. However, it has been shown that many students who have exposure to tourism subjects, such as hospitality and tourism, or have experience in the industry often become less interested in selecting the sector as their first career choice (Jenkins, 2001; Teng, 2006). This may be a direct result of a shift in thinking hospitality and tourism is glamorous to the realization that it takes hard work and a genuine love of the industry to be successful. For example, Hsu (2002) found that many students reported a negative experience with placements and often received their first and last experience in the hospitality and tourism industry as a result of internship or similar programmes. Horng (2004) suggests that individuals cognitively process information received from activities and experiences, then determine their abilities in relation to the activities, expected success of performance in the activity, and anticipated satisfaction from engaging in the activity. This may help explain why students who perceived their internships as negative did not stay in the hospitality and tourism industry upon graduation.

Internship programs are intended to provide students with a positive experience related to the career path they have chosen to enter upon graduation. Internships typically involve full-time, paid, temporary employment in a structured setting where the student works in an area directly related to their chosen career path (Schambach & Dirks, 2002). An internship should also provide students with opportunities to build conceptual knowledge, management and communication skills, career development skills, application and work environment skills, and programme needs assessment skills (Foucar-Szocki & Bolsing, 1999). Through internships, students gain practical experience and should be able to make a career enhancing decision early in their higher education training (Roush, Dickson, & LeBruto, 1996). Grubb (1995) found that the internship experience was the single most important influence on career perceptions of Caribbean hospitality and tourism students. There are also benefits for students who participate in cooperative education programmes including personal, academic, work and career related outcomes (Dressler & Keeling, 2004). For instance, students in an experiential education program have the opportunity to learn about different jobs, industries and specific occupations. This helps students who may not be aware of what it is that they want to do after they graduate to start to explore some real options. Dressler and Keeling (2004, p. 217) described what many cooperative education practitioners have experienced: “Most practitioners can tell story after story of students who come to their program as hesitant and confused freshman or sophomores and leave as seniors with grace, confidence, and a bright
future ahead of them”. Most students have benefited from the increased partnership and relationships between their particular schools and employers because of the unique relationship created with students participating in cooperative education programs (Grubb, 1995). Tough (1979, p. 122) defines learning satisfaction as follows: ‘what students can award through a learning process, if students feel happy and have a positive attitude means satisfactory learning, if not, means negative influence or un-satisfaction.’ Teng (2006) indicates that learning satisfaction is an important indicator to education suppliers and further states that no matter what the students’ backgrounds or personalities, the design of curriculum has the most significant affect on student satisfaction toward learning.

Given these reasons, a strong argument can be made to undertake research on this particular topic. Within this context, the objectives of this study are: To develop and to test a conceptual model examining factors contributing to students’ learning satisfaction and its affect on future career planning. According to previous studies reviewed above, it is hypothesized that the following six factors are influential on students’ learning satisfaction: curriculum, teaching faculty, overall learning performance, learning environment and facilities, internship and career planning.

**REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE**

With the increase in economic impact and the increase in job opportunities within the hospitality and tourism industry, it is imperative that potential and current workers are prepared with the necessary competencies to be successful in related careers. In Taiwan, many young people choose to enter hospitality and tourism-related careers and, as a result, choose to enter a related degree programme. O’Mahony, McWilliams, and Whitelaw (2008) and Lai (2002) found that students decided to study at a particular university prior to choosing a hospitality and tourism-related programme, suggesting that these students had an aim to attend a higher education institution prior to making a decision about the course of study, or may have chosen hospitality or tourism as a second option. Students enrolled in hospitality and tourism programmes were found to have not been influenced by parents, teachers, or counselors and were, instead, more influenced by personal observations and experience, media reports on the growth in the industry, and family or friends who worked in the industry. Students also considered internship opportunities a major strength of their programme, as well as the reputation of instructors within programme.

Dodds and Muchnick (2008) found that the hospitality and tourism programme at Ryerson University in Ontario, Canada, was attractive for students. Eighty-one percent of students enrolled indicated that hospitality and tourism was their initial choice in their course of study. Additionally, students had a high perception of career opportunities within the tourism industry. Other factors such as the university’s reputation, faculty-student interaction, and practical application of course material were also important motivators (Kao, 2003).

Indeed, hospitality programmes have embraced the working experience and theoretical training (King, 1994). Students have fulfilled the required theoretical knowledge and work experience through internship classes in the school during their degree programmes. Most of the vocational education colleges in Taiwan require students to enroll in 18 hours of academic credit awarded through an internship programme which requires a minimum of 1,800 hours industry experience (Teng, 2006). These hospitality schools emphasized the value of professional training in hospitality higher education. Grubb (1995) found that the internship experience was the single most important influence on career perceptions of Caribbean hospitality and tourism students.
**METHOD**

This study employed a quantitative survey. The first step of the research was to design a survey instrument to collect data relating to the main constructs. The survey questionnaire consisted of six major sections - a total of 38 measurement items were used to examine the impact of the hospitality education towards students’ internship performance. The respondents, (the students) were asked to evaluate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements that describe each factor on a seven-point Likert scale from 1= Strongly Disagree to 7= Strongly Agree. This study randomly selected 12 hospitality and tourism schools in Northern Taiwan. The heads of the schools were emailed and the purpose of the study was explained. As a result, students who had completed a one-year, full time internship programme were selected to participate in the survey. A total of 422 undergraduate student responses out of 800 distributed questionnaires were received in a hotel management department in a Northern University in Taiwan - a 52% return rate for this survey. To ensure the accuracy of the data, all returned questionnaires were thoroughly examined. Data screening was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 17.0.

Data were analysed using a series of quantitative methods including Factor Analysis, and Linear Regression Analysis. The results show that the six major factors adopted from previous literature, including faculty, facilities, curriculum design, internship program, teaching, and learning environment, are importantly influences on students’ learning satisfaction.

**RESULTS**

This section presents the process of data analysis. Before analyzing the results, SPSS 17.0 was utilized to test the reliability and validity of the scales according to factor analysis. The scales were found to be reliable; the Cronbach’s α coefficients of the constructs reach 0.914 for curriculum, 0.904 for teaching and performance, 0.826 for facility and environment, 0.862 for internship programme design, and 0.87 for internship unit. All six factors reached a statistically significant level (p=0.000). Next, a factor analysis was used to eliminate survey measurement items which had less than 0.30 loadings on factors or had high cross-loadings over two or more factors (Hair, Vlack, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Finally, to analyze the impact of the dependent variable (student learning satisfaction) and independent variables (e.g. curriculum design, faculty, internship programme, facility and environment, and internship design), a linear regression analysis indicated six dimensions. The result will show if constructs to student learning satisfaction are statistically related.

Any factor loading of each variable under 0.6 was deleted. The results show an accumulated total loading is 78.047% and provide a good explanation of the survey constructs. In addition, the eigenvalue shows that the six components can be extracted from the data and, thus, it fits the original design of the hypothesized model.
Table 1 shows the results of the factor analysis.

Table 2 provides the results of the regression analysis with buying intention as the dependent variable. In this case, slightly more than 50% of the six variables depend on learning satisfaction. All coefficients used in the model are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. The Durbin-Watson index is nearly two and this indicates that there is no autocorrelation amongst the variables. Thus, the six factors were successfully extracted from the data. Furthermore, the β coefficients indicate that teaching faculty with appropriate internship (Kao, 2003; Teng, 2006) and design exerts a greater influence on student learning satisfaction than other variables. This result is also confirmed by the VIF value.

The overall empirical results support the proposed hypotheses. However, this is only supported by the linear relationships in the data, which indicates that unidentified nonlinear relationships may exist. Certain researchers maintain that identifying the nonlinear effects between curriculum, faculty and satisfaction may be possible (eg. Teng, 2006).

The findings imply that six variables exert a positive and significant influence on learning satisfaction. However, student future plan and school facilities and equipment show less significance than other factors. These results contradict the findings of other similar studies in the literature (eg. Teng, 2006). This may be explained by the fact that data in this study were only collected in one university. It is important that this research be extended to investigate more universities and graduates. If possible, overseas hospitality and tourism schools and students should be considered for study in order to have a broader sample and results which are based on more widespread experience. Nevertheless the findings of this study, in particular the findings regarding the facility and environment factors, is consistent with other studies (eg. Kao, 2003). If hospitality and tourism students are not satisfied with the programme, such dissatisfaction could start with the facilities and environment provided. Thus, enhancing student
learning satisfaction and motivation in hospitality and tourism may be achieved by a greater focus on school services and facilities.

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STRENGTHENING THE PHILIPPINES’ BRAND FOR HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM EDUCATION: AN IN-DEPTH ANALYSIS OF APPROACHES AND STRATEGIES FOR OPPORTUNITIES

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The paper discusses the vedantic concept of strengthening the education brand for hospitality and tourism education of the Philippines - a known provider of skilled human resources in numerous foodservice and lodging properties across the globe. Stakeholders of the higher education and tourism industry in the Philippines considered this as a special topic both for internationalization initiatives and research collaborations. Specifically, the proponent of this paper provides in-depth analysis and comprehensive review of innovative approaches and strategies that are operationalized in the new landscape of academic administration through industry linkage-alliances projects and benchmarking. Consequently, the proponent of this paper analyses the current issues and challenges in meeting the increasing demands for excellent competency based training and quality educational services. This paper ends with the recommendations on how high economic viability of various projects of foreign universities and industry alliances can transform the Philippines’ hospitality education brand into more productive and sustainable output of both local and international collaborations.
CULTURALLY RESPONSIBLE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN HOSPITALITY, TOURISM AND EVENTS MANAGEMENT

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper considers the importance of the Treaty of Waitangi (1840) to Higher Education in New Zealand and how this influences the educational experience of hospitality, tourism and event management students. The paper reviews the literature on cultural diversity, internationalization and curriculum development, the role of culture in educating domestic and international students, and how the acculturation Higher Education students experience as part of their studies might lead to a deeper understanding of culture and identity in the hospitality workplace. The gap in the literature concerns how a higher education curriculum can assist in the development of cultural awareness and an understanding of historical commitments. The paper therefore identifies a number of key principles which are regarded as essential to the identity of those living in New Zealand/Aotearoa. The paper then goes on to illustrate how these principles could be applied to Higher Education. It suggests that these principles enshrined in the Treaty of Waitangi are also worth considering when creating an inclusive curriculum which supports all hospitality, tourism and events management students, irrespective of ethnic background, culture or upbringing. Finally, this paper proposes a matrix of ‘hooks’ - tools which academics can use to ensure their lectures address the needs of all learners. This matrix is developed from a study of the educational goals of the Principles of the Treaty of Waitangi (ToW), the founding document of this country. This research adds value by creating an awareness of the diverse environment in which academics and students operate, thereby enabling students to develop a cultural sensitivity to the international hospitality industry they will be employed in on graduation.

Keywords: Treaty of Waitangi; Curriculum development; hospitality, tourism and events management; education
WHAT HAS SHREK GOT TO DO WITH AN INTERNATIONAL HOSPITALITY DEGREE: SHREK, DONKEY AND THE ONION OF HOSPITALITY

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The globalisation of the hospitality industry attracts large numbers of international students to study but there is a difference between ‘internationalisation’ (increasing co-operation but retained identities) and ‘globalisation’ (increasing convergence and decreasing individualisation). The word internationalisation has been incorporated into a large number of hospitality degree classes. There have been many reasons given for ‘internationalising’ of degree programmes, but what makes a hospitality degree international? This question has been asked many times before - one reason that has been given is that some argue General Managers need 15 years’ experience in at least 3 countries and geographical mobility (Jayawardena, 2001). The product of education is a combination of students’ learning, the product, and the teaching staff. So bearing this in mind what is it that makes a hospitality degree international? Is it the country that it is taught in? Is it the papers that are taught? Is it the staff that teach the papers? Is it the students that are taught? Or is, as Shrek says, ‘it’s about layers’? This working paper evaluates what is international about an international hospitality management degree by identifying who or what truly makes it international. Most literature in this area focuses on the percentages of international students, the learning styles of students, or the amount on international material covered in classes. Our contribution to the debate is to consider the range of international experience that hospitality, tourism and events staff bring to their teaching in terms of their education, work experience, ethnicity and nationality.

Keywords: hospitality education, internationalization, degree programmes

REFERENCE

WHAT MAKES A SUCCESSFUL HOSPITALITY GRADUATE? KEY STAKEHOLDER PERSPECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

Today’s hospitality workplace is characterised by unpredictability and change (Baum, 2006). Knowledge of, and response to, customer and client needs is critical to an organisation’s survival and growth. The skill sets required of graduates to meet these needs are very different to those that were required by previous generations. One challenge for educational institutions is to adequately prepare graduates for this complex and uncertain world of work, something that contrasts sharply with the typically structured world of academia (Baum, 2002). The skills shortages in hospitality are becoming of increasing concern to key stakeholders in the industry and are a primary source of difficulty faced in filling positions. It is becoming increasingly harder to find good staff in hospitality and for the industry to address the growing demand for workers in a tight labour market (Auckland City Business and Economy Report, 2007). The educational development of hospitality graduates is therefore paramount to the growth of hospitality in New Zealand. The discussions in this paper have emerged from the author’s PhD study. The research undertakes a constructivist approach to the investigation and evaluation of key stakeholder perspectives in the development of hospitality graduates at AUT University, Auckland. Combining qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection, the study explores how success is perceived and measured by the undergraduates, graduates, teachers and industry representatives. Their perceptions will help determine the critical factors of success required by higher education hospitality graduates. This will enable the review and exploration of the role and contribution of university education in the development of ‘successful’ hospitality graduates.

Keywords: Hospitality, graduates, higher education, success, stakeholders

INTRODUCTION

Research suggests there is an apparent predominant negative attitude in hospitality students towards the industry (Teng, 2008). This combined with the rapid expansion of hospitality and its importance to the national economy (Auckland City Business and Economy Report, 2007) along with a recognised skills shortage (New Zealand Tourism Research Institute (NZTRI), 2007) indicates more research is required in order to facilitate better integration of hospitality graduates into the workplace. In order to effectively deliver the projected growth in hospitality, it appears emphasis is required on the type and quality of hospitality education being provided (Littlejohn & Watson, 2004). More importantly however, the research is guided underpinned by the following pedagogical challenge:

In order to prepare graduates for the workforce universities need to promote and support a culture of teaching and learning that parallels an unpredictable and irregular social and
According to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (WTO, 1997), world tourist numbers will increase from 673 million in 2000 to 1 billion in 2010. East Asia and the Pacific region are forecast for the largest growth rate of 8.2% over this period (WTO, 1997). Tourism and hospitality in New Zealand generates approximately $14.6 billion in earnings (9% of GDP), supports one in eleven jobs and provides $1 billion of tax revenue (Department of Labour, 2002; Whiteford & Nolan, 2007). New Zealand will require 16,440 Full Time Equivalent (FTE) positions by 2010 to maintain and grow the industry. In addition, 5,800 FTE positions are also required in accommodation and food and beverage (Auckland City Business and Economy Report, 2007).

Such growth and development of the international hospitality market has led to a change in the nature of work in the hospitality industry. It is argued that to work in the hospitality industry a combination of unique skills and sets of attributes are required (Baum, 2006). The ability of the individual in unique skills and attributes overshadows the importance of formal qualifications or the amount of training required (Bradley, Erickson, Stephenson, & William, 2000).

Employers seek graduates with the right attributes and capabilities, such as the ability and willingness to learn, energy and passion, team work and interpersonal communication (Raybould & Wilkins, 2006). Hospitality employers anticipate that graduates should possess transferable generic skills in leadership, communication and decision making (Buengermeister, 1983; Clichy, Sciarini, & Patton, 1992; Goodman & Sprague, 1991; William & DeMicco, 1998). In contrast, higher education focuses more on longer term development of the individual than the preparation of a ‘work ready’ employee. The issue of connecting employers with education, necessitates the development of capability, opportunity and a collaborative industry-education approach (Littlejohn & Watson, 2004; Raybould & Wilkins, 2005). This connection between employers’ expectations and student perceptions is reflected in the central aims of this research.

The study contributes to the discussion that success in hospitality is achieved through a holistic approach to student development (Avril & Magnini, 2007). In this context the research adopts the viewpoint that a more ‘liberal’ orientation is required towards contemporary hospitality education (Morrison & O’Gorman, 2006). This study engages with the discussion that learning is “...a social process and as a process of construction and re-construction” (Zwaal & Otting, 2006, p. 257), and contributes to discussions surrounding the trend in higher vocational education towards a student-centred concept of education (Johansen, 2006; Zwaal & Otting, 2006).

Using a multi-faceted approach to success the study provides the opportunity to determine how success is achieved and measured in hospitality and more importantly when it is achieved and measured. It explores, expands and readdresses a question raised 21 years ago “What are the predictors of success for men and women in the hospitality industry?” (Pizam & Lewis, 1979, p. 12).

The study also explores the critical factors required for success by higher education graduates in the hospitality industry. By using New Zealand as a case study, drawing on literature surrounding contemporary hospitality around the world and developing the work of Umbreit (1993), the study will compare and contrast stakeholder expectations and perceptions in
relation to graduate development. The triangulation of perceptions, observations and opinions from the students, teachers and industry representatives in hospitality, creates the foundations for an examination of the nature of hospitality higher education, the challenges facing hospitality graduates and the development of ‘successful’ hospitality graduates. Based on these findings, the proposed thesis will provide further direction on the correlations between hospitality graduate education and success in the workplace, and hospitality curriculum design (Williams, 2005).

**MAIN BODY**

*Research context*

The research engages with on-going discussions of the various skills and skill sets required by individuals in modern hospitality; generic, technical, employability and transferable (Baum, 2006; Bennett, 2002; Raybould & Wilkins, 2006; Zinser, 2003). The research will also engage with and contribute to the various definitions in relation to skills.

In New Zealand increasing demands are being made for future hospitality employees to have generic skill sets (Department of Labour, 2007). Against this backdrop of continued pressure from employers, calls are being made for the improvement of generic skill provision in higher education (Bennett, Dunne & Carre, 1999). What is important is that employability skills development in vocational degree programs is intended to satisfy an industry requirement for skilled employees (Raybould & Wilkins, 2005) and student preparation for the workplace is an essential part of vocational education and (Baum, 2002; Moodie, 2002).

The proposed thesis will be set against the background of the current tertiary education policy in New Zealand and recognises the government’s policy of broader participation in tertiary education; the aim being to produce a highly skilled and flexible labour force due to changing labour market conditions (McLaughlin, 2003).

*Methodology*

The central focus will be on the Auckland hospitality industry for a number of reasons. Auckland’s population represents one third of the country and employs 306,840 people, which is 17 per cent of national employment (Auckland City Business and Economy Report, 2007). Hospitality is the seventh largest industry in Auckland and employs 4.1% of the region’s population.

Data collection using the instruments of questionnaires and a semi-structured interview allow the researcher to draw upon the views and considerations of a representative group of people. Using a mixed methods approach adds strength to the research approach as it allows the research to simultaneously answer confirmatory and exploratory questions, which in turn enables the researcher to verify and generate theory in the same study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003).

There are 1300 students studying a range of hospitality related courses in the school of Hospitality and Tourism at AUT University. The sample chosen focuses on the undergraduate degree of Bachelor of International Hospitality Management (BIHM). Access is available to
approximately 460 students undertaking the BIHM which represents a target sample of approx. 35% of the population.

Access is also available to approximately 40 lecturers in the school of Hospitality and Tourism, 14 of which have direct teaching contact with the BIHM programme. This group represents 34% of the lecturing staff in the school of Hospitality and Tourism at AUT.

The industry and professional organisation interviewees will be selected in an attempt to obtain a substantial representation of the hospitality industry. These organisations have been chosen as they represent a cross section of the hospitality industry across the Auckland region as identified in recent studies (Department of Labour, 2007; NZTRI, 2007).

CONCLUSION

To succeed in a modern hospitality environment people are required to have “….passion, attitude and to be able to create an emotional and theatrical experience.” (J. Dick, personal communication, September 2008). In addition, students are expected to be open-minded, culturally aware and to have a service attitude (Velo & Mittaz, 2006), and the ability to speak in a foreign language (Yuan, Houston, & Cai, 2006).

The qualities of a successful career entry manager, generically, have been described as falling into three specific levels (Pedlar, Burgoyne, & Boydell, 1994). A possession of basic knowledge and information, combined with specific skills and attributes that affect behaviour and performance, are seen as key contributors to improved performance in the workplace (Webber, 1997). More importantly, the development of situation-specific skills needed in particular circumstances, which allow managers to develop and deploy skills and resources (‘meta qualities’), are becoming increasingly important in the workplace (Webber, 1997). Such qualities are identified as mental agility, balanced learning skills and creativity. Increasingly, organisations are demanding that higher education hospitality graduates possess all three skills sooner in their careers (Tesone & Ricci, 2005). The challenge is to enable higher education hospitality graduates to obtain these ‘meta qualities’ as quickly as possible (Webber, 1997) and to bridge the gap between the differing perceptions of industry and academia, in developing the successful employee (Nicholson & Cushman, 2000).

In light of these facts and circumstances the study engages with the philosophy that success can be achieved through the cultivation of various states of mind and the development of multiple intelligences (Howard, 2006).

To be most effective….we must develop skills that go beyond the technical proficiencies taught in university programs into a new realm of expertise that requires us to embrace and acknowledge the very human aspects of communication and culture (Robertson, 2007, p. 14)

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DIVERSITY IN INTERNATIONAL INTERNSHIPS
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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

The juxtaposition of supplier pre-deployment practices with the demand for college interns has favorably impacted cultural diversity in international hospitality internship programs. However, the supply and demand of international hotel interns is often a result of marketing strategies which discount the value of cultural diversity. Such strategies tend to militate against optimal diversity in recruitment pools as well as the ultimate selection of interns supplied by hospitality educators. Some critical interrelated causes for this result include: unawareness of cultural diversity value, pre-deployment strategy shortfalls, desire of suppliers to meet the demand of hosts, and lack of plans (by host organizations) to implement and manage workplace diversity. In 1996 the President of the American Hotel and Motel Association (now AH & LA) predicted that “diversity would become commonplace and that discrimination would be virtually wiped out in hotels as a result.” He identified four optional strategies available to companies to accomplish this goal. This historical mission for the American industry is referenced because a national diversity mission necessarily supersedes a global one. Accordingly, several hospitality organizations, such as Marriott, Hilton, Disney and others have made strides in diversity -- nationally and globally, while other international lodging organizations are lagging behind in this endeavor.

Keywords: Pre-deployment, cultural diversity, optimal diversity, international internships, suppliers, hosts, marketing strategies, discriminations.
Theme: Hospitality and Tourism Research

Applying western social research methods in China: A case study of one year’s fieldwork in Kanas Scenic Area, Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, China. (Full paper).
Jingjing Yang, Chris Ryan, University of Waikato, NZ and Lingyun Zhang, Beijing International Studies University, China.

Action research in the hospitality industry - a tool for change?
(Working paper abstract).
Julie Nyanjom, Edith Cowan University, Australia.

Customer relationship management - beyond software.
(Working paper abstract).
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Customer satisfaction management – a multi-unit case study.
(Working paper abstract).
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(Working paper).
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(Working paper abstract).
Tomas Pernecky, AUT University, NZ.
APPLYING WESTERN SOCIAL RESEARCH METHODS IN CHINA: A CASE STUDY OF ONE YEAR’S FIELDWORK IN KANAS SCENIC AREA, XINJIANG UYGUR AUTONOMOUS REGION, CHINA

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APPLYING WESTERN SOCIAL RESEARCH METHODS IN CHINA: A CASE STUDY OF ONE YEAR’S FIELDWORK IN KANAS SCENIC AREA, XINJIANG UYGUR AUTONOMOUS REGION, CHINA

ABSTRACT

This paper argues that, when applying western social research methods in China, both the particular context of China and the specific culture of the researched people should be taken into account, especially in minority communities of under-developed western China. This paper examines the issue of compliance with ethical guidelines of a New Zealand university in the context of a twelve month ethnographic study in the Kanas Scenic Area of Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region. It is found that the rules of the ethics committee would pose problems in conducting such research through not properly recognizing the culture and understandings of the Tuva people, and thereby implies wider issues of how one might generalize ethical understandings in tourism research.

Keywords: research method, ethnographic, China, tourism

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to examine the application of western research methods in China with the intent of generating discussion and debate. It is not suggested that this is the final version of this paper, but rather it represents an interim stage based upon the first author’s reflections upon her immediate return from Kanas.

Questionnaires and interviews are commonly used research methods in western studies and more recently studies about China have also adopted these methods leading to publications in western and Chinese academic journals. Some of the studies are conducted only by Chinese scholars (e.g. Ying & Zhou, 2007) whereas others are co-authored by Chinese and western scholars (e.g. Fan, Wall & Mitchell, 2008; Yang, Wall & Smith, 2006). Few, however, examine the issues the applicability of empiricist methods grounded in western philosophic traditions to the Chinese mind set (Gu & Ryan, 2009).

There is a great difference between China and western societies in terms of political systems, economic development, social structures and minority cultures. For example, some studies (Gu & Ryan, 2009; Sofield & Li, 2007; Fan at al, 2008) specifically refer to the roles of government and call for attention on and further study about China’s specific political environment and the powerful influence of government. In such circumstances, do the methods originating from western counties, based on a western model of thought, adapt to the Chinese context? In addition, there is a huge gap between China’s eastern developed regions and the western developing and even under-developed minority areas, and one might question whether any given research method is applicable to all parts of China. Ethnographic research is a commonly used method by western scholars to research a “specific culture”, but increasingly researchers based in western universities are required to comply with given sets of ethical ‘guidelines’ that in practice often take the form of ‘rules’. This paper examines these issues with reference to the twelve month ethnographic work of the first author in Kanas Scenic Area of Xinjiang Uyghur
Autonomous Region of China. The general issues discussed pertaining to fieldwork methods is developed from the researcher’s personal accounts.

This paper will examine the issues from two perspectives: the adaption of a questionnaire in China and the role of interviews in China with reference to researchers’ ethics. This is undertaken in order to argue that research in China will need to adapt to the differences of Chinese culture and lifestyle especially in the specific environment of minority people.

THE KANAS NATURE RESERVE (KNR)

Kanas Nature Reserve (KNR) is located in Altyay region of Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region, China, at E85°60'–87°35', N48°25'–49°51'. It is bordered by China, Kazakhstan, Russia and Mongolia. The three main settlements that serve as the main cultural landscapes are Hanas Village, Hemu Village and Baihaba Village, with a total of 729 households and a population of 2,760, of which more than 70 percent are Tuva people. The average income per person was 2,957 yuan in 2007 (about NZ$550). The economy is based mainly on animal husbandry and tourism. Locals raise cows, horses, goats and produce dairy foods. The first author spent 12 months in the area including the winter when the villages are cut off from the rest of China and often when there is no electricity supply.

Figure 1: Location of Kanas Scenic Area

Issues

The first issue that was encountered in the research process was that it cannot be assumed Chinese respondents will respond to questioning in the same way as westerners. Some rules required by ethics committees appear to contradict the Chinese model of thought and ways of working, especially in under-developed minority regions of west China. For example questionnaires are commonly used in political, business, media, and research domains in western societies. Additionally university ethics committees are conversant with questionnaires and indeed, arguably, ‘like’ them as a means of generating data because they can apply ‘ethical rules’ to them (Ryan, 2005). Generally, respondents regard it as a way of expressing their views about the issue discussed in the questionnaire. In recent years, this method has also been adopted into China in terms of media, business and academic studies. However, based on the experience of the first author conducting questionnaires of tourists in Kanas Scenic Area, some unique features about Chinese people responding to questionnaire began to appear. Respondents were told that the questionnaire would take around 15 to 20 minutes to complete. In practice, different answers and patterns of responses seemed to occur as noted in Figure 1.
Figure 2: Responses of tourists and inferred tourists’ motives to complete the questionnaire

Figure 2 shows that participants completed the questionnaire for a variety of reasons, some of which are unrelated to the intent of the study. Although the questionnaire was only completed at one site, Kanas, the target respondents are tourists who are mainly from eastern China and some parts of western developed areas.
Experience indicates the presence of various difficulties when local Tuva and Kazakh respondents are involved as illustrated in the following two cases:

Case one:
Researcher A designed a questionnaire for locals to complete. He first asked a local Tuva girl who graduated from a technical school to translate the questionnaire into Mongolian which is the written language of Tuvas. However, as the Tuva translator noted, the locals were reluctant to fill the questionnaire; they did not know what questionnaires were; they objected to the questionnaire, and some locals even threw it away as rubbish.

Case two:
Researcher B formulated a questionnaire prior to the research study. Owing to a lack of understanding about the research site and the locals, some questions were subsequently found to be neither appropriate nor suitable for the local people. The questionnaire was in the Mandarin language which many local people did not understand. The researcher asked some college students to go to locals’ homes to administer the questionnaire with the help of interpreters. Although some locals could communicate in the Han language, there were many locals that could not speak Han (Mandarin). In such circumstances, the student would first read the question and the interpreter would then translate the question into the Tuva or Kazakh language. After the local answered the question, the interpreter translated it into Han. Then the researcher wrote down the answer on the questionnaire. It took 1.5 hours to 2 hours to finish a 6 page questionnaire. As a consequence, in effect it became an interview, not a self-administered questionnaire, and the results recorded on the questionnaire largely depended on the interpreter. With the interpreter normally being both local and an official of the government, there was no way of telling whether the respondent was interpreting the questions as intended, answering accurately or telling the truth. The “interview” became too long, and many locals did not complete it. Generally, this survey instrument did not work well.

The two cases reveal that conducting a questionnaire for the locals of Kanas did not work well. Based on the observation and informal conversations with locals over a whole year, the following reasons are suggested to contribute to the failure of survey. First, there are the different languages of the questionnaire designer and respondent. The researchers are mostly Han and speak Mandarin while the respondents are Tuva or Kazakhs speaking their respective languages. As tourism has developed in the last 10 years, more local people can speak but cannot write or read Mandarin. Second, there is huge gap between the questionnaire designer and the locals in terms of educational background. The locals have mostly graduated from primary or middle school and had difficulty understanding the meaning of the questionnaire which was formulated by researchers who had received tertiary education. Third, locals, who are nomadic minorities, are not used to reading and writing. Fourth, they are not familiar with the concept of a questionnaire and do not know how to fill it in. Fifth, they are concerned that it would put them in an invidious position if they fill in the questionnaire. Sixth, researchers normally formulate a questionnaire prior to the research study and may not have visited the area and thus the questions may not be suitable for the case area. From the above discussion, it can be seen that using a self administered or interpreter administered questionnaire method is problematic in the minority settlements of western China, such as Kanas. The results derived from such an approach are likely to be incomplete, unreliable and potentially invalid.
When considering the use of interviews, the experience of the first author has found that interviews with local indigenous peoples in western China is vastly different from interviewing in the more developed eastern China areas and in western countries. More specifically, the roles of the interviewer often differ from that of the researcher,

a) Interpreter - broker between researcher and respondent

There is often a language barrier between the researcher and locals. Any assumption that translators may be depended upon is subject to caveats of which two are: (1) local translators might not familiar with research or academic studies and might misinterpret information and important concepts and (2) if the translator is a governmental official, the translator may not interpret the exact meaning of the researcher or respondent if the question concerned has possible negative implications relating to the community or government. One potential way to overcome this requires direct communication with locals and the first author became fluent in Tuva and Kazakh languages in addition to her Mongolian, Han and English. For example, the first interview undertaken with a local person was conducted by a governmental official as the interpreter. In subsequent conversations between the local respondent and the first author it was found that the official had not translated the Local’s responses when negative opinions about the government were expressed.

b) Researcher - “same-groups” (friends/family) or “different-groups” (strangers)

In Kanas, the information the first author obtained from government officials, locals and outside business people in the early stages of the research were often different from the information obtained in later stages. This was evident from the above example of the interviews/conversations. Yet, perhaps paradoxically, as relationships with the interpreter became closer, the interpreter began to relay to the first author negative issues about the village. Thus, it appears that the interpreter was hiding negative information from the researcher in the early stages of the project but revealing negative issues in the later stage. It is suggested this is because the interpreter regarded the first author as a member of a “different outsider group” in the early stage, while eventually considering her to be part of her “insider-group” in the latter stages.

It needs to be noted that: (1) as China is a relationship-oriented society, Chinese people may not respond well and tell the truth to strangers, (2) they are concerned that the researcher might inform others of what they have said, especially the government, which might have negative consequences for them. This can be overcome when eventually, over time, the researcher establishes a friendly relationship based on trust. Establishing this friendship and trust takes time, which explains the necessity of utilising long-term ethnographic research in western China.

c) Respondent – do they express truthful feelings and opinions or not?

In contrast with respondents of western countries who may feel more comfortable and confident in verbally expressing their truthful feelings or opinions, Chinese people do not always openly express themselves. This is particularly so with the minority people in Kanas. There tend to be two types of statements where Tuva and Kazakh people do not express open opinions. The first is where what they say is different from what they think. This is largely because the respondents
are concerned about their future, considering their social roles. For example, government officials will probably not tell of underlying problems to researchers and the public unless the officials assume it will not harmful to them. The second type is where they are reluctant to express their views and require the researcher to judge, analyze and suspect. This is consistent with Chinese traditional education that requires students to be obedient and show respect to teachers, elders and strangers. The characteristics of a people is another factor and, as a group, Tuvas, the locals of Kanas, are slow to open up and talk with outsiders. Only after they come to regard you as a friend will they express their open feelings or opinions.

d) Government - monitoring of locals’ voices

The respondent designated or introduced by government might only tell the researcher the positive rather than negative aspects of the community or policy. Researchers need to interview more locals to examine the information obtained.

e) Recording and making notes

Recording and making notes are good ways for researchers to correctly note what the respondents said during the interview. However, such an approach is not welcomed by the locals of Kanas. During the informal interviews with locals, when a notebook was used to write down the respondents’ words, one respondent said “Do not write it down. If you make notes, I will not say anymore. It is the conversation between friends. Take it easy”. Recording is also rejected by the locals. In order to respect the locals’ habits, recording and making notes during interviews was abandoned.

f) Interviews and expectations

Experience showed that one should not expect to obtain all the answers from respondents to all one’s questions in minority areas, since in some circumstances, even the respondents do not know the answer. They regard some rituals, performances, or taboos as *habitus*, and seldom think of the reason why the performance or ritual is provided or why they should obey the taboos. For example, why are married Tuva ladies not allowed to attend the heaven sacrificing ceremony on the morning of the 1st day of Spring Festival? Why is it that here the Lama could get married and even participate in tourism business? Such questions were asked of locals and many did not know the reasons. Admittedly, some may not want to tell the reasons, not because they do not know but because they have never consciously thought about these issues, and they simply stated “It (the ritual, the taboo, etc) is as told by my parents”.

*Research ethics*

Research ethics are highly emphasized by western research institutions and it is expected that researchers from such backgrounds should comply with ethical guidelines or rules as required by their universities or research entity. These ethical principles emphasize the rights of participants, and contend that the researcher should follow protocols of honesty and informed consent (to not to practice deceit), to respect the local culture and local people, protect participants’ identities, to minimize risks for participants, and to ensure the research is culturally safe and non offensive for
the participants. During the ethnographic research in Kanas, the research was undertaken according to such ethical dictates. However, it was evident that Chinese researchers had not been trained about such ethical issues, and one result was that the locals came to appreciate the respect paid to them and the local culture by the first author. However, there are two aspects of the ethical requirements that proved problematic. First, asking minority people to complete an interview consent form and asking the translator to abide by research protocols are hard to implement in practice. The following therefore emerged:

a) Set aside the interview consent form for participants

University regulations require obtaining the consent of respondents before interview. In order to keep the respondents informed, some western research institutions ask the researcher to provide two documents to prospective respondents, namely the Interview Information Sheet and a Consent Form for Interview Participants. Interview Information Sheets include the description of the research, the questions that will be asked, issues concerning confidentiality, the rights as a participant, and the contact information of the researcher. Consent Forms for Interview Participants include details about what is involved (time, tasks etc), what will happen to the data collected from them; how it may be used; whether they will be identified; how the researcher protects confidentiality; risks there may be to them; benefits there may be to them etc, and finally the participants are asked to sign the form to formally give their consent to be interviewed.

However, in Kanas, these two documents were not welcomed by the locals, and the western ethical rules were hard to implement in this minority settlement. Their first response to the documents was typically: “What is that?” which revealed they were unfamiliar with the forms. Some of the locals said that “I am an illiterate and I cannot read the words”. A Tuva respondent who was studying in a tertiary institution told the first author that “You could ask whatever you want to know”, but he refused to sign the consent form.

The reasons for refusing to sign a consent form are similar to those of refusing to fill in the questionnaire, poor language, comprehension, reading and writing skills (related to a low educational level); concern about the potential risk, not being accustomed to providing signatures, etc. It should be emphasized that the study group are still nomadic people. Additionally, the existence of the form can be interpreted by respondents that the researcher is not trusting them to tell the truth!

b) Translator was not familiar with research protocol

According to the university rules of interviewing, if a translator is needed, the translator should also abide by the protocols of research required by the related institutions. However, this proved impractical in Kanas. Many locals, including translators, have graduated from middle school or even lower level educational institutions, and are not familiar with research, study and the ethical requirements of western universities, thereby leaving it difficult to ensure any compliance with university requirements.

*Implications for researching in China*
There is reason to believe that western social research methods require adaptation if research is to be conducted in China for results to be accurate and meaningful. Spending a long period of time in the research site is the key for obtaining better quality information when combined with reflective action on the part of the researcher (Ryan, 2005). For example, it is generally believed that the documents obtained from government may be comprehensive; however, these may be used only for the examination of officials of higher level administrations and have no other purpose beyond roles of status and face. Such approaches mean that if the researcher stays at the research site for only a few days, he or she might not obtain more detailed information. It is suggested here that the researcher can only obtain ‘truthful’ information after establishing friendship and trust with the locals.

To obtain the trust from locals is the preliminary step for doing ethnographic research in the minority areas. Living with a local family is one such means of getting in touch with them and so earn their trust. The first author lived with a Tuva family, ate the same food as them on a daily basis with the family members, raised cows and horses with them, and spent time with them each day. The Tuva family came to regard her not as a ‘respectable’ doctorate student (an outsider), but as one of their family members (an insider). The family communicated with her on many topics, expressing their opinions freely. With the introductions provided by the family, gradually, more and more villagers established good relationships with the first author over time, while it also helped that she spent the winter with them. Chinese people place much more trust in knowing someone personally or through a close friend/relative (Bond, 1991).

It is necessary to find out what research method(s) is(are) suitable for the locals. For example, on the way to a funeral, the first author asked an elder about the Shamanism of locals, and to her surprise, the elder said nothing. Others subsequently told the researcher that the elder preferred to be interviewed at home, not outside. In obtaining such trust it is important to note that signing forms, being informed of the purpose of the research and similar practices are often not only inappropriate within such cultures, but may be barriers to eliciting information for they are seen as part of the bureaucracy of an elite which itself is seen as ‘another’, or as something to be distrusted – at least on first acquaintance.

CONCLUSIONS

The insights from this paper provide us with a view of western social research methods in the context of minority peoples in China, and a new perspective toward research in China. It is recommended that researchers and scholars researching China should have a deep understanding about China and appropriately apply western research methodology and theories within China’s background. Based on the differences in culture between western societies and China, it is suggested that some rules of methodology and some research methods might need modification for the Chinese context. Allison (1989) has argued that these differences are not those of an either/or nature, but are complementary in achieving a better understanding of human nature that transcends yet complements east-west cultural divides. Unfortunately this view is seemingly not shared by university ethics committees that seem rooted in a rule bound ethical procedure based on western notions of privacy as against those of family and communal truths. Yet the gaps between the practices found workable in the study in Kanas and the principles of ethic
committees are not unbridgeable – for both operate on the basis of achieving trust between respondent and researcher – but as argued by Ryan (2005) – trust is not something that can be subjected to defined sets of rules that emerge from committee structures. Rather, it arises from immersion in social situations and from reflective decision making by the researcher informed by knowledge of cultural sensitivities and continuous concern about the truths of those situations – not just the concerns of process as an end in itself.

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ACTION RESEARCH IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: A TOOL FOR CHANGE?

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

At a time when globalisation is rife in the hospitality industry, and quality of service could be used as a competitive advantage, action research can prove to be valuable as a means to assist in change management within the industry. Yet the epistemological rigour of this research method has been questioned (Cassell & Johnson, 2006; Sandford, 1970; Susman & Evered, 1978; Waser & Johns, 2003). To bring about organisational change, it is important that research outcomes add value to practice (Amabile, Patterson, Mueller, Wojcik, Odomirok, Marsh & Kramer, 2001; Mohrman, Gibson & Mohrman, 2001; Rynes, Bartunek & Daft, 2001; van Scotter & Culligan, 2003). There exists an opportunity for practitioners and academics alike to embrace action research as a methodology to be utilised to tackle organisational challenges and bring about desired change. Through the employment of action research a match could be established between improved service levels and organisational culture. This working paper discusses action research as a research methodology that may have potential to add value to hospitality organisational processes and practices. Through a literature review, the status of action research in the hospitality industry is examined. The review of literature finds that, despite the apparent potential of outcomes that can emanate from action research, this methodology is not prevalent in the hospitality industry. There is a distinct lack of reported cases where action research has been utilised. This methodology could be viewed as an important research and management tool in the hospitality industry, and needs to be equally valued as a legitimate research methodology.

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CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT  
- BEYOND SOFTWARE

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper examines the relationship between Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and service delivery. Integrating Orlikowski’s (1992) model of technology duality within the organisation with Carlsson’s (2003) model of situated technology including the business environment it takes into account the reciprocal influence between technology and social context and how these impact service delivery. Hotels provide an example of boundary spanning, both by technology and personnel, and demonstrate how ICT can be used to support service delivery within this context. Based on interviews with hotel General Managers it examines technology as a strategic tool uncovering a limited awareness of the conflicting demands on front line staff. ICT contributes to this conflict and in doing so potentially undermines it role as a support in service delivery. As Customer Relationship Management (CRM) is both software and a set of practices this study provides initial ways to raise awareness and support staff to realise the full potential of both.

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CUSTOMER SATISFACTION MANAGEMENT – A MULTI-UNIT CASE STUDY

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Customer satisfaction is critical for hospitality and tourism businesses. It means that customers come more often, stay longer, spend more money, provide valuable word-of-mouth advertising and make the job of serving them easier and more pleasant for front-line staff because customers and staff know what to expect. The handling of positive and negative customer feedback is therefore crucial. This paper considers three different food and beverage outlets within a multi-outlet operation. It maps out the processes in place for the gathering of customer feedback, including how it is obtained, who deals with it, what forms of compensation are used for the different issues, how it is collated and reported, and how the outlets track the cost of service failures in order to prevent their recurrence. The paper uses interviews and archival documentary analysis to establish the processes in place. Findings indicate there is little consistency in the way in which customer feedback is gathered, analysed, addressed or recorded. Staff actually make recommendations for improvements and suggest they would prefer to have clearer guidelines as to ‘appropriate’ responses to the most frequent issues. A commonly-agreed set of responses to issues might also allow front-line staff to deal with more routine issues enabling management to concentrate on more strategic developments which would prevent problems occurring rather than using their time ‘fire-fighting’. During the study management proposed a model to address some of these issues and this is provided. Multi-unit operations could use this methodology to evaluate their own customer satisfaction processes.
DESIGNING BIAS? PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION, TOURISM RESEARCH, AND RESEARCH ETHICS.

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The paper examines participant observation in the context of tourism research and considers the implications of full disclosure and non-disclosure of information about the research to participants. Participant observation has been advocated as a research technique that can provide rich data for understanding tourism phenomena (Cole, 2005; Seaton, 2002). An important ethical issue with research that involves studying human behaviour is the relationship between the researcher and the research participants in terms of privacy and disclosure about the nature of the data collected (Sieber, 2004; Van Deventer, 2009). The role of the researcher as a participant observer in tourism scenarios poses both ethical and validity questions about the necessity for the research participant to give their consent to be part of the research (Miller, Hudson & Turner, 2005; Herrera, 1999). Disclosure of the purpose of the study to research subjects could invalidate the data collected in terms of the research objectives (Calvey, 2008; Crow, Wiles, Heath & Charles, 2006). Research subjects who understand they are being researched may modify their behaviour to what they perceive as desirable for the research thereby creating an important potential bias. The relationship between the researcher and research participants is having a major bearing on what academic institutions view as appropriate areas of research because informed consent is a fundamental principle of ethical research (Haggerty, 2004; Hedgecoe, 2008). With a discipline of study such as tourism, institutional-based parameters on appropriate guidelines for research on human behaviour and a lack of debate on ontological and epistemological frameworks of research techniques such as participant observation may impact on the scope of tourism research.

INTRODUCTION

Participant observation is a research technique that can provide rich data for understanding tourism phenomena (Cole, 2005; Holloway, 1981; Seaton, 2002; Tourism KwaZulu-Natal, 2008). Participant observation can be utilised in conjunction with full disclosure or the withholding of a full declaration of purpose to the research subject.

By explicitly stating the aims of the research to participants an important potential bias can be introduced which may shape results. That is, research subjects who understand they are being researched may shape their behaviour to what they perceive as desirable for the research. The
researcher then has to determine the extent of the impact disclosure to the participant and the influence this may have on the validity of the research findings (Plester, 2007).

With academic research that involves studying human behaviour an essential issue is the relationship between the researcher and the research participants. An important consideration in the use of participant observation is; at what level is it necessary for the research participant to give their consent to be part of the research? This has ethical, ontological and epistemological implications about the nature of the data collected (Sieber, 2004; Van Deventer, 2009). Tourism research has often used a positivist paradigm that in the context of participant observation is concerned with reducing the visibility of the researcher to the research participant. This paper examines how participant observation is viewed in the context of tourism research and the implications this has for data collection methods in terms of the relationship between researcher and research participant, and the relative merits of full disclosure and non-disclosure of information about the research to participants.

PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION AND ACADEMIC RESEARCH

Participant observation is a field research method derived from the ethnographic tradition. It is a technique that seeks to make sense of phenomena associated with the social and cultural practices of a society or community. The researcher records observations made while participating in the social group being studied (Plester, 2007). The extent of the participation can vary from actually doing the specific activity being observed or acting as an onlooker or audience (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994; Csarniawska, 2004). With its use as a research method in twentieth century anthropology, the researcher was often perceived by the research participants, as being ‘visibly’ different to the participants, either on grounds of gender, ethnicity or social background (Teshome-Bahiru & Negash-Wossene, 2007).

The validity of data and the notion of bias

All academic research is underpinned by the ontological and epistemological assumptions about the nature of knowledge and the appropriate methods by which to obtain that knowledge (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). It is a truism of research that ‘the part’ is often used to make inferences about or give insights to ‘the whole’. In determining the validity of the part in being representative of the whole, the obtrusiveness of the techniques on gathering data is considered a key factor. The researcher as an ‘outsider’ may create a bias in the research where participants stop acting naturally. The participant may shape their behaviour to conform to what the participant perceives to be desirable in the context of being observed by an outsider (Herrera, 1999).

Within anthropology a tactic to counter this possible bias to have the researcher stay in the “field” and to participate in everyday life as much as possible to reduce the researcher’s visibility (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994). Research where the researcher could be assumed to be “an insider” by the participants reduces the researcher as a known variable in the participant’s behaviour and thus biasing the data (Calvey, 2008; Crow et al., 2006). This differs from the original ethnographic context of the use of participant observation as the participant no longer makes a tacit decision to accept the presence of the researcher.
Research strategies that emphasise reducing the visibility of the researcher are aligned to a positivist paradigm that implies that disclosure to the participant of the researcher’s presence through informed consent or visible appearance will render the data unacceptably biased. An interpretivist or constructivist paradigm advocates the agency of the research subject in the development of knowledge and thus informed consent and the visibility of the researcher can contribute to the validity of the data (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The active participation and/or fully informed consent of the participants have been incorporated into research methods using participant observation (Drury & Stott, 2001).

The use of participant observation in tourism research

Hartmann (1988, p.101) found that participant observation used in conjunction with interviews and non-participant observation provided “unexpected insights otherwise unobtainable by any of the other field research methods used”. Participant observation strategies in tourism research using covert methods range from total deception (Hartmann, 1988; Miller et al., 2005; Seaton, 2002) to situations where the participant may know that they are the subjects of the research but not know what specific part of their experience is the focus of the research (Holloway, 1981). Determining the validity of data is a complex issue that is informed by the nature of the research, the ontological and epistemological framework of the research, and the discipline within which the study occurs. Dann, Nash and Pearce (1988) emphasise the importance for tourism researchers to follow established guidelines relating to specific research techniques from other academic fields of research to ensure the validity of data, unless they are prepared to commit to developing new guidelines.

A review of four tourism journals from their inception to 1996 noted a bias towards positivism and suggested a marginalisation of newer social science research developments within the field of tourism research (Tribe & Airey, 2007). For research based within a positivist paradigm any level of disclosure to the research subject could invalidate the data collected in terms of the research objectives (Calvey, 2008; Crow et al., 2006). The tactic of having the researcher in prolonged contact with their participants to reduce the visibility of the researcher is not always possible with tourism phenomena such as guided tours where the duration of an activity may only be two hours, and where the commencement of the activity and the participants’ awareness of the researcher’s presence occur at the same time.

Participant observation and the notion of risk

The discourse of risk in terms of academic research can be summarised as relating to misrepresenting, exploiting, harming or removing the anonymity of the research subjects and harm to the researcher (Crow et al., 2006; Hedgecoe, 2008; Sieber, 2004). In the context of participant observation, the researcher’s study may unwittingly misrepresent the research subject or their community in their interpretation of the data collected. The study may be exploitative in that the study has potentially developed opportunities to the researcher, in say, career advancement but little in the way of the participants. Harm to the participant can arise if they discover later that they are part of a study and then regret the behaviour observed. This is intensified, intentionally or otherwise if the participants’ identity is revealed. With sociological studies within the researcher’s own community or country the researcher’s presence could have
an impact on the participants or put the researcher at risk. The transient nature of the tourist population at sites has been cited as a factor which differentiates research on tourists from other communities when it comes to ethical issues such as disclosure and informed consent (Hartmann, 1988). This doesn’t account for the residents working or partaking in leisure activities in the research areas. For example, in Holloway’s (1981) study of one day guided tours in London, full disclosure was made to the guides and drivers of the tours after the observations in conjunction with a request to participate in interviews.

The ethics of research and the research institution

The relationship between the researcher and research participants is having a major bearing on what academic institutions view as appropriate areas of research and informed consent is a fundamental principle of ethical research (Haggerty, 2004; Hedgecoe, 2008). The creation of institutional ethics committees has been an attempt to create a more independent approach to judging the appropriateness of research, the notion of risk and issues of informed consent and full disclosure. A 1988 government review of a medical study on cervical cancer framed the discourse on research ethics in New Zealand. The implications that this case had at an institutional level for all New Zealand academic research is the need to consider at an ethical level what impact the research may have on the overall well-being of the participant (Fitzgerald, 2005). A recent ethics application for PhD research at AUT University for participant observation of guided tours was required to provide information sheets for participants with the “inclusion of advice about the risk that the research may take the fun out of the event, and how this will be mitigated” (M. Lück, personal communication, September 24, 2009).

There has been a lack of debate in tourism about the psychological and physical impacts of research on tourists in terms of their leisure time and the visibility of the researcher in relation to participant observation. Researchers may then rely on proven techniques where a process has been identified or tradition established within tourism where certain tests can be made to test the validity of the data, and the ethicality of the instruments. This may result in a limited set of research techniques available to current and prospective tourism researchers and impact on the scope of tourism research.

CONCLUSION

In order to progress tourism research, it has been argued that “alternative perspectives are necessary if new insights into the nature of tourism are to be generated” (Faulkner & Russell, 2003, p. 205). As participant observation has become an integral research technique in anthropology and sociology, protocols have been established to reduce the bias that visibility could cause (Teshome-Bahiru & Negash-Wossene, 2007). How informed consent, or non-disclosure, affects the validity of data collected through participant observation has not been fully explored within the discipline of tourism. A tension exists in tourism research between employing research techniques that adhere to the positivist paradigm and its conceptualisation of the validity of data and aligning research to institutional ethics guidelines that advocate for informed consent.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF (HERMENEUTIC) PHENOMENOLOGICAL RESEARCH IN TOURISM, HOSPITALITY AND EVENT STUDIES

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Experience is an intrinsic part of the products and services offered in the realms of tourism, hospitality and events. It is the common denominator that drives and shapes these industries, and many businesses are starting to recognise that experience also occupies a significant place in creating virtual environments. Indeed, the importance of experience as an economic output was noted by researchers in the field of business studies, giving rise to the controversial text by Pine and Gilmore (1999) published over a decade ago: The Experience Economy. Despite the fact that tourism academia has been rather prolific in the study of experience the underlying richness and complexity is often overlooked. The neighbouring fields of Hospitality and Event Studies have followed a similar path and much of the work has been driven by the need to “objectify”. The focus of this talk is on the importance of phenomenological research and understanding the “lived experience”. Although phenomenology is increasing in popularity (largely in the field of Tourism Studies), there is a lack of recognition of the differences that exist between various phenomenological approaches. This paper argues that hermeneutic phenomenology in particular, is a valuable methodology for it allows researchers to explore how experiences are not only constructed, but also meaningfully interpreted by different actors: from travellers, guests, and event participants, to staff members and volunteers. Potential benefits and drawbacks that come with phenomenological research will be discussed, and methodological directions for future hermeneutic-phenomenological research will be outlined.

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IMPEDEMENTS TO TOURISM INVESTMENT: AN AUSTRALIAN SCOPING STUDY

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IMPEDIMENTS TO TOURISM INVESTMENT: AN AUSTRALIAN SCOPING STUDY

ABSTRACT

This paper is a scoping study that aims to identify the impediments to tourism investment in Australia. It focuses on regional perspectives to present an understanding for tourism investment in metropolitan, regional and remote tourism destinations. Despite the Jackson Report (2009) outlining several supply-side inhibitors to tourism development in Australia, the key impediments for tourism investment are not well covered in the tourism literature and are rarely brought together in an integrated manner. To identify these investment impediments to tourism, a case study approach employing semi-structured interviews with tourism industry and government representatives in several metropolitan, regional and remote locations throughout Australia was conducted in early 2010. An overriding observation was that: 1) low profitability and 2) variable demand were frequently nominated as the most significant impediments to investment by the majority of the people interviewed. However, each location has its own unique circumstances and impediments, underpinned by the history of economic development of the region, local planning controls and regulations as well as issues particular to tourism such as location and natural and/or cultural attractions. A number of recommendations have been formulated based on the findings from the case studies which emphasise the identification, monitoring and publicising of approaches and solutions to impediments.

Keywords: Australia, case study, tourism investment

INTRODUCTION

This is a scoping paper undertaken to verify and build knowledge of impediments affecting tourism investment in Australia. The Federal Australian government has recently commissioned several tourism investment studies (e.g. the National Tourism Investment Strategy, 2006 and to 2007), to review issues and develop policy for tourism. One of the most recent, the Jackson Report (2009), was commissioned as part of the National Long Term-Tourism Investment Strategy (2008). Several impediments to tourism investment were described in this report and it was argued that “greater investment in the tourism industry will be essential to build productive capacity and drive long term profitability, innovation and growth in the sector” (Jackson et al., 2009, p. 28).

Despite a recent interest from the Federal Australian government on tourism investment and pioneering research into investment in the tourism literature (e.g. de Oliveria, 2003; Dwyer & Forsyth, 1994; Forsyth & Dwyer, 1993), the impediments for tourism investment are not well covered in academia and government reports and are rarely brought together in an integrated manner. An exception is the Jackson Report published in mid 2009, which was the result of nationwide government consultation on supply-side issues for tourism.

As tourism development is dependent on the provision of investment funds necessary to create and maintain tourism businesses and tourism-related infrastructure (Salma, 2006), further understanding the impediments of tourism investment in Australia is a necessity. Therefore, to
ensure that tourism remains an important factor in the Australian economy, the purpose of this study was to undertake a scoping study to verify and build knowledge of issues affecting tourism investment in Australia. This scoping study drew on the Jackson Report and provides ‘ground-truth’ of its findings. These impediments can then be used to inform tourism academics and practitioners on potential issues or challenges faced by Australian government and tourism operators.

THE STUDY

Tourism in Australia

As defined by Weaver and Lawton (2010, p. 2) tourism is the “sum of the processes, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationships and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and surrounding environments that are involved in the attracting, transporting, hosting and management of tourists and other visitors”. The usual environment consists of a certain area around his/her place of residence plus all other places s/he frequently visits (World Tourism Organization, 1995). Tourism is an important contributor to Australia’s economy. In 2007-08, it was estimated that tourism contributed AUD$33.7 billion in Gross Value Added and employed 498,000 people. Within this period it also represented 3.6 percent of Australia’s Gross Domestic Product (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009b). There has been an increased tendency for domestic tourism to decline while the number of outbound tourists has experienced increased growth. During the period 1998 to 2008 domestic tourism activity flat-lined (e.g. domestic visitor nights fell by 4.5 per cent), while outbound tourism rose by a massive 84.1 percent (Jackson, et al., 2009).

Tourism investment impediments in Australia

Since the early 1990s, a handful of academic studies have contributed to the understanding of tourism investment within Australia (e.g. Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr, & Van Ho, 2006; Forsyth & Dwyer, 1993; Purcell & Nicholas, 2001; Salma, 2006). These studies have provided background information on Australian tourism investment but did little to identify the impediments impacting on this industry. Consequently, processes run by the Federal government from 2006 to the present day relating to tourism investment were reviewed to address this issue.

In 2006, the former Department of Industry and Tourism and Resources presented the report Investing in Our Future (2006). This report suggested that “the research [including industry consultation] showed that factors such as a history of low rates or return, a lack of basic market data, the inherent cyclical and/or seasonal nature of tourism, complexities dealing with government project approval processes, and a lack of coherent vision and direction by governments, all lead to less than optimal development within the sector” (Department of Industry and Tourism and Resources, 2006, p. 1). The Australian Government Response suggested some recommendations referred to processes ongoing in areas such as destination planning and skills development (Department of Industry and Tourism and Resources, 2007).

The current Australian Government announced the development of a National Long Term Tourism Strategy in May 2008. A discussion paper was released in 2008 (Department of
Resources and Energy and Tourism, 2008). A Steering Committee, chaired by Margaret Jackson AC, was appointed and the Committee delivered the Jackson Report to the Minister for Tourism in mid 2009 (Jackson et al., 2009). The Jackson Report focused on supply-side issues for tourism development in Australia. Thirteen impediments to tourism investment were identified and are summarised in the following list:

- Low profitability
- Seasonal demand cycles
- Need for supporting infrastructure - public and private, outside the scope or control of tourism operators
- Limited investor awareness about investment opportunities
- Absence of tourism specific performance benchmarks
- Poor understanding of the tourism sector and its needs in government planning processes
- Complex and lengthy approval processes
- Difficult to predict the length of time for a decision
- Conflict between high natural or cultural value and high tourism value
- Lack of understanding at the regional level of positive economic benefits
- Concerns by local residents about amenity etc.
- Statutory zoning which restricts land use
- Government incentives (land tax exemption) disadvantages from tourism in relation to other land uses.

**Methodology**

To identify the impediments to tourism investment in Australia, the research adopted an exploratory approach research design, which incorporated a three-stage data collection process. A first stage was to provide a background to the research which was achieved through accessing literature in peer-reviewed journals, industry body publications (e.g. reports, submissions, and newsletters), government publications (e.g. reports, discussion papers, and information resources), industry and government web sites, and economic reports. Industry and government publications and web sites proved to be important sources of contemporary information on tourism investment issues.

A second stage was to hold discussions with key informants who were representatives of tourism industry groups, tourism operators and others with experience of the tourism industry. These represented an Industry Representative Group (IRG). The technique of using key informants (Seidler, 1974) was selected to maximise efficiency in locating and interviewing people who were key decision makers or actually operated a tourism business in the regions to be researched or who were identified as knowledgeable in tourism investment issues. Key informants were identified by: direct approaches to tourism businesses in the regions; contacts provided by tourism operators in the regions; approaches to industry bodies; contacts organised by industry bodies with their members; and approaches to relevant government agencies. These were unstructured interviews, conducted early in the research to establish issues as nominated by these key informants (Yin, 2003).
Thirdly, a multiple case study approach (Gummesson, 1991; Yin, 2003) was undertaken in order to draw out more detail on issues identified in the background research. The case study approach has been widely used by researchers seeking to understand tourism investment phenomena within a tourism setting (e.g. de Oliveria, 2003; Mahony & Van Zyl, 2002; Salma, 2006). The advantages of the case study design are: in-depth data is collected; and evidence is grounded in the social setting being studied (Jennings, 2001). The selection of case studies was designed to focus on a regional theme. The regional theme was addressed by selecting case studies in metropolitan, regional and remote tourism destinations. The destinations represented in case studies are: Melbourne (metropolitan), Tasmania (metropolitan/regional), Mandurah (regional), Townsville (regional) and Kakadu (remote). Figure 1 outlines the destinations location within Australia.

Figure 1: Location of the five cases in Australia

Each of the regional case studies involved interviewing six to eight key informants. For each case study, the informants included tourism operators (accommodation, attractions), tourism industry body representatives, and state and/or local government officers responsible for tourism policy/planning. These informants have been identified in past studies relevant to tourism planning and policy (Sautter & Leisen, 1999).

In line with case study research, a qualitative methodology in the form of semi-structured interviews was used to collect the data for this study. The semi-structured interview format was
chosen because: firstly, it does not constrain the interviewer to follow the interviewee’s a priori reasoning; and, secondly, follow up questions can be framed to further extend responses (Jennings, 2001). The semi-structured interview approach involved asking respondents to respond to a list of potential barriers to tourism investment identified from the Jackson Report (Jackson et al. 2009). The approach taken was to allow the interviewees to focus on which ones they thought were the most significant for them and their region and to draw out experiences or views on those, or to nominate other issues. To evaluate the usefulness of the case study protocol, the first interview was used to pilot test the research instrument. Outcomes of the first interview suggested that further pilot interviews were not needed. Rather, the depth of information generated in the first interview adequately justified its inclusion with the other interviews for analysis.

Initial contact was made with the interviewees via telephone or email to identify their interest in and/or suitability for the research. In certain instances, the respondent needed to obtain gatekeeper approval from their superior official prior to accepting an interview. A critical feature of the success in attaining the level of participation achieved was in assuring personnel that they would not be identified in the report and that views would not be identified as representing an organisation. Thus, the case studies are written in a manner to capture views expressed, but without attribution. When respondents agreed to participate in the research and a meeting time was scheduled, they were asked to sign a consent form which outlined their acceptance of the purpose of the research. This form also provided respondents with the solace of confidentiality that their name and/or organisation would not be identified in this research. Interviews lasted for approximately 25 minutes to 60 minutes. The majority of interviews were conducted in person, with the remainder by telephone. These interviews were conducted between January and March 2010.

Destinations

As shown in Figure 1 above, five cases were chosen to identify the impediments to tourism investment in Australia. The first region, Melbourne, is the capital of the state of Victoria, and the second largest city in Australia. The statistics for tourism in Melbourne for the year ended December 2009, show that the city is the highest ranking region in Australia for spending by domestic overnight visitors, and second highest for international and day trip visit visitors. However, from 2008 to 2009, expenditure by domestic overnight visitors fell by 8.1 percent but this was countered by 9.6 percent in spending by international visitors (Tourism Research Australia, 2010a, 2010b).

The second region, Tasmania, is an island and the southernmost state of Australia. It is estimated that the majority (nearly 80 percent) live in the major population regions of Hobart, Launceston, and Burnie-Davenport (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009a). For the year ended December 2009, the total number of visitors in Tasmania increased by 16 percent to 8.6 million nights and the average length of stay rose to 9 nights. Visitor expenditure in Tasmania also grew marginally to AUD$1.47 billion (Tourism Tasmania, 2009).

The region of Townsville is the third case and is located approximately 1100 kilometres north or a two-hour flight from Brisbane, Queensland. There were 899,000 total overnight visitors to
Townsville in the year ended December 2009, which presented an 8.0 percent decline from the previous year. The region also recorded a 9.8 percent decline in domestic visitors and a 2.3 percent fall in international visitors for the same time period (Tourism Queensland, 2009).

The fourth region, Mandurah, is a coastal city located approximately 74 kilometres south of Perth, the capital of Western Australia. This city is a destination in ‘Experience Perth’ one of the five regional tourism organisations in Perth. For the year ended December 2009, it was estimated that 237,700 intrastate tourists (13.0 percent of tourists to the region) and 24,300 interstate tourists (3.0 percent of tourists to the region) visited the City of Mandurah (Tourism Western Australia, 2010).

The final case is the Kakadu National Park at the top end of the Northern Territory (NT). It is remote and is located approximately 260 kilometres east of the capital of Darwin. Data extracted from the International Visitor Survey and the National Visitor Survey indicates that an average of 239,000 tourists visited Kakadu each year over a three year period. On average, 179,000 domestic visitors came annually to Kakadu with an average length of stay of 3.4 nights, whereas 60,000 international visitors visited Kakadu each year between 2005/06 and 2008/09. In terms of accommodation, Kakadu recorded the highest growth in demand for room nights occupied of any NT region, up 23.9 percent from the 2007/08 financial year (Tourism NT, 2010).

Data Analysis

Data was analysed using iterative thematic content analysis to determine key impediments to tourism investment in Australia emanating from the interviews. This was guided by the list of issues used in the semi-structured interviews. An analytical strategy was created before the research commenced to ensure that theory could be built (Eisenhardt, 1989). This included data reduction, data display, and data analysis. Data reduction involved selecting, focusing, simplifying and transforming the raw data, while data display was achieved through the assembly and synthesis of data to draw conclusions about the research issue (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To reduce the data, information that did not relate to tourism impediments at the studied region was not included in the final analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To classify data, the researchers manually went through the transcripts and highlighted or wrote notes relating to tourism investment. This process was utilised as it enabled the researchers to gain creative insight through a manual analysis (Riege, 1997). To effectively display the data, the responses for each case were categorised by the research team in an Excel document once the data had been reduced (Han & Munro, 1999; Wojciechowski & Cichowski, 2007). A deliberate attempt was made to show no anticipated order of tourism stakeholders on their bases of operation at each case. Moreover, to avert concerns about identifying interviewees, this system did not identify the nature of the organisations.

Results

The results from the case study analysis are outlined in Table 1. Only the impediments that were identifiable from the semi-structured interviews at the five regions are presented. The impediments to tourism investment listed in the left-hand column were redefined from the Jackson Report based on the interviewee responses.
Table 1: Impediments to tourism investment in Australia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impediment to Tourism Investment</th>
<th>Melbourne</th>
<th>Tasmania</th>
<th>Townsville</th>
<th>Mandurah</th>
<th>Kakadu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low profitability</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonality</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for supporting infrastructure</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity and length of approval process</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict between high natural or cultural value and high tourism value</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of appropriately zoned land</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict with community groups</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of government support</td>
<td>≠</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key ≠: Melbourne respondents had mixed views on a tourism impediment (availability of government support).

* Most important impediment within the region.

*Low profitability* was the most frequently identified impediment to tourism investment. Tasmanian representatives suggested that tourism has a low profit margin and it was not an industry that an investor would choose to enter for the aim of earning significant income. It was concluded that many of the tourism operators are sole operators and family orientated businesses that are in tourism for the ‘love of the industry’. Townsville and Tasmanian interviewees also argued that investing in tourism was risky and investors would prefer to invest in a ‘safer’ industry (e.g. mining and agriculture) where they can gain a substantial return in investment. It was also noted that in all cases except Melbourne, the marginal return on tourism caused by the increasing costs of labour, insurance and taxes were perceived to make tourism a marginal business for investors. The issue of the Global Financial Crisis (GFC) was seen to be an impediment for investment with low profitability in Melbourne. For example, respondents commented that new markets (e.g. China) exhibit low spending per visitor in Australia and that if growth is to come largely from these markets, low profitability will be an issue.

The impediment of *seasonality* was also a major deterrent for tourism investment in the five case regions. In both Kakadu and Mandurah, the negative impacts of seasonality intertwined with low profitability. All Kakadu respondents suggested that investment in areas such as accommodation, activities and road infrastructure would be unprofitable as many of the locations are inaccessible during certain seasons, and consequently, tours cannot be offered in these periods. Tasmanian representatives suggested that the majority of tourists avoid the state in the winter months due to its noted coldness (being frequency under 10 degrees Celsius). However, representatives concluded that Tasmania is not cold enough for activities such as skiing and snowboarding, so the winter market captured by New South Wales and Victorian snowfields could not be challenged. Thus, respondents commented that the tourists will travel for the six months of warm weather. Townsville experiences a similar weather impediment in that because of its extreme heat and monsoon rain for the summer months, respondents suggested that the destination is perceived by many tourists to be only a holiday destination for the winter months. Thus, respondents suggested that tourism investors have little confidence in a region that will only provide a return on investment for roughly six months of the year.

*The need for supporting infrastructure* was a frequently identified impediment to tourism. For example, greater infrastructure in areas such as marine parks, roads, and signage, was required...
for Townsville to have better access by tourists and business personnel. With the heat in the summer months, it was suggested that travelling throughout the region by taxis was an unattractive and expensive option for tourists. Melbourne interviewees argued that traffic in inner Melbourne was noted to be constricted and an impediment to tourism investment. Kakadu representatives argued that because of limited access to and throughout the National Park, tourists and tour operators were unable to visit certain locations, and, therefore, there was less incentive to build in areas that were inaccessible regardless of their attraction value. Mandurah respondents argued that the management and development of tourism resources (e.g. waterways) was difficult due to the competing tourists, residents and agriculture users’ interests. Further, several Mandurah respondents suggested that whilst the city is well serviced via the suburban transport network from Perth, transport within the region is poor with many parts of the area difficult to access without a car.

The complexity and length of approval process was a noted impediment for three cases. Mandurah respondents argued that the division of responsibility lying at the state level rather than at the local level was a major problem. Tasmanian interviewees commented that bureaucracy within government was a major issue. Respondents noted that in some areas in Tasmania, local councils, town planning approvals, Aboriginal areas protection authority, sacred site approvals, and conservation groups all need to be satisfied before a tourism investment project is approved. All Kakadu respondents acknowledged that because of the Kakadu National Park being World Heritage listed, and under Aboriginal land tenure, developing tourism in the destination is overly difficult. Respondents suggested that the traditional owners need to be identified and consulted which may be a very lengthy, costly process.

The conflict between high natural of cultural value and high tourism value was extremely relevant in Kakadu and Tasmania. Due to the Aboriginal land tenure of the Kakadu National Park, all respondents suggested that it is largely a balancing act between the benefits and limitations of tourism that requires careful consideration between the traditional owners, local community, government and tourism investors. Tasmanian respondents argued that before any development is considered, a tourism investor would need to consult the National Trust and the Cultural and Heritage group from within the state government. Many respondents suggested that it was very difficult to overcome community resistance to tourism, often by environmental lobbies. Some Townsville respondents noted the development on Magnetic Island as an issue for tourism investment. Representatives suggested that the island has a small residential population that feel threatened by the development of high rise accommodation on the island.

The lack of appropriately zoned land was noted as a tourism impediment for several cases. It was concluded that Aboriginal land ownership (the Northern Territory Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976) has limited tourism opportunities such as on the north-west side of the Kakadu National Park. To gain approval was perceived as extremely difficult with the traditional owners being often resistant to the development of their land from non native tourism investors. Tasmanian representatives argued that statutory planning schemes appear outdated and zoned land (e.g. east coast of Tasmania) needs to be re-evaluated. This area provided an opportunity for tourism growth, but because of the zoning, tourism cannot proceed. Mandurah respondents argued that increasing demand for land for residential development to meet the growing
population has increased the price of land, which has led to a conflict between residential investors and tourism investors in development of Mandurah.

The conflict with community groups was seen as a contributing tourism impediment in all cases except from Melbourne. For example, Tasmanian respondents suggested that many tourism investment initiatives have been dismissed by the community groups based on opposition to development. Similarly, Townsville representatives argued that the current redevelopment of Flinders Street Mall, Mariners North and a proposed investment in Castle Hill (all attractions in Townsville) were met with community opposition. Respondents also suggested that the community did not want Townsville to become another tourism focused city such as the neighbouring Cairns.

The availability of government support was an issue for three cases. Tasmanian respondents argued that the industry has a ‘shoestring budget’ each year in resourcing Tasmanian tourism. All Townsville representatives suggested that because the industries of agriculture, defence and mining are more profitable and larger than tourism within the region, government has a stronger support for these industries. Melbourne respondents were mixed in their views on government support. Victorian Government support for the events program had support from all people interviewed. However, some respondents noted a lack of Australian Government support for tourism investment in areas of accommodation and attractions.

Two other impediments to tourism investment not listed within the Jackson Report were identified within the research. In Tasmania, Townsville and Kakadu, access was listed as a major impediment to tourism investment. For example, Tasmania’s remoteness from mainland Australia is a major investment concern. Noted iconic locations such as Cradle Mountain and Bay of Fires were expensive to develop and faced excessive distribution costs as materials would need to be delivered by helicopter because this was the only accessible option. It was acknowledged that Kakadu’s huge size and the substantial distance from Darwin made the Park a difficult tourism investment option. Respondents noted that there is a high cost of the transportation of building materials and food and beverages and human services (e.g. maintenance) from locations such as Darwin. Townsville representatives argued that it was difficult for the region to be recognised as a tourism destination in its own right because it is often grouped with Far North Queensland (e.g. Cairns) and is a long distance from Brisbane.

A final issue of training was perceived as a barrier to tourism investment in Kakadu and Tasmania. Respondents in both cases argued that there was a huge cost involved in training staff. Tasmanian representatives suggested that many new workers are being employed with no or little experience in tourism services. Tourism operators are, therefore, required to train the staff to perform basic activities. Kakadu representatives similarly argued that the region’s employment base is largely unskilled and seasonal. Many of the employees such as backpackers will be trained and work for the peak tourism season and then leave in the off-peak season. Representatives noted that this high turnover of staff causes difficulties in training and maintaining quality staff.
CONCLUSION

Observations and recommendations

Despite the Jackson Report (2009) being an informative document on the impediments to supply-side tourism, research conducted in each of the five regions indicated that each region has its own unique circumstances, underpinned by the history of economic development of the region. The significance of, and issues for, tourism differ in each regional economy. Thus, the potential for investment in tourism and strengths of barriers and impediments to investment differ in each region in line with broader economic conditions, local planning controls and regulations as well as issues particular to tourism such as location and natural and/or cultural attractions. However, it was concluded that eight impediments to tourism investment from the Jackson Report were commonly identified from this research and two additional issues, training and access, were also relevant to particular regions. Key observations and recommendations for this research are provided that were seen to be most manageable and achievable to address the impediments to tourism investment in Australia.

Most noticeably, low profitability and seasonality in the tourism industry were nominated as the most significant impediments to investment by the majority of the people interviewed for the regional case studies. This view was strongest in the Mandurah, Tasmania and Townsville. An opportunity to target higher yielding tourism to address the issue of low profitability, including that related to short seasons, through appropriate investment and marketing should be further investigated. It is recommended that financial analysis should be undertaken of costs of building and running four- and five-star accommodation and attractions (including cultural and eco-tourism attractions and accommodation and attractions in remote areas) and potential returns on this investment and this information should be published in the public arena.

Low profitability was strongly tied in with seasonality in tourism demand in four of the regions. Conversely, Melbourne respondents were all strongly supportive of the deliberately targeted events program for that city which attracts visitors year round. This was seen as significant in underpinning Melbourne tourism. The potential role of events in addressing seasonality of demand should be further investigated. It is recommended that research should be undertaken into the success or failure of events targeted at lengthening the tourism seasons at the margins or held in traditional low seasons, and this information should be published in the public arena.

In terms of supporting infrastructure, better infrastructure to facilitate access throughout the regions was suggested. For example, in Kakadu some respondents were concerned that the lack of wet weather road access is limiting tourism to only part of the year, while other respondents see further road development as not consistent with the natural and cultural values and the current preferred direction for more eco-tourism in the area. It is recommended that governments consider funding tourism specific infrastructure, such as convention centres and cultural precincts—where it is difficult for a private sector developer to capture the flow-on benefits of the projects. For example, transport and tourism specific infrastructure proposals should be subject to Cost Benefit Analysis assessment and governments should assess proposals against other priorities.
There was considerable agreement that new investment is being limited by the complexity and length of project assessment processes. It is recommended that improving the efficiency of the project assessment processes is required. For example, models of innovative approaches to processes including environmental assessment for tourism projects, negotiations with traditional owners for tourism projects and community consultation for tourism projects should be identified and information should be made available to all jurisdictions and in the public arena. Further, research which monitors the implementation over time of the identified approaches to project assessment, should be supported and information should be made available on best practice approaches to all jurisdictions and in the public arena.

The lack of zoned land is a supply issue that is occurring in a competitive market, resulting in land going to its highest use. It is unlikely that any direct intervention via re-zoning freehold land would be justified. Initiatives where governments release land for tourism development, which can benefit the local or regional economy, should be identified and information should be made available to all jurisdictions and in the public arena.

Limitations

A number of limitations to this research are evident. It is noted that one regional case study (Tasmania) did not have a government representative amongst the respondents. Consequently, this destination does not have a complete representation of all of the relevant tourism representatives. It is also noted in one case (Kakadu) that the latest tourism plan was to be released a month after the interviews were conducted. Consequently, responses may have been different if respondents had been exposed to this document prior to the interviews. The IRG participated in the research via initial individual interviews with research team members, contributing reports, and other published information. An interim report containing background research and information on the proposed case study phase was prepared for the IRG by the research team. IRG members provided comments to the research team on this interim report. The IRG was involved in providing comments on the draft final report. The final report does not necessarily reflect the views of the IRG members.

REFERENCES


PORVOO CAMPUS – LIVING LAB FOR CREATIVITY, LEARNING AND INNOVATIONS: A CASE STUDY FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

Porvoo Campus is a new and creative concept for knowledge, business and culture. It will be a place for learning for all the stakeholders working in the area. The planning of the Campus started five years ago. The process has changed from a traditional construction project to a creation of a space that adds value and enhances development and innovations through learning. Porvoo Campus is part of a wider on-going development project in the center of Porvoo, a town 50 km east of Helsinki, the capital of Finland. The Campus project includes the empowerment of academic staff to create a new joint curriculum for six tourism and business programs and ways to promote learning among students, staff and local partners. The aims of the curriculum and development tasks are to anticipate future learning challenges, fulfill the expectations of the stakeholders on the new campus, and bring together the academic staff and industry for new joint development initiatives. The scientific approach in this project could be described as constructive; a procedure for producing innovative models intended to solve real life problems. The constructive approach allows a wide range of data collecting and the participation of a larger group of people in the development work. The methods used this far have been trend analysis, weak signals, learning cafés, interviews and Blue Ocean Strategy. The implementation of the project is at hand. The academic staff is getting ready for a major change from traditional teaching to joint learning with new competences and tools to facilitate the change. Tourism education in Porvoo goes back to 1972. However, today tradition is not enough to make students opt for Porvoo as a study place. Competition is strong and students look for innovative environments where studying is much more than obtaining a degree. The makers of tomorrow’s tourism industry have become the challenge to Haaga-Helia University of Applied Sciences.

Keywords: Higher education in tourism, competences in tourism industry, inquiry learning, anticipation, curriculum development

INTRODUCTION

Society today is undergoing constant transformation fuelled by discussion, co-operation, collaboration and communication. Innovative businesses need employees who network well, solve problems and who tolerate uncertainty. Furthermore, they need to have the courage to look for new solutions and be open to many different viewpoints. Technology, work life and job descriptions are changing faster than ever before. Because of this, boundaries between the different lines of business are becoming blurred, as are the tasks of the different personnel groups. These are the thoughts of Erkki Ormala of Nokia Ltd and Markku Koponen of the Confederation of Finnish Industries EK and with these in mind, Haaga-Helia’s Porvoo Campus sets out to plan for the new curricula, aiming at anticipating future needs and equipping students with all the necessary tools to meet them (Grasping the Future, 2008).

Haaga-Helia University of Applied Sciences is the leading provider of high-quality expertise, regeneration and innovation needed for competitiveness, particularly in the service sector and
entrepreneurship in the Helsinki Metropolitan area. The professional growth and learning are built on strong expertise in the chosen areas, on the extensive use of learning contents and methods supporting the acquisition of expertise in the chosen areas as well as on continuous regeneration. Haaga-Helia is a university of about 10,000 students and 600 employees. The fields of education are business, tourism and hospitality, information technology, journalism, management assistant training, sport management and vocational teacher training. Porvoo unit as a target organisation in the development project described in this paper represents education in tourism and business management in three languages with about 1000 students and 60 employees (HAAGA-HELIA, 2010).

The development project of Haaga-Helia Porvoo unit is a common base for six curricula for six existing programmes (tourism and business management in three languages: Finnish, Swedish and English) and tools to promote learning on the new campus in Porvoo. In this paper the focus lies on the three tourism programmes. The curricula development task at the unit level runs parallel to the construction project of the campus and development project of the Art Factory area in the town of Porvoo, about 50 kms east of Finland’s capital, Helsinki. Porvoo is a dynamic town fostering culture and traditions in a human scale for its inhabitants. The town has about 48,000 inhabitants and is the economic and cultural centre of the region. Porvoo is a bilingual town where approximately one third of the population speaks Swedish as their mother tongue. More than half of Porvoo’s citizens gain their livelihood from trade and services, and one third works in the industrial sector. The town of Porvoo is a popular tourist destination and the importance of tourism is considerable both for retail trade and service sector. The annual number of visitors who are mainly day-trippers is estimated at 800,000, and the main attractions are related to culture and history.

The aim of this curriculum and pedagogical development project is to guarantee learning in the future, fulfil the expectations from the stakeholders on the new campus, and most importantly to get the academic staff involved in the development and engaged in something new.

The scientific approach in this development project is constructive. The constructive approach means a procedure for producing innovations to solve problems in the real life. The constructive approach allows a wide range of data collecting and analysis methods as well as the participation of a larger group of people in the development work. The methods used are anticipation and trend analysis, Blue Ocean Strategy, learning cafés, brain storming and industry interviews. The data used and actors in the curriculum development project are described in Figure 1.

The development project is on-going and this paper focuses on developments until the end of May 2010. The results of the research will be a new curriculum and a new pedagogical approach. Lack of academic discourse especially on curriculum planning in this article emphasises the practical and inductive character of the development and research project.
RESEARCH

Curriculum development project

The campus curriculum development project a.k.a. Porvoo Campus 2010 project is one of the three development projects that will make the western riverbank area in the heart of Porvoo a place (a space) for learning and innovations (Figure 2). Curriculum development is closely tied to the construction of the campus building itself. The content and the walls on the campus must be aligned. It is not possible to move to a new and well planned building designed for future learning with the old ways of working. These two projects are the responsibility of the HAAGA-HELIA Porvoo unit. The third project in the western riverbank area is the Art Factory development project, executed by the local development agency Posintra Ltd and the town of Porvoo. The aim is to create a dynamic and innovative area for culture, tourism, business, leisure, shopping, living, and learning. Porvoo Campus is an essential part of the scheme.

It is occasionally difficult to separate the aims of these three development projects even though they are executed by two different operators in close co-operation. In the first stage of the Campus 2010 and the construction projects the goal, according to three workshops in autumn 2007 in the form of Living Lab, was to create a

1. Campus for Learning and Innovations
2. Campus Art and Culture
3. Campus Business
Figure 2: Three parallel development projects in the western riverbank in Porvoo

With the Art Factory development project the goals above begin to integrate and today they cannot be separated. The goals do not mean just buildings and operators but ways to work and network, to find innovative and profitable processes in co-operation, to mix representatives from different industries in a new way. The Art Factory should bring together operators from higher education, wellbeing, media, art, knowledge intensive business services (KIBS), meetings industry, and tourism sectors, as well as retailing and cinema. The curriculum project should enable a more industry-based approach in promoting learning instead of the traditional teaching and studying. HAAGA-HELIA Porvoo unit will be an essential operator in the western riverbank area in the town of Porvoo. The curriculum development project came to an end at the end of May 2010. The implementation of the new curriculum and pedagogical approach started in August 2010, and the new campus building will have its inauguration in May 2011. Furthermore, the Art Factory is currently being renovated to be opened in 2012.

Anticipation and Trend Analysis

The development project is about producing innovative solutions. Therefore, the scientific approach in this paper is constructive. The core characteristics of the constructive approach require that the development task focuses on real-life problems and produces an innovative outcome to the problem. In this case it includes also an implementation of the developed curriculum to test its practical applicability. This will be described in the next section of this
paper. Constructive research implies a close involvement and co-operation in a team formed by the researcher and practitioners who look for experiential learning. Constructive research is always linked to prior theoretical knowledge and reflects the empirical findings back to theory (Lukka, 2000).

The curriculum development work started by establishing a core group of staff members that had the main responsibility for the process. They involved the rest of the academic staff in the development as a target group for data mining. The development work as a process was quite simple. The set goals come from the Porvoo Campus 2010 work (Porvoo Campus 2010), and the vision of HAAGA-HELIA University of Applied Sciences. The starting points are HAAGA-HELIA’s basic values, pedagogical approach, inquiry learning, (Hakkarainen, Bollström-Huttunen, Pyysalo & Lonka, 2005), the common idea of knowledge, humans and learning, and university strategies. In order to solve the development task and reach the set goals, the core group needed further information, especially on future trends and learning in the future.

The methods used to develop the curriculum and ways of working were trend analysis, brainstorming, learning café and Blue Ocean. Trend analysis is a concept of collecting information and attempting to spot a pattern, or trend, in the information (Ojasalo, Moilanen & Ritalahti, 2009). Brainstorming is a group creativity technique designed in the late 1930s to generate a large number of ideas to solve a problem. Learning café is a gathering to learn, meet others, share meaning and explore new thinking. The Blue Ocean Strategy was used especially for a new curriculum concept and innovation strategies. The Blue Ocean Strategy used is an implementation of Kim and Mauborgne’s (2005) argument that traditional competition-based strategies (Red Ocean Strategies) are necessary, but not sufficient to sustain high performance. Companies need to go beyond competing. To seize new profit and growth opportunities they must create “blue oceans”.

According to the trend analysis carried out at HAAGA-HELIA Porvoo the meaningful megatrends for the development task affecting education and learning are ageing population, economies of global knowledge, changing networks, sustainable development, lifelong learning, and information flood. Grasping the Future (2008) events focuses on the challenge of learning emphasised global, digital and individualist operating environment. Further issues were experiences and risk management. The professionals of tomorrow should have passion to work, open minds and flexibility for changes. The other issue related to anticipation is ways of learning in the future. The following trends could be found there: cooperation, participation, independence, challenge, curiosity, communication, and commitment.

Learning cafés with academic staff helped the project group to proceed in their task. These meetings gave the developers further ideas of learning in the future as well as new methods to implement them as a joint effort. Learning cafés were also encounters to report to the participants on the development phase of the process and position at the time, and to receive feedback on the work from colleagues.

The Blue Ocean Strategy provided ideas for the execution of the new curriculum and innovation strategy. The curriculum strategy defines that learning should take place in projects from the working life where learners (students, members of the academic staff and commissioners)
participate in the implementation and development in a responsible way. The proper concept to describe this could be an application of cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Cooperative learning in instruction uses small groups so that learners work together to maximise their own and other members' learning. The innovation strategy emphasises new roles for learners. The roles can change during the process and in different projects according to the needs. The chronology of the process is described in Figure 3.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 3:** The process of the development task (Source: Ritalahti, 2009)

The collected data was subjected to a document analysis (Ojasalo et al, 2009) in three phases: Preparation of data, data-inspired content analysis, and interpretation and conclusions. The data collected was digitalised to make the content analysis easier. In the content analysis, the data available was simplified, grouped, and finally abstracted. In the last phase, interpretation and conclusions, the methods used to create meanings were pattern finding, seeing plausibility, and clustering. The synthesis of the data resulted in four concepts of know-how or expertise. These concepts of expertise are project management, research and development, coaching and creative problem solving and innovation. The competences forming the fields of expertise above are shown in Figures 4a-4d.
The concepts forming the fields of expertise are not only competences. They are also words that describe a good way of working or a desired characteristic.

The preparation of the pedagogical approach and toolbox for the teaching staff was the next step in this development process. The curriculum work gave guidelines for this work as well. Additionally, HAAGA-HELIA University of Applied Sciences has its own pedagogical approach that must be applied in this work. The background of the idea of inquiry learning is presented by Hakkarainen et al. (2005). Inquiry learning is based on the framework of constructive pedagogy.

Figure 4a: Competences in project management
Figure 4c: Competences in coaching
Figure 4b: Competences in research and development
Figure 4d: Competences in creative problem solving and innovation

(Source: Ritalahti, 2009)

The main ideas are linked to learning together, shared expertise and reflection. The curriculum is carried out through semester themes that are confirmed loosely beforehand. The themes and projects are tentatively planned by a group of lecturers who also figure out the possible ways to implement these projects. When the process materialises, the other learners will join the lecturers to execute the theme based projects. In this case, the implementation of the inquiry learning takes place in six phases:

1. Setting up the development task
2. Building up goals and content in the implementation plan
3. Agreement on working theories
4. Construction of knowledge together
5. Reflection
6. Sharing the knowledge

The new pedagogical approach demands a lot of cooperation between the learners on the campus. It will be very challenging to the academic staff because the tradition has been to work alone. Furthermore, new methods to promote learning are needed. Lecturing is not enough. Perhaps the biggest challenge in this change is to step down from the platform and become a learner.

Industry interviews

After the definition of the competences and pedagogical approach, the next step was to visit businesses and ask for their ideas and comments on the work done so far. The academic staff visited companies for a structured interview in a group of three (two teachers and one student). Each group visited two companies for an interview of one to two hours. The total number of the sample was 35. An interview is a good method to collect data when the role of the target person is emphasized. In this case, the need was to get feedback and comments from the experts in the working environment. Even though the interview form was structured, the interviewers had some degree of freedom when executing the interviews. The interviews were taped and transcribed for the final results and analysis (Ojasalo et al, 2009).

The first two themes of the interviews collected background information of the companies visited. The motive for these questions was to show interest in the companies visited, and to update the academic staff on industry news and operations.

The following two broad questions focused on the competences needed now and in the future. The results were very similar regardless of the core businesses of the companies visited. When looking at the competences needed today, interviewees emphasised communication and language skills, knowledge of the industry and the general skills needed, including customer know-how. Furthermore, they brought up the need for business skills including sales, the right attitude and boldness. The competences for the future were quite similar than those of today. The communication skills will become more important. A new skill for the future was anticipation. The interviews also gave some weak signals for the curriculum work. The weak signals chosen were boldness, use of personality and an eye for the situations.

The next part of the interview focused on the defined competences and pedagogical approach with the concepts behind them based on the anticipation work. In general, the interviewees agreed with all of them. In co-operation the emphasis was on team work and social skills; in learning flexibility to change ways of working, and the implementation of theories to practice; and in commitment entrepreneurship and responsibility were considered important. Furthermore, the respondents took up issues such as innovativeness and networking, cultural knowledge, and environmental consciousness. The last topic, the ability to change and develop work, gave also weak signals and new ideas for the curriculum work: difference between work and leisure, collaborating and sharing challenges, investments in staff, and occupational wellbeing.

Pedagogical experiments
As the new pedagogical approach, inquiry learning is based on themed semester projects with changing teams of teachers and other stakeholders, most of the academic staff participated pedagogical experiments during the academic year 2009-2010. The idea was to work together and combine courses with different content and aims under a project umbrella. The aims of these pedagogical experiments were not that much focused on the inquiry learning as such but more on co-operation and integrating courses. The experiments were documented by the participating academic staff for sharing the knowledge and further research.

The focus experiment here was the Stålhane project that combined three courses for a real life development task. The courses implemented in the project were Tourism Destination (nine credits), Brand Management (five credits) and Service Business Management (six credits). Stålhane is a manor house located in Järvenpää Camping about 30 kilometers north of Helsinki, and 30 north-west of Porvoo. Järvenpää Camping was very well known in the 70’s and 80’s but it started to decline due to the change of the owner generation. It became more a site for caravan owners who had their caravans there all year around. Other services and facilities were not in the interest of the previous operator of the site. As the owner of the site, the town of Järvenpää decided to change operators. The new company needed help in the development work, and they contacted HAAGA-HELIA Porvoo unit. The aim of the Brand Management and Service Business Management courses was to make a new business plan for the manor, and the Tourism Destination Planning and Development focused on elements of competitiveness in a tourism destination.

The critical points in this experiment were the distance, the lack of time of the commissioner and some unmotivated and critical students. It is also important that all the teachers involved participate in the project from the beginning. One issue to think about is to make sure that all students have enough interesting tasks to execute, and that they are well motivated. The cooperation between the teachers in this experiment was good, but they would have needed more back-up not only from the commissioner but also from the university side, because this project was introduced to them by some other members of the academic staff. In the end the project was successful: the aims were reached and the commissioner was satisfied with the results. The teachers involved were positively surprised by the end results of the students.

The Stålhane case strengthened the belief in the new pedagogical approach where risks are an integral element of the learning process.

Ways to implement inquiry learning

One group of the academic staff started to realise what inquiry learning would mean in the everyday work on the HAAGA-HELIA Porvoo campus. The idea was to concretise the six steps of inquiry learning to see what learning methods can be used in them. The method used in this task was brainstorming. The results of the two-hour session are listed below.

a. Defining the development task and problem (semester team)
   i. Preliminary plan to implement the semester (task, courses, resources, partners etc.) discussed by the teacher team
b. Construction the aims and content of the implementation plan (semester with students starts with this)
   i. Commission and preliminary project plan is introduced to students
   ii. Structured student discussions in small groups
   iii. Collecting and filtering data (literature, interviews, brainstorming, benchmarking etc.)
   iv. Result workshop
   v. Final development task and aims

c. Agreeing on theoretical framework (multidisciplinary approach)
   i. Lectures
   ii. Guest lecturers
   iii. Company visits
   iv. Literature lists and reading
   v. Literature circles
   vi. Essays
   vii. Theory presentations
   viii. Final implementation plan

d. Working together to build knowledge
   i. Workshops
   ii. Consultations
   iii. Clinics
   iv. Group and team work
   v. Lectures
   vi. Team meetings
   vii. Commissioner meetings
   viii. Stakeholder meetings
   ix. Diaries, documentation
   x. Implementation

e. Reflection
   i. Written self and team reflection
   ii. Feedback meetings (critical, giving and receiving)
   iii. Future developments

f. Knowledge sharing (dissemination)
   i. Final reports
   ii. Project seminars (including i.e. panels and debates)
   iii. Skills demonstrations
   iv. Articles and publications
   v. Conference participations
   vi. Open doors
This brainstorming session highlighted the versatility of methods available to implement inquiry learning. The empowerment of the teaching staff gives them the freedom to use the most suitable method in any given task.

**RESULTS: CURRICULUM FOR THREE DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN TOURISM**

In autumn 2010 the move to the new Campus is only a few months away. The new curriculum was taken into use in August 2010 even if the academic year was started in the old premises and the prerequisites for inquiry learning had to be compromised.

The overall structure of the curriculum has the following content:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic Studies</td>
<td>60cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>90cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free-Choice Studies</td>
<td>15cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Placement</td>
<td>30cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Thesis</td>
<td>15cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>210cr</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. The structure of the tourism curricula

However, it is not the structure that makes the new curriculum different from most existing curricula as it is determined by the current legislation, but the methodology developed to materialise the new way of learning. The results of the curriculum development work can be studied at various levels:

1. Students
2. Lecturers
3. HAAGA-HELIA Porvoo Campus
4. HAAGA-HELIA University of Applied Sciences

For the students the new way of learning means a change from being an object to becoming a subject. This changes their role from an individual learner to a team member with different roles depending on the learning task. As all the learning takes place in real-life projects, the versatile learning outcomes require the students to actively seek different roles in order to gain the knowledge and skills expected from a graduate. They can be reached in various ways and the student is expected to take initiative in reaching them. There are individual aims but the students are also responsible for collective achievement and the success of the whole team.

Porvoo Campus promotes industry-faced learning, aiming at creating an authentic working environment with all its elements: real challenges, need for networking to identify and engage all necessary knowledge and skills in the project, project management tools, and the ability to work in truly international teams. All of these are highly valued in real projects of international companies as demonstrated by Palosaari, Recruitment Manager of Wärtsilä Finland Oy in Kokkola, Finland on 7 October 2010 (Mr Palosaari, personal communication, October 7, 2010).

The new curriculum comprises the above-mentioned competences within the following business competences:
- Communication Skills in Travel and Tourism
- Tourism Operational Environment
- Production and Sales of Travel and Tourism Services
- Social and Collaboration Skills
- Business and Entrepreneurial Skills

Most of these were also referred to in the industry interviews during the data collection process. With the help of the above-mentioned knowledge, skills and methods the students acquire the most common meta-competences needed in the job market, project management, research and development, coaching, creative problem solving and innovation.

The new learning approach enhances the employability of all students but is an especially welcome and useful tool in integrating international students into the Finnish society. This approach allows international as well as Finnish students to start building their personal networks right from the beginning of their studies, thus facilitating the transition from university to employment after graduation. During the studies, international students already need to learn the ways of working of the Finnish society and business companies in order to be able to find their place in it. The curriculum also highlights the need to learn the local language for successful integration.

Students develop their professional skills and the generic meta-competences needed in work life through the following three phases: adaptation, application and development (Figure 5). The
students’ competences and skills develop in an integrated way when they work in projects that provide increasing challenges as the studies advance.

The modules of tourism studies are described in Figure 6. Study modules are large, ranging from 12 to 45 ECTS credits. The green courses within the modules stand for compulsory studies and the blue ones for either elective or free choice studies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication Skills in Travel and Tourism</th>
<th>Tourism Operational Environment</th>
<th>Production and Sales of Travel and Tourism Services</th>
<th>Social and Collaboration Skills</th>
<th>Business and Entrepreneurial Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>45 cr</td>
<td>21 cr</td>
<td>30 cr</td>
<td>12 cr</td>
<td>21 cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating and Sharing Knowledge 9 cr</td>
<td>Tourism Business in a Global Context 12 cr</td>
<td>Customer-Oriented Sales 12 cr</td>
<td>Responsible Self-Management 6 cr</td>
<td>Developing Business Skills 12 cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Communication 8 cr</td>
<td>Global Business Opportunities in Tourism 9 cr</td>
<td>Developing Tourist Products and Services 6 cr</td>
<td>Organisational Development, Leadership and Management 6 cr</td>
<td>Developing Business Processes 9 cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages 20 cr</td>
<td>Tourist Destination Development 9 cr</td>
<td>Developing Sales and e-Commerce 12 cr</td>
<td>Developing Networks 10 cr</td>
<td>Business Concepts / Internationalisation 12 cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Business Communication cr*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor’s Thesis 15 cr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Study modules in the degree programme in tourism.

(Blue stands for elective / free-choice modules.  * number of credits student-specific.

For the lecturers the change is no less demanding. The work of lecturers used to be a lonely job behind closed doors. They now need to transform into active team players who need to share with colleagues and aim at joint solutions. This calls for commitment, collaboration, transparency, and ample amounts of joint planning.

The once lecturer now has the role of a supervisor, mentor, coach, or a combination of these. This calls for a consultative approach that is not one of the obvious results of traditional teacher education. To facilitate the changing role of the lecturers to supervisors/mentors, the whole staff went through a set of coaching training sessions. The transformation from a lecturer or an expert of any field of travel and tourism into a successful coach is long and demanding.
Over the past years all HAAGA-HELIA degree programmes have renewed their curricula. The majority of them, however, follow a more conventional route in modifying the curricula. The two fields offered at Porvoo, international business and tourism, are also offered on the HAAGA-HELIA campuses in the capital city Helsinki, so there is a pronounced need to describe the difference between the same programmes on different campuses in order to offer the potential applicants an alternative.

With the implementation of the new curriculum HAAGA-HELIA Porvoo Campus is looking for a profile of its own. In Finland the Ministry of Education urges higher education institutions to have their own profile. Furthermore, within the institutions the various campuses/schools/departments need to be able to demonstrate areas of special expertise. Within HAAGA-HELIA the unifying factor between the different campuses is business studies whereas on Porvoo Campus the unifying factor between the degree programmes is the focus on learning.

Learning is not seen as an activity of students only, but also staff members and cooperation partners are seen as learners. There is a drive towards innovative ways of learning, implying the fact that the various learning experiments always carry a risk element. This experimental environment calls for extra resources and training needs, but despite of all human and monetary investment the risk element is constantly present. However, staff are motivated by the empowerment that the new curriculum enables as the implementation of the whole degree is not dictated by the management but is forming in their hands as a result of co-creation with students and industry representatives.

HAAGA-HELIA University of Applied Sciences has six campuses in the wider metropolitan area. Creating specific profiles for the six campuses requires courage and experiments. Porvoo Campus has acted as a pilot several times lately, taking into use new ways of learning and developing the knowledge and competence of the staff. In the long run this will be beneficial for the whole organisation and its human capital.

Furthermore, new ways of further intensifying cooperation with companies is welcome as this is the prerequisite of universities of applied sciences. The new curriculum also facilitates graduation and an easier shift from studies to employment, the requirements of the educational strategy of the country are closer to being met and the travel and tourism industry can look forward to future experts who have the skills necessary to develop the business.

CONCLUSIONS

Porvoo Campus 2010 is an ongoing development project that has given an opportunity to create something new in a Finnish university of applied sciences. To empower a unit and its academic and supportive staff to build a campus of the future is not very usual in Finland or in the international setting. As of August 2010, the curriculum planning phase is complete. There is an agreement on the competences and pedagogical approach among the academic staff. The agreement has not always been easy to find because the members of the academic staff are so used to work independently and more or less alone. In general, change is challenging, and staff
asked questions, such as “Why must we change our ways of working? We have operated like this for the past 20 years – what is wrong with that?”

It is a fact that students cannot reach the new industry competences in the old way of teaching and studying. The focus has to be on learning to ensure that graduates enter the working life with development skills. Furthermore, the emphasis on meta-competences is increasingly important according to this study. The results are also strongly supported by the on-going discussion between academics and tourism industry representatives. Autumn 2010 is the time for the first implementation of the new curriculum and pedagogical approach.

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TOURISM ABSORPTIVE CAPACITY: CONCEPTUALIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE ACQUIRING AND GENERATING CAPABILITIES OF TOURISM ORGANIZATIONS

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TOURISM ABSORPTIVE CAPACITY: CONCEPTUALIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE ACQUIRING AND GENERATING CAPABILITIES OF TOURISM ORGANIZATIONS

ABSTRACT

Knowledge is a source of competitive advantage; with the capability of organizations to exploit external knowledge a source of this advantage. Absorptive Capacity (ACAP) is the ability to value, acquire, and transform external knowledge, assimilate it with prior knowledge, then exploit it by creating commercial or knowledge outputs. A study of ACAP in a tourism context can provide insights into how organizations develop ACAP and how they acquire (or why they do not acquire) external knowledge. Such insights may be of interest to destination marketing and management organizations on how they can develop tourism ACAP; especially given their increasingly dynamic operational environments. Government agencies, external training providers, industry associations, and researchers looking to improve their own or stakeholders’ ACAP may also be interested in understanding tourism ACAP. Developing tourism ACAP may improve preparedness and response to change. It is postulated that differences in ACAP moderators between organizations, ceteris paribus, creates differences in performance, flexibility, cooperation, survivability and sustainability when confronted with exogenous or endogenous environmental change. This article recognizes the value of ACAP; discussing limiting assumptions preventing its widespread use in tourism. Knowledge acquisition, via a brief review of the central ACAP literature, is transformed and assimilated with prior tourism knowledge into a conceptual framework of tourism ACAP. Finally, a future research proposal utilizing ACAP to study New Zealand’s Regional Tourism Organizations is outlined.

Keywords: Absorptive capacity, capabilities, knowledge transfer, tourism organizations

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge is a source of competitive advantage; with the capability of organizations to exploit knowledge a way of maintaining this advantage (Volberda, Foss, & Lyles, 2010). Acquiring additional applicable knowledge and exploiting it can lead to flexibility, responsiveness, performance, and in turn, competitive advantage (Todorova & Durisin, 2007). Government agencies, industry associations, external training providers, firms, and communities all recognize the value of acquiring knowledge and developing their own and stakeholders’ knowledge capacity. Tourism scholars have established research gaps exist in knowledge acquisition, exploitation and transfer studies within tourism contexts (Cooper, 2006; Hjalager, 2010; Shaw & Williams, 2009).

The term ‘absorptive capacity’ (ACAP) has been used in a wide number of disciplines for at least 150 years, e.g., physics (e.g. Stewart, 1859), geology (e.g. Chamberlin, 1899), and human biology (e.g. Leishman, 1902). In business-related research the term is used to explain investment decisions and differing rates of return from capital markets in capital exporting and capital importing nations (e.g. Adler, 1965) and to explain capital being invested in less developed countries and foreign aid projects (e.g. Feeny & McGillivray, 2009). The term ACAP
used here is the knowledge-based construct first conceptualized in detail by Cohen and Levinthal (1989, 1990, 1994).

This paper, suggests that understanding tourism ACAP (TACAP) may provide insights into how organizations develop ACAP and how and why they acquire (or do not acquire) external knowledge. These insights may be of interest to destination marketing and management organizations, especially given their increasingly dynamic operational environments. The paper commences with an outline of ACAP and provides a brief review of the central ACAP literature. It then assimilates this review with the limited tourism-focused ACAP literature, and other knowledge-related tourism research, into a conceptual framework of TACAP. Finally, it is concluded that TACAP, as conceptualized, warrants additional research, particularly in regard to Regional Tourism Organizations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Absorptive Capacity

The ACAP construct overlaps the fields of knowledge, cognition, knowledge management, dynamic capabilities (DC), and organizational learning (Easterby-Smith, Graca, Antonacopoulou, & Ferdinand, 2008; Volberda, et al., 2010). ACAP is grounded in theories and fields such as the psychology of cognition and learning, innovation and competition economics, and co-evolutionary theory (Volberda, et al., 2010). Cohen and Levinthal’s (1989, 1990, 1994) seminal articles identified ACAP as “the ability of a firm to recognize the value of new, external information, assimilate it and apply it to commercial ends” (1990, p. 128). Their 1990 article is the one normally cited as the seminal definition and foundation of ACAP (Lane, Koka, & Pathak, 2006; Van Den Bosch, Van Wijk, & Volberda, 2003; Volberda, et al., 2010). The article’s impact is substantial, with 10,773 citations, averaging 513 citations a year up to 22nd April, 2010 (Harzing, 2009), including 2052 ISI Web of Science articles.

The first two Cohen and Levinthal articles argued that R&D (N.B. their articles do not rule out applying ACAP to other types of knowledge) is dualistically linked to organizational learning, innovation, and competitive advantage. Often overlooked is the future utility evaluation aspect of ACAP mentioned briefly in the first two articles; developed further in their 1994 article (Cohen & Levinthal, 1994, 1997). They theorize the process of recognizing the value of new knowledge facilitates evaluation of the technological and commercial potential of knowledge.

All three articles have self-acknowledged limitations (Cohen & Levinthal, 1997; Lane, et al., 2006), however provided a foundation that has allowed ACAP construct adaption to a wide range of empirical studies and levels, for example, individuals, intra-firm units, firms, multi-national corporations, regional innovation clusters, national innovation systems, and clusters of countries linked by institutions (Van Den Bosch, et al., 2003). Furthermore, ACAP can be applied to cross-disciplinary research in multiple fields (Volberda, et al., 2010).

Relevant perspectives used in ACAP include the Resourced-Based View of the firm (RBV) (Barney, 1991; Peteraf, 1993), Knowledge-Based View (KBV) of the firm (Grant, 1996; Kogut & Zander, 1992) and Dynamic-resource Based View (DBV) of the firm (Helfat, et al., 2007).
Each perspective views knowledge differently, as respectively, a generic resource, intangible resource embedded within the firm, or capability embedded resource supporting other capabilities. In this last process perspective of ACAP as knowledge embedded in DC, which can reconfigure a firm’s capabilities and resources. It is this DBV perspective that is adopted in the TACAP conceptualization.

The RBV and KBV perspectives of ACAP are not utilized to the same extent in the TACAP conceptualization. The RBV maintains competitive advantage is obtained through acquisition and combination of valuable, rare, in-imitable and non-substitutable resources. It treats knowledge as a generic resource or stock rather than as flows. Critiqued for lack of dynamism, RBV is still used in strategic management as a static model, although this view has been challenged in recent times (Kraaijenbrink, Spender, & Groen, 2010). The KBV draws on the RBV (Helfat, et al., 2007). In the KBV knowledge is an often intangible resource, embedded in complex heterogeneous combinations of capabilities, routines, employees, culture and identity, sustaining firm’s competitive advantage via stocks and flows of knowledge. Unless knowledge is updated or renewed then this advantage may be short-term, especially where protection of intellectual property is difficult – such as tourism. The DBV draws on both RBV and KBV. In the DBV DCs (Helfat, et al., 2007; Teece, 2007; Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997) are capabilities that can reconfigure the resource base and capabilities of the firm in dynamic environments. Contemporary ACAP, developed from Cohen and Levinthal’s (1989, 1990, 1994) seminal articles has recently been conceptualized as a DC that underpins organization capabilities and other DCs, as they both have a knowledge-based content, therefore ACAP creates adaptive capabilities during exogenous and endogenous change (Newey & Zahra, 2009).

ACAP’s multi-level utility has been confirmed, definitions refined and re-conceptualized (Table 2). The first four definitions (Dyer & Singh, 1998; Lane & Lubatkin, 1998; Van Den Bosch, Volberda, & De Boer, 1999; Zahra & George, 2002), are considered the most central ACAP articles (Lane, et al., 2006). The last three (Lane, et al., 2006; Newey & Zahra, 2009; Todorova & Durisin, 2007) definitions of ACAP form the basis of the TACAP model conceptualized later in this paper.

These last three papers were selected because of their DBV perspective and focus on ACAP processes. Todorova and Durisin’s (2007) re-conceptualization was highlighted in three recent reviews of ACAP (Lewin, Massini, & Peeters, Article in Advance; Peters & Johnston, 2009; Volberda, et al., 2010). Lane, et al’s (2006) re-conceptualization was highlighted in these reviews and one other paper that proposed integration of ACAP and organizational learning fields (Sun & Anderson, 2010). Newey and Zahra’s (2009) definition was from a search of the last four years ACAP literature as it extend the definition, and appears influenced by subsequent research (e.g. Jansen, Van Den Bosch, & Volberda, 2005) and re-conceptualizations (e.g. Lane, et al., 2006; Todorova & Durisin, 2007) which question one of the authors (Zahra & George, 2002) earlier re-conceptualization.
Table 2 Absorptive Capacity Conceptualizations and Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Conceptualization or Definition of ACAP</th>
<th>Implication</th>
<th>Level of Analysis</th>
<th>Method</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lane and Lubatkin (1998)</td>
<td>Relative absorptive capacity (p. 461). A student firm’s absorptive capacity is its ability to value, assimilate, and apply new knowledge from a learning alliance partner (p. 462).</td>
<td>The prior knowledge, organizational structures, compensation practices, and level of familiarity with the teacher firm’s organizational problems moderates the ability of the student firm to value, assimilate and apply the new knowledge of the teacher firm.</td>
<td>Paired firms in a ‘student’ – ‘teacher’ learning relationship.</td>
<td>Empirical study of alliances between 22 biotech and 48 pharmaceutical firms. Multiple regression analysis used on quantitative data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Den Bosch, Volberda, and De Boer (1999)</td>
<td>“Comprises evaluation, acquisition, integration, and the commercial utilization of new outside knowledge,” (p. 552). ACAP coevolves with the knowledge environment, and can occur in stable and turbulent (with a focus on exploration learning) knowledge environments.</td>
<td>ACAP does not always result in positively changed prior knowledge.</td>
<td>Multiple: (Intra-firm, Firm, and Industrial Complex).</td>
<td>Comparative longitudinal case study of two publishing companies grounded in co-evolutionary and ACAP theory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zahra and George (2002)</td>
<td>“ACAP exists as two sub-sets of potential and realized absorptive capacities.” (p. 185) and “define ACAP as a set of organizational routines and processes by which firms acquire, assimilate, transform, and exploit knowledge to produce a DC that consists of a set of balanced organizational routines and processes that creates knowledge and utilizes knowledge to reconfigure other organizational capabilities to react to dynamic environments.</td>
<td>ACAP is a DC that consists of a set of balanced organizational routines and processes that creates knowledge and utilizes knowledge to reconfigure other organizational capabilities to react to dynamic environments.</td>
<td>Firm.</td>
<td>Conceptual.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Conceptualization or Definition of ACAP</td>
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<td>Lane, Koka, and Pathak (2006)</td>
<td>A firm’s ability to utilize externally held knowledge through three sequential processes: (1) exploratory learning, (2) transformative learning, and (3) exploitative learning (p. 856).</td>
<td>ACAP can be conceptualized as three sequential learning processes. Conceptual model provides basis for possible future normative model and researching antecedents, moderators, and contingences of ACAP.</td>
<td>Individual and Firm.</td>
<td>Bibliographical analysis and conceptual modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newey and Zahra (2009)</td>
<td>Value network absorptive capacity “consists of routines for acquiring, assimilating, transforming and exploiting knowledge specific to a value network (p. 82). A key knowledge-based capability underpinning the functioning of both operating and dynamic capabilities (p. 85).</td>
<td>ACAP is a multi-level construct; both a DC and underpins the functioning of other dynamic capabilities and organizational capabilities. Reconfiguring occurs through both internal and external knowledge acquisition.</td>
<td>Multiple (Intra-firm, Firm, Inter-firm).</td>
<td>Comparative longitudinal case study tracking the portfolio planning and product development used by two firms.</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Intra-firm and firm level ACAP conceptualizations suggest ACAP coevolves with the knowledge environment (Van Den Bosch, et al., 1999), consists of a set of organizational forms and combinative capabilities (Van Den Bosch, et al., 1999; Zahra & George, 2002), and is a dynamic knowledge creating and utilizing capability (Zahra & George, 2002), that is capable of enhancing, gaining and sustaining competitive advantage. Extensions include inter-organizational contexts of alliances (Dyer & Singh, 1998) and ‘student/teacher’ learning relationships (Lane & Lubatkin, 1998). Extending ACAP to inter-organization and alliance levels aids understanding of how ACAP creates organizational capabilities for exchanging knowledge with alliance partners (Dyer & Singh, 1998), and how this facilitates co-evolution of the firms and strategic alliances (Koza & Lewin, 1998); and the need for firms to have relatively similar ACAP and other capabilities and practices in order to facilitate knowledge transfer between them (Lane & Lubatkin, 1998). In tourism papers these implications have been used, in part, to inform studies of tourism-firm networking and the development of core competencies (Denicolai, Cioccarelli, & Zucchella, 2010), to assist understanding the sharing of inter-dependent resources and complementary activities at the destination level (Pavlovich, 2003), and to study how ACAP assists value capture in tourism networks (Ndou & Passiante, 2009).

Zahra and George’s (2002) re-conceptualization of ACAP as a DC that consists of a set of organizational routines and processes that create knowledge and reconfigures other organization capabilities has interested tourism researchers. Although not all have used it in dynamic environments or noted the need for the ACAP processes to be balanced or routine. Instead the focus has been on the reconfiguration of resources and organizational capabilities that leads to competitive advantage.

Case study-based qualitative methodologies have allowed fresh perspectives on ACAP processes, complimenting the dominant quantitative methods and providing further avenues for research e.g. role of power and the nature of boundaries within and around organizations (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008; Jones, 2006). Recent contributions conclude exogenous environmental change is not necessary to trigger ACAP processes, with an endogenous change being sufficient to activate value creation, and that ACAP reconfigures operating and DC, but also underpins them because they have some knowledge content base (Newey & Zahra, 2009). However, many of the papers extending ACAP are conceptual resulting in calls for empirical research being conducted in new contexts and concentration on the gaps in the research such as antecedents and moderators of ACAP and the relationship between them and the ACAP dimensions (Lane, et al., 2006; Volberda, et al., 2010).

Some of these recent conceptualizations have attempted to refocus ACAP scholars from investigating outputs and outcomes of ACAP; drawing attention to the role of moderators and antecedents of ACAP that will affect the outputs and outcomes of ACAP activities. Moderators can either positively, negatively, or neutrally affect the ACAP processes and ultimately the outputs and outcomes of ACAP (Lane, et al., 2006). Individual-level antecedents, such as managerial antecedents, and knowledge antecedents such as prior knowledge and their relationship with ACAP are not well understood (Volberda, et al., 2010). Empirical evidence seems to support the existence of moderators such as regimes of appropriability, gatekeepers and boundary spanners (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990), activation triggers and social integration mechanisms (Zahra & George, 2002), individual agency (Jones, 2006), managerial cognition and
firm strategies (Lane, et al., 2006), power relationships (Todorova & Durisin, 2007), and organizational structures (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008), as well as antecedents such as prior related knowledge, and individual and managerial antecedents (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990).

ACAP advances suggest acquiring additional applicable knowledge and exploiting it can lead, over a period of time, to overcoming challenges, flexibility, responsiveness, performance and in turn competitive advantage (Todorova & Durisin, 2007). This advancement not only recognizes competitive advantage can be acquired from Ricardian rents, but also that developing DCs (Teece, 2007, 2009; Teece, et al., 1997) that allow firms to sense, search, and seize knowledge creates efficiency rents (Lane, et al., 2006) that allow an enterprise to reconfigure their organizational capabilities and increase their adaptability, evolutionary fitness, and survivability when faced with endogenous and exogenous change (Helfat, et al., 2007). By efficiency rents they mean competitive advantage is achieved through the efficient deployment of resources. This compares with a common limitation in ACAP research that competitive advantage derives from deploying scarce resources, such as a firms unique knowledge (Lane, et al., 2006), where a natural monopoly can be obtained in suitable markets (Ricardian/economic rents). Therefore competitive advantage resides in the efficiency of the organization’s processes, routines, capabilities and decision making rather than the resources themselves.

Viewing ACAP as both process and DC means that ACAP does not always result in positive change. Organizational forms and combinative capabilities, plus time-dependent interactions between them, can positively, negatively, or neutrally influence the ACAP exploration and transformation stages’ size, scope, and speed effects of acquiring, assimilating with and transforming prior knowledge (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008). The existence of balanced sets of practiced ACAP processes and routines may explain the difference between early adopter and imitator organizations (Lewin, et al., Article in Advance). Therefore, competitive advantage resides in the efficiency of the organization’s processes, routines, and decision making, rather than the resources themselves. This process/DC perspective of ACAP is utilized in the model of firm level TACAP, developed later in this paper, which incorporates the three learning processes of Lane, et al, (2006) and the five dimensions of ACAP suggested by Todorova and Durisin (2007). Explicating the ACAP processes and adding multiple levels, antecedents and moderators to this conceptual model means it differs markedly from previous tourism focused models that utilize ACAP.

The last decade’s re-conceptualizing and redefining of ACAP as a set of processes, organizational capabilities or high level DC, (e.g. Lewin, et al., Article in Advance; Newey & Zahra, 2009; Todorova & Durisin, 2007; Van Den Bosch, et al., 1999; Zahra & George, 2002) has increased understanding of ACAP and moved it from a R&D and technology focused construct to incorporate different types of knowledge. The new conceptualizations suggest ACAP creates a wide variety of new knowledge and commercial outcomes, such as general, scientific, technical and organizational knowledge and products, services, and intellectual property that in turn can enhance performance, flexibility, and innovation (Lane, et al., 2006). Increasingly, reviews of ACAP literature and reassessments of past research and methodologies are emerging (e.g. Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008; Lane, et al., 2006; Todorova & Durisin, 2007; Van Den Bosch, et al., 2003) to assist researchers to reassess limiting assumptions, extending the
application of ACAP in different contexts such as the public sector (Harvey, Skelcher, Spencer, Jas, & Walshe, 2010) and tourism destinations (Ndou & Passiante, 2009).

Limiting Assumptions of Absorptive Capacity

Assuming ACAP’s relevancy only in R&D context is the first of five limiting assumptions restricting ACAP research; with these limiting assumptions occurring in all but a few ACAP articles (Lane, et al., 2006). The presence of five limiting assumptions in ACAP articles may be a reason why ACAP utilization is not widespread in the tourism literature. The first of the other four limiting assumptions is awareness that efficiency rents are a basis for competitive advantage. The second is that valuable knowledge can reside within the boundaries of the organization, perhaps as tacit knowledge residing within individuals or groups of employees needs to be emphasized. High labour mobility prevalent in tourism is both a valuable source of knowledge through individual agency, but also a mechanism through which knowledge is transferred to other organizations through labour mobility induced knowledge spillovers, which is well recognized in the tourism literature (Shaw & Williams, 2009) but not the general ACAP literature.

The third limiting assumption is most articles focus on knowledge acquisition and utilization, with limited or no discussion on assimilation/transformation processes. As Lane, et al warn, assuming relevant prior knowledge equals ACAP means that capabilities and processes of knowledge assimilation are ignored and therefore a full exploration and explanation of ACAP is not provided. By focusing, not just on the knowledge content, but including processes and organizational structures and capabilities when researching ACAP it leads to a more complete understanding of ACAP. This knowledge content focus leads to the fourth limiting assumption.

The fourth limiting assumption stems from the RBV and KBV. These treats knowledge as a scarce resource, and the resources or knowledge content are unavailable to others, thus creating competitive advantage (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Kogut & Zander, 1992; Nonaka, 1994). This ignores efficiency rents which are created via processes and capabilities creating advantage. The stress is more on how the resources are used rather than merely possessing them. Merely focusing on the knowledge content or resources assumes the processes in each firm are similar and they can be ignored (Lane, et al., 2006).

In summary, knowledge resources and content are emphasized in most reified ACAP articles, with the role of processes and activities, and combinative capabilities in particular, often overlooked or not fully explored as a source of competitive advantage. The authors’ review of 26 tourism articles has shown only one article (Ndou & Passiante, 2009) has contributed in a substantial way to the development and understanding of ACAP. Most scholars are objectifying ACAP by failing to discuss the separate constituents of ACAP’s dimensions. In general, tourism articles that mention ACAP, like the majority of ACAP articles have taken the ACAP construct for granted. This creates a need for a conceptualization of TACAP based not on the tourism ACAP literature, but on the most central general ACAP literature outlined in Table 2.
Applicability of Absorptive Capacity to Tourism

As shown by the brief ACAP overview the relationship between ACAP processes and other contingency factors is not well understood. The identification of such a large number of antecedents, moderators, and contingency factors suggests while ACAP may have a set of processes at its core that most researchers are in general agreement on, that the study of ACAP needs to be extended into infrequently-studied contexts (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008; Lane, et al., 2006; Newey & Zahra, 2009; Volberda, et al., 2010), for example the tourism sector. The number of research gaps creates opportunities for tourism scholars to inform the general organizational fields and vice-versa as advocated in recent tourism papers (Shaw & Williams, 2009), and inform public and private tourism sectors and operators in destinations that are increasingly facing turbulent environments, global challenges, need for increased adaptive capabilities, and difficulty maintaining sustained competitive advantage (Dwyer, Edwards, Mistilis, Roman, & Scott, 2009).

The place of knowledge in increasing the innovativeness of nations is well recognized in the national innovation policies of countries such as Australia and New Zealand (Hall, 2009). There is a need to increase knowledge resources, use, and management to facilitate innovativeness, adaptability and sustainability of tourism organizations (Cooper, 2006; Hall & Williams, 2008; Hjalager, 2002, 2010; Ruhanen, 2008). With change becoming increasingly apparent in the external knowledge environment and the often turbulent internal environment of tourism organizations; “the new breed of managers emerging in the tourism and hospitality industries must have the knowledge content, but, more importantly, must have the adaptive capabilities to apply their knowledge in contexts of change” (Dwyer, et al., 2009, p. 70). ACAP has been used to explore all the above points, but its use in a tourism context is still limited.

Case study-based methodology was the most commonly used method in the 26 tourism articles reviewed, but some of these used ACAP as a minor citation. Examples of tourism papers using, in part, Zahra and George’s (2002) re-conceptualization include induced tourism image creation through relational networks between destination marketers and external agents such as tour operators (Camprubi, Guia, & Comas, 2009), destination marketing systems and website sophistication of DMOs (Wang, 2008), and the transformation of tacit knowledge into enhanced business performance in hotels (Sigala & Chalkiti, 2007).

Similar to most empirical ACAP research; tourism papers utilizing ACAP and quantitative methods with statistical analysis adopted proxy measures for ACAP antecedents and outcomes. The proxies adopted for variables and measurement scales selected have caused validation problems (Cadiz, Sawyer, & Griffith, 2009; Camisón & Forés, 2010; Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008), in particular proxies such as educational levels of employees, patent outputs, and cross-citations. A review of 26 tourism papers mentioning ACAP found that only five attempted to measure ACAP and several did not describe the variable(s) or measure used. Where they did provide details ACAP was measured by a single variable, such as a natural logarithm of the ratio of graduates of technicians (Kumar, Kumar, & de Grosbois, 2008), or used as an independent variable measured by the level of communication between a CEO and the team (Wang, 2008).
A focus on larger hotels in some of the tourism research has meant less attention has been paid to small-to-medium tourism enterprises (SMTE) struggling to obtain knowledge due to their unique characteristics and the context of tourism, and their relationship with the knowledge environment. These SMTE often rely on local tourism organizations or social networks for knowledge (Cooper, 2006). However, local tourism organizations in turn do not always have the capacity to make full use of the available knowledge (Cooper, 2006; Frechtling, 2004) to cope with increasingly dynamic environments (Gretzel, Fesenmaier, Formica, & O'Leary, 2006), and experience stretching of their organization’s marketing capabilities to include destination planning, development, and management (e.g. Wright, 2007). This makes tourism destinations’ stakeholders vulnerable as they are often relying on the knowledge stocks of their regional destination marketing organizations (DMOs) to make decisions on tourism development.

Major challenges being encountered by DMOs include adapting to technological change, managing expectations of the community, having more complex destination management responsibilities, confronting new levels of competition, recognizing creativity in partnering beyond geographical boundaries, and finding new measures of success (Gretzel et al, 2006). It has been observed that “the DMO modus operandi paradigm is quietly undergoing a revolution” (Pike, 2008, p. 101). For example, the Queensland Tourism Strategy (QTS) (Queensland Government, Queensland Tourism Industry Council, & Tourism Queensland, 2006) requires RTOs to implement Destination Management Plans, complete Regional Tourism Investment and Infrastructure Plans, and Destination Action Plans, as well as the more traditional destination marketing activities. While the challenges and factors may differ from RTO to RTO in Australia and New Zealand many of these challenges seem to be occurring in destinations of both countries and are cyclical in nature (Zahra & Ryan, 2007).

Conceptualizing Tourism Absorptive Capacity

Utilizing the central ACAP articles mentioned earlier a conceptualization of TACAP can be established. TACAP is a tourism context specific extension of contemporary ACAP. It is a multi-level construct related to cognitive learning at the individual level (Cohen & Levinthal, 1989, 1990). At the firm and inter-organizational level, TACAP is a DC (Todorova & Durisin, 2007; Zahra & George, 2002); consisting of a set of balanced and regular processes that create the ability to value, acquire, and transform external or internal knowledge, assimilate it with prior knowledge, then exploit it by creating commercial or knowledge outputs (Lane, et al., 2006; Todorova & Durisin, 2007).

Firm or organization-level TACAP is a key knowledge-based capability underpinning the functioning of both operating and DCs (Newey & Zahra, 2009) of tourism organizations. Organization has been used instead of firm to denote that not all tourism focused organizations are commercial in intent, for example New Zealand RTOs can be thought of as quasi-public sector organizations and generally have not-for-profit structures. The outputs have not been adjusted though as even RTOs have some commercial outputs, for example, regional brochure or visitor information centre-operations.

TACAP is a knowledge-based part of operating and DCs shaping the content and processes of these capabilities (Newey & Zahra, 2009) illustrated by feedback loops in the Figure 3 Tourism
Absorptive Capacity Organization Level Conceptual Model creating reconfiguration of the skills, capabilities etc of the organization. The organization boundary is permeable; therefore differing from the general ACAP model, representing not all resources, knowledge, and capabilities are contained within the firm as tourism is a complex set of heavily co-dependent related activities, including customers as a valuable knowledge source (Hall & Williams, 2008). Successfully developing TACAP may provide positive outcomes, such as increased innovation, improved performance and flexibility, and result in new commercial and knowledge outputs (Lane, et al., 2006; Todorova & Durisin, 2007). Importantly, for a heavily co-dependent industry such as tourism, other possible effects of developing a firm’s ACAP include co-evolution of knowledge environments (Van Den Bosch, et al., 1999), and relational rents (Dyer & Singh, 1998; Lane & Lubatkin, 1998) through enhancing capability for explorative and transformative learning and gain efficiency rents through exploitative learning (Lane, et al., 2006). This conceptualization is represented by the model in Figure 3.

The TACAP model, represented by Figure 3, is based on a re-conceptualization of the process models of Lane, et al (2006) and Todorova and Durisin (2007). These have been combined to show the Todorova and Durisin five-stage and Lane, et al three-stage ACAP processes together, then adapted to tourism organizations and incorporating multiple levels, a temporal dimension, and co-evolution of internal and external environments not included in their models. Regimes of appropriability (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Todorova & Durisin, 2007), as both an antecedent to ACAP and moderator of ACAP outputs is included in the model, but included with these are tourism characteristics. These tourism characteristics have been included as they represent an organization antecedent not normally found outside tourism contexts.
Figure 3: Tourism Absorptive Capacity Organization Level Conceptual Model

Absorptive Capacity Processes:
- Recognizing Value
- Acquiring
- Transforming
- Exploiting

Activation Triggers:
- Power Relationships
- Environmental Conditions (stable, turbulent)

Social Integration Mechanisms:
- Gatekeepers & Boundary Spanners
- Power Relationships

Outputs:
- Knowledge (general, scientific, technical, and organizational)
- Commercial (products, services, and intellectual property)

Outcomes:
- Innovation, Performance, and Flexibility
- Ricardian, Efficiency, and Relational Rents

Time:

Adapted from: Lane, et al., (2006); Todorova and Durisin, (2007)
Characteristics may include the type of tourism and demand for it, size of operators and the level of fragmentation across sectors (Scott, Baggio, & Cooper, 2008), weak regimes of appropriability that makes knowledge available to imitators through weak barriers (Hall & Williams, 2008), existence of distinct communities of practice between researchers and practitioners (Scott, et al., 2008), and the relative ACAP (Lane & Lubatkin, 1998) of the DMO/RTO and stakeholders. Managerial and organizational characteristics will also be important, such as leadership and internal structure (Scott, et al., 2008), differences in gatekeepers and boundary spanners; individual agents, and social integration mechanisms may also be contingency factors in the different development of ACAP amongst tourism organizations.

Items above the ACAP processes section of the model tend to be at the individual or intra-organizational level; those adjacent tend to be at the organization level and those below the ACAP section inter-organization level – although this may differ empirically due to structural differences in the organization under study. The dotted lines of the boxes containing skills etc and ACAP processes represents that these are organizational in nature, but may reside outside the ‘boundary’ or micro-environment of the organization. The notion that TACAP takes time to develop is shown, although this relationship may not be linear. The relationships between antecedents, contingencies and moderators have been removed for simplicity (Lane, et al., 2006). However, feedback loops (Todorova & Durisin, 2007) that denote TACAP underpinning and reconfiguring capabilities and resources are included to represent the dynamicity of the model.

Tourism organizations developing their TACAP are more likely to be able to adapt to and co-evolve with their knowledge environment (Van Den Bosch, et al., 1999). Developing their TACAP by effectively developing and utilizing internal ACAP antecedents such as firm members’ mental models drives creativity (Lane, et al., 2006), and thus increase ability to utilize new and existing internal and external knowledge, including knowledge gained through inter-organizational relational activities and learning capabilities of organizations (Dyer & Singh, 1998; Lane & Lubatkin, 1998) and individuals. Feedback loops to the environmental conditions section of the model represent this co-evolution; it also represents how different types of innovation e.g. radical innovation can change stable environments to turbulent environments (Newey & Zahra, 2009).

At the inter-organizational level, and destination level, TACAP is the set of key-knowledge based inter-organizational relational capabilities that are possessed by co-dependent organizations and related stakeholders, that allow them to recognize the value, acquire, assimilate, and transform knowledge in the internal and external environment. Regardless of level TACAP moderates organizations’ response to triggers such as endogenous and exogenous change, and stable and turbulent environmental conditions. Such response may result in positive, negative, or neutral changes in outcomes and outputs. Although not shown here, this model may possibly be extended to include inter-organization and intra-organization level; via extension of the gatekeeper and boundary spanner roles to these other levels and addition of feedback loops to the boundaries at these levels, and incorporating individual, intra-organizational, organizational, and inter-organizational antecedents. Finally, a wider economy destination level model may be possible by taking the TACAP model and linking it via feedback loops to non-tourism sector organizations and individuals undertaking other economic activities and developments (Moscardo, 2008).
The concept that tourism supply side characteristics may affect knowledge utilization in tourism businesses is not new. However, the conceptual model of TACAP does appear to create a suitable framework to investigate the processes, moderators and contingencies of reconfiguring organization capabilities and why the transfer of similar knowledge can result in different organizational capabilities, outputs and outcomes. Although testing this in any one study without reifying ACAP would be almost impossible (Lane, et al., 2006). In short, ACAP appears to be useful for tourism supply side studies involving knowledge exchange in either stable or turbulent environments or through endogenous or exogenous induced change, but future studies need to avoid limiting assumptions.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

An example of where the conceptual model could be utilized to explore the antecedents, moderators and processes of TACAP is the contrasting destination management role of RTOs as set out in the New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2010 (NZTS2010) (Tourism Strategy Group, 2001) and New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015 (NZTS2015) (Ministry of Tourism, Tourism New Zealand, & Tourism Industry Association New Zealand, 2007a; Ministry of Tourism., Tourism New Zealand., & Tourism Industry Association New Zealand, 2007b). A comparison of the two New Zealand strategies reveals the earlier document proposed implementation of what was described in the strategy as ‘New RTOs’. There were to be a reduced number of RTOs with an increased destination management role integrated with their marketing roles (Tourism Strategy Group, 2001). These ‘New RTOs’ were expected to take an enhanced role in destination management, assist in the rollout of sector-wide technological changes, and provide tools to develop domestic tourism. The proposed changes to the existing RTOs into ‘New RTOs’ was considered radical and politically charged (Zahra & Ryan, 2007). The ‘New RTO’ proposal was not included in the NZTS2015. In this strategy the RTOs’ role was refocused on destination marketing. Local government was now expected to play the lead role in destination management, with RTOs reduced to an advisory and coordination role to inform local government planning (Ministry of Tourism., Tourism New Zealand., & Tourism Industry Association New Zealand, 2007b).

An interesting output from the NZTS2010 acting as an activation trigger, was improving RTO coordination and relational capabilities and formation of Regional Tourism Organizations New Zealand (Zahra & Ryan, 2007). Zahra and Ryan use chaos theory; making passing reference to knowledge, finding network response being in part determined by the quality of information and knowledge available. Alternative explanation may include destination management ACAP of RTOs at the time of implementation of NZTS2010 was low, and they did not possess the organizational capabilities to implement the ‘New RTO’ paradigm, nor did local government appear to have the political will to allow this. Therefore, power relationships appear to be present that moderated the ACAP. Finally, the case outlined by Zahra and Ryan, and embedded within the Queensland Tourism Strategy is the role of individual agents. Zahra and Ryan show the CEO of the Tourism Industry Association of New Zealand was instrumental in making changes. In the Queensland strategy individual agents, in the guise of Destination Management Officers are to be employed by RTOs (with state government funding assistance) to write and implement the destination management and infrastructure plans.

Providing understanding of how tourism organizations acquire (or why they don’t acquire) external or internal knowledge and utilize it may be of interest to policy makers and planners. Government agencies, external training providers, industry associations, and researchers
looking to improve their own or stakeholders’ TACAP may be able to use insights gained from the proposed study of RTO’s TACAP. Also, these insights may be of interest to destination marketing and management knowledge intensive organizations such as New Zealand’s RTOs on how they can develop TACAP; especially given their increasingly dynamic operational environments. This gives rise to the question of how do RTOs develop TACAP when faced with endogenous or exogenous change? It also stimulates other issues:

a. How do activation triggers activate the TACAP processes?

b. Why do RTOs seek external/internal knowledge?

c. How do they recognize the value, acquire, assimilate, transform, and exploit external/internal knowledge?

d. How do TACAP moderators, such as individual agents, gatekeepers, and boundary spanners, and antecedents affect the TACAP processes in destination marketing and destination management?

e. Why does destination management TACAP seem more difficult for RTOs compared to destination marketing TACAP?

Given tourism’s high labour mobility (Hall & Williams, 2008), individuals would be expected to have a role in the development of TACAP, although this would depend on the managerial antecedents of the organization. However, in tourism, individual agency is thought to be less important compared to peer-networks (Cooper, 2006). Much of the knowledge in DMOs, similar to other tourism organizations is tacit (Scott, et al., 2008) suggesting understanding the role of individual agents and taking a process view of ACAP may shed important insights into how TACAP is developed (or not developed) compared to studies based on knowledge content.

A possible plausible reason for the observed lack of individual agency is the ‘not-invented-here-syndrome’ (Zahra & George, 2002) of management which may prevent individual agents being able to influence other gatekeepers in the organization and thereby preventing knowledge transfer, and reconfiguration of organizational routines and capabilities. The study of TACAP of RTOs, using qualitative methods, rather than quantitative survey based methods utilizing statistical sampling, may provide richer data that will increase understanding of the role individuals play in ACAP development in tourism.

CONCLUSIONS

Despite the apparent utility of ACAP to provide new insights and understanding to tourism stakeholders, it does not appear to be well exploited. Only one of the 26 tourism articles mentioning ACAP reviewed for this paper used the term in the title, abstract, or key words, with most treating ACAP as a minor citation. This one paper reported and demonstrated “that together the three components of absorptive capacity explain up to 81% of variation in value creation capacity of firms” (Ndou & Passiante, 2009, p. 283). Tourism studies seemed to have failed to recognize the value of ACAP, assimilate it with current knowledge, and exploit the construct. This article has attempted to begin addressing this issue by developing a definition and conceptual model of TACAP. The TACAP model transforms contemporary process and DC definitions and models of ACAP to make it applicable to tourism and allows further exploitation of ACAP in tourism contexts.

ACAP has been identified as being applicable to tourism related studies (Hall & Williams, 2008; Scott, et al., 2008). Studying ACAP in tourism contexts may provide insights into how
tourism organizations develop TACAP via a set of balanced processes of knowledge value recognition and acquisition (explorative learning capabilities), assimilation and/or transformation (transformative learning capabilities) and exploitation (exploitative learning capabilities). It may also provide opportunities to inform the wider ACAP field of studies by applying ACAP to another context and sector.

Seizing knowledge and combining it with prior knowledge may create new organizational and DCs increasing growth and innovativeness (Teece, 2009), but also increasing responsiveness and adaptability to endogenous and exogenous change. However, moderators and antecedents of ACAP processes can affect the triggering of ACAP and its outputs and outcomes. Therefore, knowledge activities can positively, negatively, or neutrally affect the organization; with efficiency rents being the source of competitive advantage rather than Ricardian rents. This is especially important where regimes of appropriability are weak as in tourism; with tourism organizations having difficulty protecting itself from imitators – sometimes termed tourism’s innovation defectiveness (Hjalager, 2002, 2010). Studying TACAP may give fresh perspectives and alternative explanations as why tourism organizations do, or do not seem to value certain types of knowledge or have difficulty acquiring, managing and exploiting it (Cooper, 2006; Frechtling, 2004; Ruhanen, 2008).

Except for a few isolated studies there has been very little substantial research of how DMOs can change quickly or effectively (Gretzel et al., 2006). The central position of New Zealand’s RTO in their regional tourism networks including being repositories and intermediaries of local tourism and other knowledge; the challenges and tensions they face with their, primarily, destination marketing, but also destination management knowledge and capabilities adaption, means the regional destination system is vulnerable if these organizations are unable to absorb new or utilize existing internal knowledge and exchange it with stakeholders. This vulnerability, and its implication to sustaining tourism in the region, is why the suggestion of a future research agenda studying the ACAP of New Zealand’s RTOs is proposed.

Developing TACAP may improve organizations’ preparedness and response to change. It is postulated that differences in TACAP between tourism organizations, ceteris paribus, creates differences in performance, flexibility, cooperation, survivability and sustainability when confronted with exogenous or endogenous environmental change. This article recognizes the value of ACAP; briefly discussing limiting assumptions preventing its widespread use in tourism. Knowledge acquisition, via a brief review of the central ACAP literature, is transformed and assimilated with tourism characteristic knowledge into a conceptual framework of TACAP. In future, planned research, based on the outlined conceptualization will be exploited by using the case of selected New Zealand RTOs to test the concept of TACAP using a case study based qualitative methodology approach. A final conclusion is that TACAP, as conceptualized, warrants additional research, such as in one of the author’s proposed study of ACAP destination marketing and management knowledge within the context of New Zealand’s Regional Tourism Organizations.

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RESEARCH INTO THE USES OF MOBILE TECHNOLOGY IN LEARNING SUPPORT IN TRAINING FOR TOURISM AND TRAVEL

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

Mobile technology provides a ubiquitous platform for supporting education and corporate training at all levels of travel and tourism. However caution should be exercised if mistakes from failed e-learning initiatives are to be avoided. This session discusses the increasing uses of mobile technology in travel and tourism training and education. It provides practical scenario-based examples across education of how mobile technology can enrich the learning experience, provide a multi-functional tool for gathering evidence and for researching. These aspects are discussed in relation to e-Portfolios and interoperability considerations.
Theme: Modelling Tourist Decision Making

An agent-based model of tourists’ in-destination decision-making: Modelling, visualising and validating. (Working paper abstract).
Crile Doscher, Clive Smallman, Kevin Moore and David Simmons, Lincoln University, NZ.

Clive Smallman, Crile Doscher, Kevin Moore and David Simmons, Lincoln University, NZ.

Destination ‘ease’ and tourist decision making: Tourism as a cascade of nested freedom . (Working paper abstract).
Kevin Moore, Clive Smallman, Jude Wilson, David Simmons and Crile Doscher, Lincoln University, NZ.

David Simmons, Clive Smallman, Crile Doscher and Kevin Moore, Lincoln University, NZ.
AN AGENT-BASED MODEL OF TOURISTS’ IN-DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING: THEORY GROUNDED IN REALITY

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The manner and nature of international tourists’ decision-making is of enduring interest to business managers and owners, policy maker and researchers. Owners and managers seek ideas on how to improve profitability and return on investment, and policy maker seek economic growth, improved social cohesion and a lower ecological footprint. The quest of researchers to develop evidence-based theory in support of these aims is reflected in the extensive literature, which focuses heavily upon the decision-making process that leads up to the choice of destination. With a relatively few exceptions the choices that international tourists make when ‘in-destination’ are largely under-researched.

We report our attempts to develop a computer simulation of tourists’ in-destination decision-making behaviour in New Zealand. This is based on our empirical understanding of international tourist decision-making processes and upon the tourism, general decision-making, and computer science literatures. This FRST-funded project aims to develop science and policy advice to enable the enhancement of economic and social ‘yield’ from tourism in New Zealand, whilst mediating its ecological impact.
AN AGENT-BASED MODEL OF TOURISTS’ IN-DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING: MODELLING, VISUALISING AND VALIDATING

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper demonstrates the development and verification of an agent-based model of tourism decision-making in New Zealand. Naturally occurring groups of tourists are the primary agents in the simulation. These groups will be formed with respect to several key variables derived from previous research exploring tourist decision-making. Among the more important variables to be modelled are: group size and composition (particularly the presence of children); length of stay; nationality; and mode of travel. Once ‘agent based’ simulations are developed they will then be validated and verified against IVS data before being used to model different scenarios and their impact on spatial yield. The model is being developed in the RePast platform using vector based features and a key task is to make it accessible to industry leaders. Visualisation of model outputs is seen as a key pathway to sector uptake. This FRST-funded project aims to develop science and policy advice to enable the enhancement of economic and social ‘yield’ from tourism in New Zealand, whilst mediating its ecological impact.
DESTINATION ‘EASE’ AND TOURIST DECISION MAKING: TOURISM AS A CASCADE OF NESTED FREEDOM

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

On-site tourist decision making is often seen as a patterned but fluid, dynamic and even idiosyncratic process. In this paper we present the findings of a study of tourist decision making in ten sites in Canterbury, New Zealand. It involved 140 semi-structured interviews with international tourists and on-site observations. Interviews explored specific instances of decision making related to itineraries, activities, accommodation and everyday purchases. Factors related to any changes in plans or decisions and the involvement of others in the decision making process were investigated. Qualitative analysis suggested three primary dimensions upon which decisions were made: (In)Flexibility; On-site-Off-site; Social composition. This led to a ‘cascade model’ of tourist decision making. Of particular relevance to the discussion presented here is the relationship of these dimensions to the perception (and reality) of tourists that New Zealand was an ‘easy’ destination to travel within and for decision making. We explore the implications of ‘ease’ of a destination for understanding tourist decision making and for the management and provision of tourism and tourism experiences. This FRST-funded project aims to develop science and policy advice to enable the enhancement of economic and social ‘yield’ from tourism in New Zealand, whilst mediating its ecological impact.
IDENTIFYING AND MODELLING THE HIGH-YIELDING TOURIST – AN AGENT BASED MODELLING APPROACH

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Over the past few years the concept of tourism yield has come increasingly into focus. While yield has traditionally been confined to financial dimensions (particularly in the aviation and accommodation sectors) more recent efforts have researched economic and sustainable perspectives, which is part of a broader global shift to take into account tourism’s wider draw on resource streams. To the present New Zealand work has been predominantly focussed from a supply side perspective examining yield from both the private (sub) sector and public sector dimensions. Our hypothesis is that it is now possible to identify which tourists (and their itineraries) generate different yield outcomes across financial, economic, social and environmental dimensions. One vehicle to identify policy and market (behavioural) interventions is to build an ‘agent based” model of tourist decision making, based on in-depth understandings of the itinerary, activity and expenditure decision making. The model can then be examined against current patterns of tourist itineraries as evidenced in data within the International Visitor survey. We aim to achieve this by developing and refining disaggregated measure of tourist activity, time and expenditure budgets: integrating these outputs from a supply side analysis of tourism yields, and then simulating tourist decision making via agent based modelling for scenario analysis. This paper presents the framework for this FRST funded research and draws attention to the challenges in understanding and modelling tourist behaviour. The paper also serves as a framework for examination of more detailed aspects of the research as presented by Moore et al, Smallman et al, and Doscher et al, elsewhere in this conference.
Theme: Nature-based and Special Interest Tourism

Emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders.  
(Full paper).
Monica Torland, Southern Cross University, Australia.

Assessment of nature-based tourism in northern peninsular Malaysia.  
(Working paper).
Azizan Marzuki, Noor Arbaayah Hashim Mohd and Tarmiji Masron, 
University Sains Malaysia, Malaysia.

Branding wilderness? ‘Place’ promotion and natural areas.  
(Working paper abstract).
Anna Thompson, University of Otago, NZ.

Co-creation of IT services to finance nature based tourism - a study on the 
williness to pay for cross-country skiing services in Sweden.  
(Working paper).
Tobias Heldt, Dalarna University, Sweden.

Constructing heritage through narratives and brandings: The case of 
the world heritage of the Great Copper Mountain in Falun, Sweden.  
(Working paper abstract).
Susanna Heldt Cassel, Dalarna University, Sweden.

Development of a measuring tool for the wellness spa industry.  
(Working paper abstract).
Maria Hyde-Smith, AUT University, NZ.

Footprints Waipoua: Using interpretation to develop tourism 
opportunities for local communities.  
(Working paper abstract).
Jonathon Spring, AUT University and Koro Carman, 
Footprints Waipoua, NZ.

Small but imperfectly formed: Investigating barriers to success in 
a community heritage attraction.  
(Working paper abstract).
Jane Legget, AUT University, NZ.

The state of nature-based tourism in Pinatubo volcano after its explosion:  
Issues, challenges and prospects.  
(Working paper- abstract).
Ignacio C. Cordova Jr, Our Lady of Fatima University, Philippines.

The vegan tourist – a conceptual look at the new ‘eco’-tourist.  
(Working paper abstract).
Alice Graeupl, AUT University, NZ.
EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND JOB SATISFACTION OF ADVENTURE TOUR LEADERS

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EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND JOB SATISFACTION OF ADVENTURE TOUR LEADERS

ABSTRACT

Although a growing body of literature has emerged within the area of adventure tourism in recent years, no research to date has focused on the relationships between emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders in a human resource management (HRM) context. The present study aims to address this gap in the literature by examining the potential effect of two types of emotional labour, surface acting and deep acting, on the job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders employed within Australia. Whilst surface acting refers to faking feelings that are not really felt, or hiding feelings that are inappropriate to display, deep acting is concerned with aligning one’s true feelings with the ones required by the job. An on-line survey measuring adventure tour leaders’ levels of emotional labour and job satisfaction was made available on the internet for a period of two months, between November and January, 2009/2010. A sample of 137 participants responded to this survey. The results show that while deep acting has a statistically significant positive impact on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction, there is no statistically significant relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with research suggesting that deep acting could help to convey a sense of authenticity and a feeling of achievement in employees, thus leading to higher levels of job satisfaction. This, in turn, has implications for the way adventure tour operators manage their employees in relation to HRM areas such as recruitment, selection, training, development, performance appraisal and retention.

Keywords: Adventure tourism, adventure tour leaders, emotional labour, job satisfaction, human resource management

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to critically examine the relationships between emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders through the method of an on-line survey. Emotional labour involves the management of emotions by employees in order to meet organisational expectations entailed in their job roles (Hochschild, 1983). More specifically, this study aims to investigate the potential effect of two types of emotional labour, surface acting and deep acting, on the job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders employed within Australia. While surface acting refers to faking feelings that are not really felt, or hiding feelings that are inappropriate to display, deep acting is concerned with aligning one’s true feelings with the ones required by the job (Hochschild, 1983). The relationships between these two types of emotional labour and job satisfaction are important because they could impact on tourists’ experiences and satisfaction and thus on adventure tour operators themselves. Whilst a variety of research has already been conducted within the area of adventure tourism, no research to date has focused on the relationships between emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders in a human resource management context. Hence, this study addresses a substantive gap in the current research literature. This means that new insight could be gained that might assist adventure tour operators to manage their human resources in a way that will assist future success of the industry.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Figure 1 depicts a visual representation of the exact focus area of the current study (represented by the shaded grey area). It shows that this study is focusing on the relationships between emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders. This focus area is located at the intersection of the study areas of emotional labour, job satisfaction, adventure tourism, and adventure tour leaders. No previous research has been conducted that explores the intersection between these four study areas.

![Figure 1. Focus Area of the Current Study](image)

EL = emotional labour. JS = job satisfaction. AT = adventure tourism. L = leaders.

Emotional Labour

The term ‘emotional labour’ was first used by Hochschild (1983) in her book *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling*. According to Hochschild (1983), emotional labour has a potential negative impact on employees. She suggested that by making emotions public, employers impose a pressure on workers to display particular feelings in interactions with clients. Consequently, workers might experience identity confusion, self-estrangement and self-alienation which, in turn, could lead to feelings of anxiety, frustration and exhaustion. Other consequences could be a decrease in job satisfaction, withdrawal and scepticism, and feelings of ethical failure (Hochschild, 1983).

Despite a variety of research being conducted on emotional labour in relation to different occupational groups, such as nurses (Dahling, 2007; Wolcott-Burnam, 2004), teachers (Jenkins & Conley, 2005; Winograd, 2003; Zembylas, 2004), and hotel workers (Chu, 2002; Johanson & Woods, 2008), only a few researchers have applied the concept of emotional labour to the occupational group of adventure tour leaders (Arnould & Price, 1993; Hillman, 2003; Holyfield, 1999; Holyfield & Jonas, 2003; Sharpe, 2002, 2005a, 2005b). This lack of research is particularly surprising given that most adventure tour leaders operate within a high risk environment which requires close proximity to their clients, often over an extensive period of time. This, in turn, gives little room to retreat to a backstage area where the leaders can ‘relax’ and ‘step out of character’ (Goffman, 1959). In other words, the extended, affectively-charged and intimate nature of adventure tourism indicates that adventure tour leaders could be experiencing emotional labour in its most intense form (Sharpe, 2005b).

The distinction between the surface acting and deep acting dimensions of emotional labour is important because each suggests an essentially different internal state that could have differential effects on employees’ well-being and requires emotional effort in different forms.
(Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Surface acting is generally believed to be most draining for employees since this type of emotional labour entails the largest amount of *emotional dissonance*, which refers to a state of emotional discomfort that employees might experience as a result of incongruence between their displayed and genuine emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006; Van Dijk & Kirk, 2007). In this connection, Zammuner and Galli (2005, pp. 283-284) shed some more light on why this might be so:

…frequent surface acting is a psychologically ‘unproductive’, dysfunctional regulation process in that, instead of reducing emotional dissonance (between the felt and prescribed emotion), it aggravates it because the worker expresses an ‘untrue’, ‘false’ emotion (dissonant with the felt one), causing distress and psychological ill-being. Instead, the worker’s activation of deep acting, a process of intrapsychic regulation whose goal is to feel the context-required emotions, not only is effective in reducing emotional dissonance but facilitates the ongoing social exchange, making it both subjectively more pleasant, and more in line with the organization’s prescriptions.

In this sense, Zammuner and Galli (2005, p. 284) suggested that surface acting triggers a ‘vicious’ circle of emotion regulation, whilst deep acting triggers a ‘virtuous’ circle of emotion regulation. One example of surface acting is when an employee puts on a ‘mask’ of empathy towards a difficult client while, in reality, feeling annoyed with the respective client. One example of deep acting is when an employee, although initially feeling annoyed with a difficult client, manages to change her or his feeling of annoyance into empathy by imagining that the respective client had a very bad day (e.g. death in the family, health problems).

This is consistent with research suggesting that deep acting could generate a display of more ‘authentic’ emotions than surface acting which (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Grayson, 1998; Kruml & Geddes, 2000), in turn, could convey a sense of authenticity in employees as opposed to a sense of inauthenticity (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983). In the context of adventure tourism, this authenticity associated with deep acting seems to be more valued by adventure tour leaders than the inauthenticity linked to surface acting. Sharpe (2005b), for instance, reported that whereas adventure tour leaders perceived deep acting as a vital part of their job, surface acting was looked at as an insult and moral flaw to the trip leading process and referred to as leading a ‘canned trip’. Consequently, adventure tour leaders’ preferred way of emotion regulation was deep acting because this was looked at as the more authentic and ‘real’ way to interact with clients. In addition, adventure tour leaders reported that mastering the emotional demands of their job through deep acting installed in them a feeling of personal achievement and pride (Sharpe, 2005b). As indicated by Zammuner and Galli (2005) then, these positive outcomes of deep acting could facilitate a more authentic social interaction between adventure tour leaders and their clients who, as a result, are likely to look at each leader as being a ‘friend’ rather than a commercial service provider (Arnould & Price, 1993). Surface acting, on the other hand, is likely to cause frustration for both parties in the leader-client relationship due to the inauthentic, more ‘shallow’ interaction that is involved in this form of emotional labour which, if performed frequently, could lead to exhaustion in employees (Hochschild, 1983).

It should be noted, however, that while surface acting and deep acting are measured as clear cut categories in this study, it is likely that emotional labour would be better represented as a continuum (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Figure 2 shows that emotional labour could be
envisioned as a continuum ranging from surface acting, through deep acting, to genuine emotion display. Imagining an employee who has recently been hired as an adventure tour leader with limited experience in the profession, it is likely that she or he initially would perform surface acting since this is perceived to be the ‘simplest’ type of emotional labour which requires limited emotional competence (McShane, McShane, & Travaglione, 2007). Nevertheless, the drawback is that surface acting involves the display of emotions that are not really felt and the suppression of genuine emotions that are inappropriate to display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). This, in turn, could lead to a high level of emotional dissonance with the associated negative feeling of inauthenticity (Van Dijk & Brown, 2006; Van Dijk & Kirk, 2007).

Over time, however, as the employee gains more experience in the field, she or he may start to internalise the emotions that are required to be displayed to clients (Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000; Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). What this means in practice is that, due to the discomfort of emotional dissonance and the feeling of inauthenticity that comes with surface acting, there may be a certain pressure for the employee to align her or his genuine emotions with the required emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000). One way that such internalising could take place is through deep acting, where the employee makes an effort to change her or his true emotions into the ones required by the job (Collishaw, Dyer, & Boies, 2008; Grandey, 2003; Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005; Van Dijk, Smith, & Cooper, 2009). By performing deep acting then, emotional dissonance could be reduced or completely eliminated, with the result that the employee feels mostly authentic (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Deep acting generally requires more advanced emotional competence than surface acting and (Brotheridge, 2006b), while the ability to deep act may be partly inherent (Dubrin, Dalghlish, & Miller, 2006), formal training is likely to enhance the employee’s skills level and effectiveness in performing this type of emotional labour (Anderson, 1993; Brotheridge, 2006a; Grandey, 2003).

After many years of gaining experience in the job as an adventure tour leader, the employee may come to a point where she or he does not perform emotional labour anymore. This is when the employee displays her or his genuine emotions to clients, with an associated feeling of authenticity and no emotional dissonance (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Chu & Murrmann, 2006; Diefendorff et al., 2005). It is acknowledged, however, that a person who gets hired as an adventure tour leader could be positioned at any point along the continuum in Figure 2 depending on the composition of her or his previous experience and emotional competence. Additionally, it is possible for an employee to ‘jump’ along the continuum,
thereby applying surface acting, deep acting, or genuine emotion display depending on situational circumstances (e.g. an experienced adventure tour leader may occasionally perform surface acting).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction remains one of the most researched topics within organisational behaviour (Ghazzawi, 2008). From Hoppock’s (1935) classic study on job satisfaction, the field has attracted a considerable amount of research that has investigated almost every conceivable aspect of the subject (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Jones & Sloane, 2009; Kaplan, Warren, Barsky, & Thoresen, 2009; Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Locke, 1976). A multiplicity of occupational groups have been examined in relation to job satisfaction, such as counsellors (Jones, Hohenshil, & Burge, 2009), teachers (Cha, 2008; Tillman & Tillman, 2008), nurses (Ho, Chang, Shih, & Liang, 2009), and hotel workers (Attia, 2007; Sledge, Miles, & Coppage, 2008). Still, there seems to be no research so far that attends to the job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders in particular. In a tourism context, however, Urry (2002) remarked that sometimes there is a contradiction between poor work conditions and job satisfaction – work conditions may be poor, but job satisfaction high. One reason for this could be that employees do not really consider their job as ‘work’ since the business is involved with the provision of leisure. Research conducted on tour representatives, for instance, shows that the fun and independence of the job offers employees a lifestyle that makes the job enjoyable despite any negative work aspects, such as adverse effects of emotional labour (Guerrier & Adib, 2003). Provided that many adventure tour leaders undeniably would experience fun and independence in their work, these findings from the tourism industry are likely to be relevant also for participants in the current study.

Relationships between Emotional Labour and Job Satisfaction

Whereas a considerable amount of research has been conducted within the areas of emotional labour and job satisfaction separately, less attention has been given to explore the relationships between these two areas. Nonetheless, a few researchers have addressed this in their studies. For example, some researchers have proposed that deep acting could have a negative (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983) or neutral (Johnson & Spector, 2007; Judge, Woolf, & Hurst, 2009) impact on employees’ job satisfaction, while other research has shown that deep acting could have a positive impact on workers’ job satisfaction (Ibanez-Rafuse, 2010; Ozturk, Karayel, & Nasoz, 2008). Furthermore, some studies have suggested that surface acting is unrelated to job satisfaction of employees (Johnson & Spector, 2007; Ozturk et al., 2008), whilst other studies have shown that surface acting has a negative effect on employees’ job satisfaction (Bono & Vey, 2005; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Judge et al., 2009). Contrary to Hochschild’s (1983) suggestion then, which implies that emotional labour has uniformly negative consequences for employees’ job satisfaction, the above research opens up the possibility that emotional labour could also be positive. This view is consistent with other studies which propose that emotional labour can involve both positive and negative features (Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007; Wharton, 1993; Zembylas, 2004). Thus, given the sense of authenticity and feeling of achievement linked to deep acting, and the sense of inauthenticity associated with surface acting, the following two hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Deep acting has a significant positive effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 2: Surface acting has a significant negative effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction.

METHOD

Participants

Participants in the present study were 137 adventure tour leaders employed within Australia. Of these participants, 28 were female (20%) and 109 were male (80%). All participants were over the age of 18, but the 40-44 category had the highest representation with 18% of participants located in this age group. The majority of participants consisted of Australian citizens (85%). In regards to education, 75% of participants had completed a Certificate III/IV or higher as their highest level of education, although Bachelor degree was the category with the largest frequency (23%).

Procedures and Sampling

The data reported in this paper were collected as part of a broader Ph.D. study conducted at Southern Cross University, Lismore, Australia (ethics approval number ECN-09-100). This Ph.D. study examined the relationships between emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders, which is the focus area of the current paper. While other areas like adventure tour leaders’ gender and multiple identities were also examined in the Ph.D. study, it is outside the scope of this paper to cover these areas in any detail.

The sample frame for the present study included a range of on-line searching functions and organisation lists found on the websites of Australian outdoor organisations and associations as well as relevant tourism organisations, government departments, and national parks authorities. Adventure organisations that were thought to fulfil the following selection criteria were included in a data base for later use. First, the adventure organisations had to employ workers who led one or more of nine specified outdoor adventure activities (abseiling, bushwalking, canoeing, canyoning, caving, kayaking, mountain biking, river rafting, and rock climbing). The main reason for this was that the use of specific adventure activities as key words instead of the more general ‘adventure tourism’ facilitated the identification of suitable adventure organisations via on-line searching functions. Second, the adventure organisations had to be based in Australia. This was due to time restrictions of the study and the selected adventure activities were predicted to be readily available within this geographical boundary. Third, the adventure organisations had to cater for tourists/recreationists fitting into one or more of six specified client groups (corporate groups, sporting clubs, leisure groups, family and friends, couples, and individuals). This criterion was applied in order to exclude adventure organisations that merely offered outdoor education and/or adventure education to students from the study.

Selected adventure organisations were first contacted via e-mail or on-line contact forms, requesting the person receiving the information to please forward it to the organisation’s adventure tour leaders. Potential participants would then read the information provided, before deciding if they wanted to take part in the research, in which case a hyperlink/web address would lead them directly to an anonymous on-line survey. This survey was designed using a software called SurveyMonkey and made available on the internet for a period of two months, between November and January, 2009/2010. The reason adventure organisations
were approached instead of contacting adventure tour leaders directly was because obtaining their contact details proved to be problematic due to privacy issues. From the nearly 800 organisations that were contacted, a sample of 137 adventure tour leaders responded to the on-line survey.

Measures

There were three types of measures that were used in the survey. The first measure collected demographic information from participants through a series of closed-end questions developed by the researcher for the purpose of this study. The second measure contained the surface acting and deep acting subscales (3 items each) of Brotheridge and Lee’s (1998; 2003) Emotional Labour Scale (ELS), which measures the frequency of these two dimensions of emotional labour, using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = Never, to 5 = Always. Table 1 shows all the items of the surface acting and deep acting subscales of the ELS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELS Subscale</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| SA           | - I hide my true feelings about a situation  
              | - I resist expressing my true feelings    
              | - I pretend to have emotions that I don’t really have |
| DA           | - I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to my clients  
              | - I really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job  
              | - I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show |

ELS = emotional labour scale. SA = surface acting. DA = deep acting.

Table 1. Items of the Surface Acting and Deep Acting Subscales

The items of the surface acting and deep acting subscales of the ELS were developed based on the following: a review of emotional labour literature (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; 1997); examination by other researchers and practitioners for clarity and content sampling (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998); and pilot testing with two working samples which showed that the items form two independent but related factors (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998; Grandey, 1998). More recently, Brotheridge and Lee (2003) further validated the ELS through a study that tested all subscales on samples of 296 and 238 respondents respectively, which provided evidence for convergent and discriminant validity. As a result of this rigorous research, a variety of researchers have later applied the ELS or its subscales as a reliable and valid measure of emotional labour in their studies. In this connection, Judge et al (2009) found that whereas surface acting had a negative impact on job satisfaction, deep acting was unrelated to job satisfaction. They also found that surface and deep acting had more positive effects for extroverts compared to introverts. Another study reported that whilst surface acting had a negative impact on emotional exhaustion, deep acting showed no relationship with emotional exhaustion (Martinez-Inigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007). Moreover, Naring, Briet and Brouwers (2006) found that surface acting was related to depersonalisation. Finally, Ozturk et al (2008) conveyed that deep acting had a negative impact on emotional exhaustion and a positive impact on job satisfaction, while surface acting had a negative impact on emotional exhaustion and no relationship with job satisfaction.

The third measure that was used in this study comprised Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) Job Satisfaction Index (JSI), 18 items version, which measures overall job satisfaction, using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree, to 5 = Strongly Agree. The JSI is
often referred to as ‘the overall job satisfaction measure’ (Furnham, 2005). It was first published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* and is now in the public domain. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) reported a reliability coefficient of 0.87 and two sets of data provide adequate validity for the measure (Price & Mueller, 1986). Although the development of the JSI dates back over 50 years, it is generally recognised as an affectively based measure of job satisfaction (Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004) that has been utilised as a reliable and valid instrument in a number of recent studies (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Judge et al., 2009; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2007; Piasentin & Chapman, 2007).

**Pilot Test**

Before the on-line survey could take place, a pilot test was conducted during October/November 2009. Two groups of people were included in the pilot test: leaders in 138 Australian bushwalking clubs, and 18 academic colleagues of the researcher. The first group was deemed appropriate for the pilot test because leaders in bushwalking clubs often lead the same types of adventure activities that were covered in the present study. The second group was considered to be suitable for the pilot test since many of them would have extensive experience when it comes to survey research and, in addition, they might be more willing to assist with the research due to familiarity with the researcher. From the pilot test, 14 responses were returned which contained constructive feedback that was taken into consideration when modifying the survey material. As a result, some minor amendments were made to the information sheet and questionnaire. These amendments to the survey material based on feedback from pilot participants greatly assisted in the elimination of ambiguity as well as improvement of wording and sequencing (Neuman, 2006; Veal, 2006; Walter, 2006).

**Analyses**

The data collected from the completed survey questionnaires were electronically transferred from the SurveyMonkey software into SPSS Version 17 data analysis software for PCs. The collected demographic data were analysed utilising frequency distributions. The data collected from the emotional labour and job satisfaction scales were analysed using descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis.

**RESULTS**

**Descriptive Statistics**

Table 2 depicts some descriptive statistics for the continuous variables of total deep acting, total surface acting, and total job satisfaction. The possible total mean scores for deep acting and surface acting ranged from 1 to 5. A high mean score (4 or 5) represented the end of the scale with highest frequency of emotional labour performance (‘often’ or ‘always’). A low mean score (1 or 2) represented the end of the scale with lowest frequency of emotional labour performance (‘never’ or ‘rarely’). A mean score of 3 represented the midpoint of the scale where the frequency of emotional labour performance was classified as ‘sometimes’. The mean of total deep acting was 3.58, which showed that adventure tour leaders ‘often’ performed this type of emotional labour. The mean of total surface acting was 2.55, which showed that adventure tour leaders ‘sometimes’ performed this type of emotional labour. These findings show lower levels of surface acting and higher levels of deep acting than
human service workers (surface acting M = 2.75; deep acting M = 3.09) and service/sales employees (surface acting M = 3.08; deep acting M = 2.83) (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total DA</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total SA</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total JS</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DA = deep acting. SA = surface acting. JS = job satisfaction.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Variables

The possible total mean scores for job satisfaction ranged from 1 to 5. A high mean score (4 or 5) represented the satisfied end of the scale (‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’). A low mean score (1 or 2) represented the dissatisfied end of the scale (‘very dissatisfied’ or ‘dissatisfied’). A mean score of 3 represented the midpoint of the scale classified as ‘neither satisfied nor dissatisfied’. The mean of total job satisfaction was 4.22, which showed that adventure tour leaders in this study were ‘very satisfied’ with their job. While no comparable JSI data were available in studies examining job satisfaction of employees in the tourism industry, the level of job satisfaction in the present study was higher than that of college faculty members (M = 4.06) (Castillo & Cano, 2004), school teachers (M = 3.88) (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008), employees in a youth development organisation (M = 3.53) (Petty, Brewer, & Brown, 2005), and manufacturing workers (M = 3.33) (Mone, 1994). Similar to the findings in this study, however, other studies utilising different scales than the JSI have reported that the level of job satisfaction in tourism jobs is very high (Choy, 1995; Levy & Lerch, 1991).

Regression Analysis

A standard multiple regression analysis was conducted to explore the impact of deep acting and surface acting (independent variables) on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction (dependent variable). A critical alpha value of p < .05 was applied as this is considered to be appropriate for most social science research (Neuman, 2006). Table 3 shows that deep acting had a statistically significant positive effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction (β = .30, p = .000 < .05). Hence, Hypothesis 1 was supported. The effect size (partial eta squared) was .09. Using the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) (.01 = small effect; .06 = moderate effect; .14 = large effect), this suggests a moderate effect size. While surface acting had a negative effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction, as predicted, this impact was not statistically significant (β = -.08, p = .347 > .05). This means that Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Together, deep acting and surface acting explained 9.2% of the variance in job satisfaction scores (R Squared = .092).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95.0% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>70.450</td>
<td>2.880</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[64.753, 76.147]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total DA</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td>24.462</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>[.315, 1.081]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total SA</td>
<td>-.272</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>.943</td>
<td>.347</td>
<td>[-.843, .299]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.

Table 3. The Impact of Deep Acting and Surface Acting on Job Satisfaction

DISCUSSION

The fact that the mean of deep acting was higher than the mean of surface acting in this study shows that adventure tour leaders tend to perform deep acting more frequently than surface acting. This is consistent with Sharpe’s (2005b) study of adventure tour leaders, where the leaders looked at surface acting as an affront to the trip leading process. Deep acting, on the other hand, was used by leaders because this type of emotional labour generally translated into a more authentic performance than surface acting (Sharpe, 2005b). One reason for this could be that adventure tour leaders often work in close proximity to clients over extended periods of time and (Sharpe, 2005b), as a result, they will typically make ‘friends’ and develop boundary open relationships with clients (where leaders bond with clients and are included in the group as a team player) (Arnould & Price, 1993). This, in turn, means that adventure tour leaders might choose to perform deep acting as opposed to surface acting in order to maintain a sense of authenticity of the leader-client interaction. As such, adventure tour leading may be a profession that requires employees to perform more deep acting and less surface acting than some other professions (e.g. human service workers and service/sales employees) due to the close and personal nature of the relationships with clients. After all, receiving a genuine smile and encouragement may be more important to a client who stands on the edge of a 100 meter cliff at the start of an abseil than a client who is purchasing milk in a supermarket, in which case a ‘glued-on’ smile and half-hearted ‘Have a nice day!’ may be acceptable. In addition to engendering a sense of authenticity in workers, deep acting has also been shown to establish a feeling of personal achievement and moral accomplishment among adventure tour leaders since the emotional demands of the job are often looked at as a personal challenge which may install pride and reveal strength of character, if overcome (Sharpe, 2005b). On this foundation, the researcher suggests that a feeling of achievement and a sense of authenticity represent the principal reasons as to why deep acting had a statistically significant positive effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction in the present study.

It is interesting to note, however, that even though surface acting may be looked at by as a moral flaw within adventure tour leading, the results show that adventure tour leaders in the current study still engaged in this type of emotional labour occasionally. The most conceivable reason for this is that almost a quarter of adventure tour leaders in this study possessed limited experience in the profession (24.5% of participants had only worked 0-4 years in the adventure tourism industry). Limited experience means that adventure tour leaders are more likely to use surface acting during interactions with clients since this form of emotional labour requires less sophisticated emotional competence than deep acting (McShane et al., 2007). Nonetheless, more experienced adventure tour leaders may also apply surface acting in some situations depending on situational demands, such as time pressure,
emergencies, and fatigue. It follows that the relatively low frequency of surface acting (M = 2.55; classified as ‘sometimes’) in the present study may not have been sufficient to engender a statistically significant negative effect on job satisfaction, as predicted. Consequently, any negative outcomes of performing surface acting, such as feelings of inauthenticity, frustration and exhaustion (Hochschild, 1983; Sharpe, 2005b), would only have had a negligible negative effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction.

It is clear then that the high level of job satisfaction (M = 4.22; classified as ‘very satisfied’) found in this study is, in part, due to the positive effects of performing deep acting and the absence of any substantial negative effects of performing surface acting. Another reason why the level of job satisfaction was so high could be, as suggested by Urry (2002), that adventure tour leaders do not really consider their job as ‘work’ since they are providing leisure experiences for tourists. Indeed, when adventure tour leading is compared with other professions that are not involved with the provision of leisure (e.g. school teachers and manufacturing workers), this argument holds true. Yet, there is also a variety of other possible factors that could have influenced adventure tour leaders’ high job satisfaction in the current study (as indicated by the relatively low R Squared of .092). Nevertheless, it is outside the scope of this paper to take all possible factors into account.

Figure 3 presents a visual representation of the relationships between emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders as derived from this study. It shows that deep acting, which had a statistically significant positive effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction, could generate a sense of authenticity and a feeling of achievement in employees. Figure 3 also shows that surface acting, which had a statistically non-significant negative effect on job satisfaction (represented by the broken line), could lead to feelings of inauthenticity, frustration and exhaustion in workers.

Figure 3. The Effect of Deep Acting and Surface Acting on Job Satisfaction

CONCLUSION

The goal of the current study was to examine the potential effect of two types of emotional labour, surface acting and deep acting, on the job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders employed within Australia. An on-line survey measuring adventure tour leaders’ levels of
emotional labour and job satisfaction was made available on the internet for a period of two months, between November and January 2009/2010. The results showed that whilst deep acting had a statistically significant positive effect on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction, there was no statistically significant relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with research suggesting that deep acting could help to convey a sense of authenticity and a feeling of achievement in employees, thus leading to higher levels of job satisfaction. On the other hand, it was suggested that surface acting did not show a statistically significant negative effect on job satisfaction, as predicted, because adventure tour leaders only engaged in this type of emotional labour occasionally.

This study has implications for the way adventure tour operators manage their employees in relation to HRM areas such as recruitment, selection, training, development, performance appraisal and retention. Since deep acting appears to have a positive impact on adventure tour leaders’ job satisfaction, as opposed to surface acting, HRM programs that emphasise the fostering of deep acting skills could prove to be helpful when it comes to maintaining a high level of job satisfaction as well as preventing emotional burnout of adventure tour leaders in the future. Some ways to achieve this could be to provide training for emotional competence (Anderson, 1993; Brotheridge, 2006a; Grandey, 2003); to include an item that measures workers’ emotional labour skills in performance appraisals (Hsieh & Guy, 2009); and to apply emotional intelligence tests in selection processes (Holland, Sheehan, Donohue, & Pyman, 2007), such as the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). The latter could be a useful tool for adventure tour operators to select the right person for the job since research shows that emotionally intelligent people tend to choose deep acting as the method of expressing expected emotions in interpersonal interactions (Brotheridge, 2006b; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). If implemented successfully, the above recommendations could prove to have a positive impact on business in the adventure tourism industry in Australia.

The present study has some limitations that need to be considered. First, it is conceded that the scales that were used to measure surface acting and deep acting in this study might represent a somewhat narrow view of what potentially are complex constructs. As indicated in the literature review, the distinction between surface acting and deep acting is most likely better represented as a continuum rather than clear cut categories. Second, the data from this study were derived entirely from self report questionnaires, with associated risks of social desirability bias (participants report what they think the researcher wants to hear) and mono method bias (participants are more concerned about being consistent than accurate in their answers) (Neuman, 2006). Third, while this study focused on the effect of deep acting and surface acting on the job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders, it is recognised that a variety of other factors could have an impact on job satisfaction, which could be incorporated into future studies. Finally, it is acknowledged that employees, in addition to performing surface acting or deep acting, have the option of displaying their genuine emotions during interaction with their clients (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Martinez-Inigo et al., 2007). This was not examined in any detail in the current study. Hence, future research could benefit from the inclusion of genuine emotion display as a factor to consider when exploring the relationships between emotional labour and job satisfaction of adventure tour leaders.

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ASSESSMENT OF NATURE-BASED TOURISM IN NORTHERN PENINSULA MALAYSIA

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Nature-based tourism is an important part of the world tourism industry and of increasing significance to developing countries. However, even within the same country, the components and features of nature-based tourism vary considerably from one destination to another. In the case of Malaysia, location, quality and quantity of natural resources, and their infrastructure have not been well documented in the past. Thus, this paper attempts to assess the potential of natural tourism destinations in the State of Perlis, Northern Peninsula Malaysia. Eight natural tourism destinations such as state parks, waterfalls and caves have been selected for this study. Thirty indicators for tourism destination assessment have been analysed using checklist techniques to summarize and categorize the destinations. Three destinations were classified in the first category (Good) and five destinations were in the second category (Moderate), but none of the destination falls into the third category (Poor). This study also found that all destinations have the potential to be developed as eco-tourism destinations but several issues such as better tourism facilities; infrastructure and accessibility need to be addressed to meet tourist expectations.

Keywords: Nature-based tourism, destination assessment, checklist, Perlis, Malaysia.

INTRODUCTION

Nature-based tourism depends on ecological attractions (Wells, 1997), and refers to tourism activities that use natural resources in an undeveloped state, including scenery, topography, waterways, vegetation, wildlife, and cultural heritage (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). According to Valentine (1992) and Weiler and Davis (1993), activities of nature-based tourism mostly occur in national parks or protected areas. The International Ecotourism Society (2000) estimated that about 60% of international tourists are considered as nature-based tourists, and they predicted that the number would keep growing as millions of people travel to see and experience natural environments each year.

In a broad classification, tourism includes mass and alternative tourism and nature-based tourism is considered as a subset of alternative tourism. As explained by Wearing and Neil (1999, p. 3), "alternative tourism can be broadly defined as forms of tourism that set out to be consistent with natural, social and community values and which allow both hosts and guests to enjoy positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences". As shown in Table 1, Newsome, Moore and Dowling (2002) describe alternative tourism as consisting of natural, cultural, event and other types of tourism. Newsome et al (2002) also suggest that the scope...
of nature tourism involves adventure, nature-based, wildlife and ecotourism or tourism in natural settings.

![Diagram of tourism categories]

Figure 1: An overview of tourism (Newsome at al, 2002)

In general, classification and conception of nature tourism by Newsome et al. (2002) are parallel with Ceballos-Lascuráin’s (1996) explanation that nature tourism hinges on the utilization of natural resources in their undeveloped setting. McKercher (1998) expands the scope of nature tourism and his definition includes: adventure tourism, ecotourism, alternative tourism, educational tourism, anti-tourism, sustainable tourism, responsible tourism and many other forms of outdoor-oriented and non-mass tourism. Therefore, “any tourism based in a natural setting and experienced” (Espinoza, 2002, p. 3) related with the environment should be considered as nature tourism.

**NATURE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN MALAYSIA**

Statistics data in Malaysia reveal that nature-based activities have the highest growth amongst tourism products and contributed to 10% of Malaysia’s tourism revenue in 2000 (Government of Malaysia, 2001). The revenue was based on tourist visits to 54 protected areas in Malaysia, totalling 1,485 million hectares or about 4.5 per cent of the country’s land surface including 28 gazetted nature reserves, 16 national and state parks, nine nature reserves or wildlife sanctuaries and one protected landscape (National Ecotourism Plan, 1997).

In 1996, the National Ecotourism Plan (NEP) was drafted to assist the federal and state governments in developing Malaysia’s ecotourism potential. The NEP is intended to serve both as an appropriate instrument within the overall sustainable development of Malaysia and the economy as a whole, and as an effective tool for conservation of natural and cultural heritage of the country. Therefore, an assessment of natural tourism destinations is worthwhile for several reasons since tourists will often visit more than one destination during a trip to experience a range of natural and cultural environments (Deng, King & Bauer, 2002). As nature-based tourism depends on the quality of the environment and incorporates aspects such as local community, roads and tracks, visitor facilities and natural
attractions. A well managed natural destination will complement the natural attributes and also contribute to tourist satisfaction.

Thus, this study focuses on natural destination assessment in the context of nature-based tourism to identify the existing standard of every natural tourism destination in the State of Perlis, Northern Peninsula, Malaysia (Figure 1).

![Figure 1: The study area](image)

**RESEARCH METHODS**

A checklist approach applied in this study was based on a study done by Kane (1981) in South Australia. The assessment indicators used by Kane (1981) and Priskin (2001) have been adopted and expanded to assess natural tourism destinations in the State of Perlis, Malaysia. All eight natural tourism destinations in Perlis have been evaluated and classified based on indicators of the three main categories namely: 1. Physical features, 2. Infrastructure, 3. Accessibility.

*Assessment of Physical Features*

Assessment of Infrastructure

Assessment of Accessibility
Accessibility to every destination was evaluated based on two indicators, road category and class of vehicle.

As explained by Kane (1981), the component checklists used in this study were merely based on public preferences and not for professional evaluations and it aims to determine elements that represent aesthetically attractive landscapes. Each site has been viewed and evaluated by a group of at least 10 people (Kane, 1981) to provide their measure and views of destination attractiveness. The observer has to read through the checklist and indicate all components that exist on site and then rate the quality of each indicator on a scale from 0 to 4 points as suggested by Kane (1981). The assessment score obtained ranges between 0 points (least attractive) and 100 points (most attractive). Finally, scores in all categories were analysed and subsequently incorporated into a Geographical Information System (GIS) database for further analysis (Figure 2).

RESEARCH FINDINGS
The findings of this study are explained based on three categories of physical features, infrastructure and accessibility as follows:

Physical Features
Findings of physical attractions from all destinations were varied (Table 2). Based on the assessment of all destinations, four sites have been categorized as ‘very attractive’ and another four sites were ‘attractive’.

Table 2: Classification on natural features of destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Attractive</td>
<td>67-100</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractive</td>
<td>34-66</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Attractive</td>
<td>0-33</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Infrastructure
In general, all natural destinations in Perlis have tourism infrastructure. But, in terms of quality, only three sites have good facilities but tourism facilities in another five sites were rated as in poor condition (Table 3).

Table 3: Quality of destination facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>67-100</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>34-66</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No facilities</td>
<td>0-33</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Accessibility
Only two sites can be accessed easily, compared to five sites which had moderate accessibility (Table 4). However, one site had a poor accessibility.

Table 4: Classification of destination accessibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>67-100</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>34-66</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>0-33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of Findings
Based on the assessment done on all natural tourism destinations in Perlis, this research found that only three destinations are in the First Category (Good) with a score from 67% and above. Another five destinations with a score of 34% to 66% are in Second Category (Moderate) (see Table 5 and Figure 2).

Table 5: Result of destination classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| I        | Taman Negeri (*State Park*)  
Gua Kelam (*Cave*)  
Hutan Lipur Bukit Ayer (*Waterfall*) | 67-100 | 3   | 37.5|
| II       | Rimba Herba (*Herbs Garden*)  
Hutan Lipur Bukit Kubu (*Waterfall*)  
Tasik Meranti (*Lake*)  
Gua Cenderawasih (*Lake*)  
Rekreasi Sungai Jernih (*Waterfall*) | 34-66 | 5   | 62.5|
CONCLUSION

This study used a simple way to identify and assess the quality of nature-based tourism attractions in Perlis, Malaysia. It was found that only three of the destinations evaluated are rated in good condition and the remaining destinations need more work in terms of improving the quality and quantity of tourism infrastructure. Nevertheless, findings from this study could provide valuable information for planners and tourism managers during the decision making process, especially in terms of the quantity and quality of present resources, as well as their spatial distribution. Resource inventories such as this are fundamental for planners and tourism managers in making decisions on present resources capacity and capability, land compatibility and impact that could be faced.

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BRANDING WILDERNESS? ‘PLACE’ PROMOTION AND NATURAL AREAS.

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The very values that designated wilderness areas and national parks seek to preserve can be compromised by the commercial and visitor activities that such places attract. The paradox of managing visitation to such areas whilst the very natural values sought by visitors to ‘wild places’ are eroded, is a challenge to managers not only in New Zealand but worldwide. Visitor expectations and ‘sense(s) of place’ for the country’s national parks and ‘wilderness’ locations are influenced by promotional images used in the marketing of such places. This paper discusses the findings of a content analysis of the images and recurrent themes in media promoting Aoraki Mt Cook National Park.

A retrospective analysis of 100 years of marketing images of the region ascertained that several core themes have endured over time, for instance adventure, physical activity and alpine scenic splendour. Other themes and imagery specific to certain periods of New Zealand’s social history, particularly gendered marketing with overtones of hedonism, feminism and masculinity appear in generic and adventure focussed marketing. Recently the ‘100% Pure’ campaign and nostalgic themes related to the early history of the region have been prominent. Arguably as the destination has gained in popularity tourism operators and park managers have to meet visitor expectations of the ‘brand promise’ for Aoraki Mount Cook. At times however the diverse experiences being marketed to the visiting public are sometimes unattainable, thus having implications for activities management and ethical marketing of such natural areas.
CO-CREATION OF IT-SERVICES TO FINANCE NATURE-BASED TOURISM: A STUDY OF THE WILLINGNESS TO PAY FOR CROSS-COUNTRY SKIING SERVICES IN SWEDEN

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the findings from a study in which method of choice experiments have been used in the development of a new system for financing recreational infrastructure. This paper relates to research on the general problem of how to design new systems to finance nature based recreation in countries with recreational open access to private land. The context for the field study is on cross-country skiers’ willingness to pay for well-prepared ski tracks and related information technology (IT) services at a Swedish ski resort. The data consist of answers from a total of 285 self-completed questionnaires involving two choice experiment questions each. The results show how different types of bonus services and offers affect the willingness to pay for a cross country ski pass. Furthermore, the paper discusses the potentially important role the researchers might have as a broker in an innovation process involving tourism industry and IT-consultants.

WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Economic growth in a globalised economy depends on functioning innovation processes. In most countries, policies to promote innovation have centred around the production of goods. The relatively large share of small-scale enterprises in the services and tourism industries makes it difficult to implement the same kind of policies to promote innovations. The marketing literature over the past few decades has reached a consensus that marketing is both a social and economic process (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). The seminal paper by Vargo and Lusch (2004), for example, stated that the customer is always a co-producer and that the relationship between the producer and the consumer is central. These understandings impact future product development by highlighting the importance of user involvement.

User involvement in the innovation process within the IT sector has been taking place for the last few decades, through areas such as beta versions of programmes and open source programming. The potential for and importance of ICT for the tourism industry has long been recognised (Hultkrantz, 2002). However, the development of new IT services in tourism is usually neither a process between the tourist and the IT company nor a process that involves the IT-company and the tourism firm. In the first case, a well-developed service might not fit with the firm’s existing ICT systems (for example, back office and booking systems). In the second case, a “test lab service” might only fit the most technology-friendly users and may not attract much demand from tourists. Hence, a complete set of stakeholders for the co-creation of IT services in tourism involves three types of stakeholders: an IT consultant, a tourism firm and the tourist.

This paper provides an example of the co-creation innovation process in tourism in general and, specifically, in nature based-tourism (that is, the supply side of the market). The case
deals with how to develop new IT services in order to make the cross-country skiing experience in a Swedish context more attractive. Furthermore, it has been proposed that a key challenge for economically viable nature tourism in countries that have recreational open access to private land is to find ways to strengthen the incentives for landowners to invest in conservation and value-added tourism (Vail & Hultkrantz, 2000). The case in this paper relates to this challenge by describing IT services that can be used to finance recreational infrastructure, not only in the context described but also on other areas of nature-based tourism. (for an overview of the general problem see Heldt, 2010).

Case, context and stakeholders

The case described here is a project called “More fun with the Track-card – The X-country ski manager” (hereafter referred to as the XC-ski manager). The project involved four partners/stakeholders: an IT consultant, a ski resort (representing the tourism industry) and a group of researchers. Moreover, the project included an explicit partner – a cross-country ski club – that represented the user perspective. The aim of the projects was to develop new IT services to finance cross-country ski track preparations.

As a background to the specific problem of financing cross-country-ski tracks, it should be noted that mandatory ski passes are not part of the Swedish Allemansrätt (public access to private land). In other words, no formal mechanisms force skiers to buy cross-country ski passes, which effectively makes ski pass systems in Sweden voluntary. A ski resort in Sweden that produces high-quality cross-country ski tracks cannot prevent tourists who do not buy ski track cards (similar to ski passes for alpine skiing) from skiing on the tracks. Therefore, the ski resort must find other sources with which to finance the ski tracks. The idea of the project was to develop new IT services related to the activity that, when priced with a mark-up, could be such a source.

Co-creating a XC-ski manager: methods and results

The co-creation process includes five stages.

- Stage 1. Focus group and brainstorming.
- Stage 2. Questionnaire Survey 1.
- Stage 3. Developing the Choice experiment, including a selection of service offers.
- Stage 4. Questionnaire Survey 2.
- Stage 5. Modifying the “X-country ski manager” prototype.

The first two stages resulted in a decision to move forward and create a first prototype with three different services:

- Weather/ski-wax information via SMS text message to your mobile phone
- Diploma – cheering the performance
- Timing of your ski trip and a community with which to interact

The researcher focused on the question of estimating preferences and values for the IT-services, addressing a classical problem in innovation processes, i.e. the fact that it is not always an easy task to give a preference for or an evaluation of a product that is non-existent.
The stage three use of the method of choice experiment to address this problem is a novelty in this sense.

Choice experiments (CE) are a type of conjoint analysis and one of several stated preference approaches, of which contingent valuation is perhaps the best known (Louviere, Hensher & Swait, 2000). In conjoint models, respondents are asked to rate, rank, or choose amongst multiple alternatives, with the latter being CE. The use of CE in tourism studies has a long tradition with Dellaert, Borgers and Timmermans’(1995) modeling of urban tourists’ choice of activity packages as an early example. CE has been applied in nature based tourism to estimate for example preferences for climbing (Hanley, Wright & Koop, 2002) and to assess the reduction of recreational conflicts between snowmobilers and cross-country skiers (Lindberg, Fredman & Heldt, 2009).

Data collection was performed as an on-site self-reply questionnaire administered to a sample of tourists in Orsa Grönklitt in Dalarna, Sweden in two weeks of 2010. To reduce sample selection problems, all individuals during specific time frames were approached and asked to answer the questionnaire. 427 individual at age above 18yrs were asked. A total of 285 complete answers formed the final data set, which represents a response rate of 66,6 percent. A total of 586 CE scenarios were answered. A complete documentation of descriptive statistics of the sample and other results from the survey can be found in Heldt, Hansson, Karlsson, Vesmes and Åhman (in press).

In order to arrive at the willingness to pay, as per the results summarised in Table 3, one must go through the estimation of logit-models and calculation of implicit prices (willingness to pay) for the attributes. The most significant result from the CE analysis is that respondents only valued one of the three proposed services positively; the weather service via SMS got an estimated willingness to pay of 10 SEK per day. The diploma option did not receive a positive valuation and, as a consequence, it was removed from service in the final stage modification of the “X-country ski manager” prototype.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Willingness to pay</th>
<th>Modification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weather/ski wax info via SMS</td>
<td>10 SEK/day</td>
<td>minor – segment WTP info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Excluded from prototype</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community/timing of ski trip</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Improved explanation – trial periods etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Results and modifications of prototypes.

CONCLUSION

Well functioning innovation processes are a key for economic growth in a globalized world. This study has illustrated how a co-creation innovation process in tourism in general and in nature based-tourism can potentially contribute to revenue generation. It has been shown that tourists’ preferences and willingness to pay for a proposed service offers an important input to the innovation process of new IT-services in tourism. In the co-creation process described a low willingness to pay for a specific service led to the removal of that service in the final prototype of the ‘X-country ski manager’. Furthermore, the study has shown that the use of Choice Experiment, giving respondents the option to trade-off different services with a price,
aids in the co-creation process by giving estimates of willingness to pay for the different services. Finally, the researcher notes that different stakeholders might have conflicting interests and that the researcher has an important role to play as a broker in a co-creation process involving tourism industry, IT-consultants and the consumer.

REFERENCES


CONSTRUCTING HERITAGE THROUGH NARRATIVES AND BRANDING: THE CASE OF THE GREAT COPPER MOUNTAIN IN FALUN, SWEDEN

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Heritage is put forward as invaluable for the development of tourism destinations in Sweden, especially in peripheral areas. The interpretation of a specific heritage site is closely related to the purpose and motives of the interpreter. Different stakeholders are bound to have quite different ways of telling the story of the heritage and of making use of the heritage for their own purposes. In this paper some results from a study of the planning and management process of the World Heritage Site of the Great Copper Mountain in Falun is discussed.

The study is an analysis of marketing material and interviews with stakeholders involved in the management process at the heritage site. The aim of the paper is to highlight the role of constructing narratives and branding in the process of management and planning of the heritage site. In this study it became evident that the construction of narratives was a process highly influenced by the power relations between the different stakeholders.

Keywords: Heritage tourism management, World Heritage, narratives, stakeholders, marketing, Falun, Sweden

INTRODUCTION

By Swedish standards, Falun is a medium-sized municipality of approximately 55,000 inhabitants, located in the Province of Dalarna, approximately 250 kilometres north-west of Stockholm. The town of Falun developed as a consequence of the copper mine that was developed as early as the eighth century AD. The mine experienced its heyday during the 17th century. Since the mine was closed in 1992, the industrial landscape of the mine as a symbol of the town of Falun started to change. The original function – the extraction of minerals – was replaced by preservation and the production of experiences. The mining area, its surrounding mine-related and domestic landscapes, and the copper works, was awarded World Heritage status by UNESCO in 2001.

The aim of this paper is to highlight the role of constructing narratives and branding in the process of management and planning of the heritage site. The empirical material in this study consists of interviews with key informants and representatives from the stakeholders involved.
in the management of the Falun World Heritage Site. Apart from the interviews, an analysis was conducted of marketing material and tourist information on 50 printed web pages, including the official website for Falun World Heritage Site and the website of the foundation that owns and runs the mine as well as related real estate (visit Falun AB, www.visitfalun.se; The Great Copper Mountain Trust, www.storakopparberget.se).

CONSTRUCTING HERITAGE THROUGH NARRATIVES AND BRANDING

Different interests groups and stakeholders may have varying ideas about how a heritage site should be represented, what stories should be told about it and to whom the site belongs. The latter issue has two dimensions, according to Graham, Ashworth and Tunbridge, (2000). Firstly, it includes identifying what a certain heritage consists of or selecting what is worth saving. This selection will not only reflect the power relations of the society in terms of the hegemonic construction of a collective identity but will also imply the reflection of contestation and difference. The second dimension involves interpretations of the site’s heritage. The term ‘heritage’ also has political and rhetorical connotations since it consists of a specific selection of memories and histories that are meaningful in a contemporary context (Grundberg, 2002). This is not to say that heritage has nothing to do with historical facts, but its purpose is to comply with contemporary needs and requests (Isacson & Silvén, 1999; Lowenthal, 1996; Timothy & Boyd, 2002).

The relationship and interdependence between heritage and tourism is well documented (Ashworth, 2003), including the fundamental differences between heritage tourism and tourism in general in terms of ideological and institutional contexts (Garrod & Fyall, 2000). The most evident difference concerning heritage sites is perhaps the difference between the policy adopted by conservation bodies, including museums, and the policy adopted by tourist businesses and tourism development agencies. This can be illustrated by the classic divide between preservation and exploitation, which influences perspectives on what heritage consists of and whom it serves (Ho & McKercher, 2004; Prideaux & Kininmont, 1999).

In any case, in order to attract visitors, a destination must construct a unique identity or brand that is clearly communicated through marketing, products and the physical environment, via external images that guide visitors to certain types of experiences (Strömberg, 2007). One of the most important features of tourist marketing and branding of a destination is the construction of a common identity of the place that includes the physical environment and landscape as well as narratives and visual symbols.

THE CASE OF THE WORLD HERITAGE OF THE GREAT COPPER MOUNTAIN IN FALUN

One of the most prominent narratives in the marketing of the World Heritage in Falun to visitors describes the mine as a place of great historical importance. A substantial part of the marketing material tells the story of the World Heritage Site itself. There is a strong focus on information about different aspects (facts and figures) of mining, the history of Falun as a mining town and the typical landscapes and products that originate from the mining industry.

In connection to the narratives on mining and the specific landscapes of production within the Heritage Site, there is a narrative on the historical national and international importance of the copper mine in Falun. It recounts a story of the mine as an important economic force in the Swedish economy and is therefore a narrative of a glorified Swedish history and national pride that presents the role of the mine as an important prerequisite for the development of
the nation and society. The connection between the copper mine in Falun and the historical Great Power Period in Sweden is mentioned repeatedly. The 17th century is especially highlighted because the operations of the mine, along with Sweden’s economic and political power, were at their peaks.

The focus on preservation and the historical dimensions of heritage in the narratives of the World Heritage in Falun seems to be related to the traditional way of interpreting heritage within the official heritage bodies in Sweden. This dominating narrative of historical relevance and education is clearly visible in the marketing material and is also communicated by the representatives of the stakeholders that together share similar views on how to manage the heritage site. These stakeholders have different goals but come together as an alliance that reproduces the same narrative of the heritage, since it is a means to their ends, respectively.

Since one of the most influential stakeholders in the management of the World Heritage site in Falun has close ties to the former mining company, namely the Great Coppermine Trust, the constructions of narratives of heritage and tourism are very much dependent on how the local stakeholders relate and negotiate with this organisation. The clear focus on historical facts and education in the marketing material is partly a consequence of how the Great Coppermine Trust has gained influence over the management process. It also shows how other stakeholders that are responsible for heritage issues support the same interests based on the argument that the UNESCO rules and regulations have meant that this is the only way to manage the heritage, which include restrictions on alternative uses of the area that could interfere with the preservation of the traditional mining landscape. In this management discourse, tourism development is only discussed in general terms, as an important source of income. However, specific initiatives by external entrepreneurs have so far been restricted or unsuccessful in terms of tourism activities related to the mining area. The narratives of the mine as a place for experiences are present in the marketing and the management discourses, but are constantly marginalised in relation to the discourse on preservation.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The management and marketing of the World Heritage of the Great Copper Mountain in Falun is a clear example of how a specific selection of facts and stories are utilised to serve specific purposes of influential stakeholders. They have managed to agree on a common version of the heritage that will not interfere with the goals and purposes of their organizations. The narrative construction thereby serves as a guarantee for future power over the heritage resources in Falun. This study shows how the construction of a heritage destination clearly depends on the (re)presentation of the heritage resource through visual representations and narrative constructions. The selection of what to present and how is a process in which power relations are articulated and reproduced, a fact that highlights the importance of stakeholders and the interests behind these representations.

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DEVELOPMENT OF A MEASURING TOOL FOR THE WELLNESS SPA INDUSTRY

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Today, peoples’ vision of health is changing. Individuals are taking more responsibility and becoming proactive in addressing and preventing the causes of their personal ills. This proactive and holistic approach has collectively been termed ‘Wellness’. Stanford Research Institute (2010) presented a report at the recent Global Spa Summit describing wellness as a US$2 trillion global industry, and wellness spas were identified as the primary segment. Future growth is also predicted with 89% of spa business attendees planning to invest in new or additional wellness related services and products in the next 5–10 years. However there is confusion as to the meaning of the term wellness and what it equates to in wellness spas. The liberal use of the term wellness is not consistent with academic literature. Just as companies have been accused of ‘green washing’ in relation to their environmental efforts, many spas appear guilty of ‘wellness washing’, making it increasingly difficult for marketers and consumers to identify true wellness spas. This study aims to provide a tool that can evaluate the industry’s progress on effectively offering genuine wellness products and services. The C-OAR-SE method, developed by Rossiter (2002) is a procedure for scale development in marketing and will form the framework for this study. It relies on logical arguments and the concurrence of experts based on open-ended interviews with stakeholders. This study provides the first wellness spa-measuring tool that is suitable for use in professional practice and academic research. The tool will assess wellness dimension disparities across different wellness spas and produce an industry-approved benchmark.

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FOOTPRINTS WAIPOUA: USING INTERPRETATION TO DEVELOP TOURISM OPPORTUNITIES FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES.

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ABSTRACT

Footprints Waipoua is a Maori-operated tourism company in the Hokianga region of Northland, New Zealand. The story of Footprints Waipoua is about how a group of people were able to make use of an iconic attraction, the giant kauri of the Waipoua Forest, to advance the welfare of their families and community through the utilization of interpretation.

Interpretation is about communicating ideas about the cultural and natural phenomena visitors encounter at a site (Ham, 1992). Interpretation is regarded as an important component of tourism products due to the way it can contribute to the visitor’s experience (Brochu & Merriman, 2002).

Research about what international tourists want from Maori tourism suggests that products involving informal learning about, and interaction with, Maori within a short timeframe are preferred (McIntosh, 2004). A consistent theme detected is an interest in both contemporary and traditional Maori ways of life (Wilson, Horn, Sampson, Doherty, Becken, & Hart, 2006). Footprints Waipoua uses interpretation to tell stories that connect the natural phenomena of the Waipoua Forest to the cultural practices of the local Maori community. That the Waipoua Forest is readily accessible to visitors for free, and personal interpretation is labour-intensive, created a challenge for developing a viable business (Timothy & Boyd, 2003). This talk will share the story of Footprints Waipoua’s successful product, “Twilight Encounter” that added a new temporal dimension and an interpretation programme to a familiar attraction. The talk will explore its’ interpretation programme that weaves both contemporary and traditional aspects of Maori culture into stories about the significance of the giant kauri.

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SMALL BUT IMPERFECTLY FORMED: INVESTIGATING BARRIERS TO SUCCESS IN A COMMUNITY HERITAGE ATTRACTION

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper reports on an exploratory case study investigating the phenomenon of the small community museum in New Zealand and associated stakeholder relationships. Of New Zealand’s estimated 500-600 museums, the majority are ‘small’ (1-5 employees) or ‘micro’ museums (run by wholly volunteers) (New Zealand Tourism Research Institute, 2007; 2008; 2009). Regarded as too amateur, too locally-focused and unbusiness-like, these frequently fall below the scrutiny of tourism studies. While these local museums wish to attract visitors and share their stories and treasures with domestic and international tourists, few appear to have integrated themselves successfully with the tourism scene. Using the example Te Hikoi – Southern Journey (Te Hikoi, 2010) at Riverton in Southland, the history is traced of the coming together of three organisations to develop a new community facility which is “history-based” but tourism-driven. The constructive relationships which forged the initial capital development have since eroded and threaten Te Hikoi’s viability. The interpretation of the shared heritage is not contested (Tunbridge & Ashworth, 1996) in this case. Rather, the barrier to operational viability appears to be a misunderstanding of the respective interests of the diversity of community stakeholders who comprise the “authorising environment”, which endorses Te Hikoi’s ability to operate. Analysis of a range of development and governance documents identifies key players during different stages in the development, and varying expectations of roles and hierarchy once Te Hikoi opened in 2007. Lack of clarity around respective roles of the contributing organisations and distinctions between governance and management are apparently the primary inhibitors to success.

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THE STATE OF NATURE-BASED TOURISM IN PINATUBO VOLCANO AFTER ITS EXPLOSION: ISSUES, CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The paper provides a comprehensive review and assessment of the socio-cultural and economic impacts of the Pinatubo Volcano Area Specific Tourism Development Plan of 2002-2006 to the under developed and aboriginal communities near Mt. Pinatubo, Philippines. The research objectives of the investigative inquiry were: (1) to investigate through consultative meeting and interview with the various stakeholders of the tourism site as to their perspectives of the current status of the tourism related activities near the volcano; (2) to ascertain threats and opportunities for growth development; (3) to examine government support and initiatives impacting nature-based tourism in the area in order to develop some recommendations for policy making. This organized inquiry employed a documentary analysis of printed materials related to the developmental programs in areas surrounding Mt. Pinatubo after its eruption in 1991. This was the second most powerful volcanic explosion of the 20th century. This paper reveals concepts, drivers and stakeholders for sustainable nature-based tourism where government support and private sector investment can transform the volcano’s surroundings into an economically viable tourist destination. The strengths of the tourism site will be the vehicle of growth and opportunities with the help of a synergized approach in marketing and promotion. The opportunities for more sustainable nature-based tourism are highly dependent on the input and interventions of all stakeholders. Thus, proper and adequate education regarding the applicability of the plans for sustainable nature-based tourism for the areas near the creek of the volcano must be reviewed and re-engineered.
THE VEGAN TOURIST – A CONCEPTUAL LOOK AT THE NEW ‘ECO’-TOURIST

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

A growing number of people commit to veganism nowadays (The Vegan Society, 2010). For the majority of people, animal rights are a big motivator (Peta, 2010) but an increasing number of vegans choose this lifestyle because of environmental and health reasons (Vegan Outreach, 2010; Enviroveggie, 2010). It has been argued that veganism is the most environmentally friendly diet e.g. in terms of usage of water resources (The Vegan Society, 2010). It is also argued that there would be no hunger on earth if everyone ate vegan (Vegsource, 2010). An in-depth study on nutrition has also shown the health benefits of a plant based diet (Campbell & Campbell, 2006). The major objectives of this study encompass identifying a link between diet/lifestyle and travel behaviour to find out whether vegans apply their environmental arguments to leisure travel as well as discovering whether the vegan tourist is a more (eco) conscious traveller. Other than diet requirements, are there any other special needs or considerations that need to be addressed? And finally, is there a clear link between more eco conscious and diet friendly destinations and vegans’ leisure travel choices? This – as of now – conceptual study aims to identify the Vegan tourist and understand their motivations and needs as travellers. This presentation will only encompass conceptual as well as methodological ideas that will then be developed into a broader research study.

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DESTINATIONS AS TRAVEL ATTRACTORS: ECONOMIC GROWTH, THE PERCEPTION OF ACCESS, AND THE IMPORTANCE OF TRANSPORTATION NETWORKS

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DESTINATIONS AS TRAVEL ATTRACTORS: ECONOMIC GROWTH, THE PERCEPTION OF ACCESS, AND THE IMPORTANCE OF TRANSPORTATION NETWORKS

ABSTRACT

This paper proposes a perspective of destinations as travel attractors, considering the perception of travel access as a leading factor of market demand for destination cities. As cities develop through travel and tourism growth, attracting economic investment, the external transportation networks that link the city to the demand origin markets and the internal networks that allow the travelers and tourists to explore the destination are also expected to evolve. If the tourists and residents perceptions are in tune with this theoretical assumption, the effects of the objective evolution of the transportation networks are expected to be reinforced. However, if these two stakeholders perceptions are that the growth of tourism is insufficiently followed by the support of the upgrade of the transportation networks, this could have negative effects on the confidence of the residents in the future development and on the decisions of the travelers and tourists who have progressively more destination alternatives in competitive markets. Following a theoretical review, some introductory results are presented for the perceptions of: (1) the relation between tourism and the economy; (2) the growth of tourism and the development of the external access links and the internal transportation networks; and (3) the development of tourism and the development of a competitive advantage of cities to attract more residents, more travelers, and more tourists. The research data results from a set of approximately 500 questionnaire based interviews included in an omnibus survey and the findings will be discussed to extract potential theoretical and applied implications.

Keywords: destinations, travel attractors, economic growth, perception access, transportation networks.

INTRODUCTION

As in the past, great cities and civilizations thrive in the intersection of trading routes, important harbors, and leading airports. The fluxes of travelers converge to economic hubs and cities compete for travelers, tourists and residents to support the development of the economy. Today, tourism is responsible for a major part of human movements worldwide. As tourism develops and produces sometimes dramatic changes in tourism destinations, is this development perceived as positive by residents and travelers and tourists and does the attractiveness of a destination improves with the development of tourism?

When destinations become more successful in attracting travelers and tourists there are inevitable changes on the economy, the society, the culture, and the urban and natural landscapes.

As a city changes through a sequence of phases of development and evolution, the perception and the attractor force of the destination on travelers and tourists also changes. The present article is an introductory study of the perceptions and attractiveness of a tourism destination in the development stage exploring: (1) the perception of economic growth; (2) the perception of access; and (3) the perception of competitive advantages.

The perception of growth relates to ratings on considering tourism as positive to the economy, and the economic development as important and supported. The perception of
access ratings addresses the perceived relation between the growth of tourism and the
development of the external and internal transportation networks. The perception of
competitive advantages assesses aspects of potential attraction of a city destination and the
relation of culture with tourism and economic growth.

The first section of the article presents a view of city destinations as travel attractors and
establishes a bridge between the approaches in the field of tourism and organization theories.
This section also includes an overview of indicators of the period between 2002 and 2009 and
a summarized description of the destination development, establishing the background of the
study. The second section presents the methodology and the analysis of the results. Finally,
the third and the fourth sections discuss the results and identify some aspects considered of
importance, suggesting possible applications and further lines of research.

DESTINATIONS AS TRAVEL ATTRACTION

The change process of a destination in full force development can generate dramatic
transformation. In Macau SAR, PR China, since the opening of the casino market to new
operators in 2002, there were major changes in core structural dimensions of the destination:
the economy, the society, the culture, and the urban and natural landscapes. From 2002 to
2009, the demography of the resident population registered a rise of 30%, the visitor arrivals
of 89%, and the gross domestic product of 313%. Even the land area increased 10% with sea-
reclaimed land. On the negative side, the inflation increased progressively from 2002 until
2007 reaching a highest level of 7%. Since then the inflation indicator is in a descending
trend with the last value for 2009 lower than 1%. The detailed indicators are presented in
Table 1, with graphs in Figure 1 to Figure 5.

Table 1: Macau SAR, PR China 2002-2009:
Demographic, travel and tourism arrivals, land area and economic statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population Estimate (thousands)</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitor Arrivals (thousands)</td>
<td>11,530</td>
<td>11,887</td>
<td>16,672</td>
<td>18,711</td>
<td>21,998</td>
<td>26,992</td>
<td>22,933</td>
<td>21,752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land Area (km²)</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflation Rate (percentages December)</td>
<td>-1.6</td>
<td>-1.4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Domestic Product (billions MOP)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Macau Statistics and Census Service, 2010

There will be an expected increase in these indicators as the destination consolidates further a
competitive position. However, with the limitations posed by core resource restrictions,
specifically the land area, the imported inflation affecting raw materials and investment
goods, and the minimal influence over travel visas and other restrictions from origin markets,
important challenges are expected along the route in parallel with the advance of the
destination course of economic evolution.
Figure 1: Population estimate (in thousands), Macau SAR, PR China 2002-2009

Source: Macau Statistics and Census Service, 2010

Figure 2: Visitor arrivals (in thousands), Macau SAR, PR China 2002-2009

Source: Macau Statistics and Census Service, 2010
Figure 3: Land area (in km²), Macau SAR, PR China 2002-2009

Source: Macau Statistics and Census Service, 2010

Figure 4: Inflation rate (percentages December), Macau SAR, PR China 2002-2009

Source: Macau Statistics and Census Service, 2010
The vulnerability of the economy of Macau as a travel destination can be addressed by the resource dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), with the necessary corrections considering the higher complexity of a destination versus a single organization. However, since as a destination Macau is in many ways a small-scale destination system, the interaction with the surrounding destinations and origin markets is essential to economic success and survival, in the same way as an organization operating in permanent contact and multi-level interaction with the wider environment.

Macau is an economic attractor, a convergence point for travelers and tourists, capital, raw materials and commodities, investment goods, human resources, technology and investors. However, since the internal production and the internal market are minimal, it is highly dependent on the external environment, in terms of the origin markets and the resources that hold up the travel and tourism industry and all the adjacent economic sectors.

*Source: Macau Statistics and Census Service, 2010*
There are three perspectives from organizational theories that are relevant to the understanding of destination development (Table 2). The three perspectives original focus was on the primary objectives of the organization but these objectives are also primary objectives of a travel destination: (1) to maximize control over scarce and valued resources; (2) to maximize the efficiency of the economic exchanges with the external environment, and; (3) to maximize the probability of survival. As Ulrich and Barney (1984) argue, the resource dependence and the efficiency perspectives share a core objective: to secure the stable acquisition of valued and scarce resources at a minimized cost. Finally, regarding the population perspective, although the development of a secure, stable inflow of valued and scarce resources at efficient costs supports the survival of the organizational system, the ultimate objective is not only immediate survival, but survival in the long term.

On the analysis of the social and cultural evolution of a destination and of the cross-cultural differences between the cultural dimensions of a destination and the origin markets, the model of Hofstede (1997, 2001) offers a first macro view of the economic importance of the cultural dimensions. Although the level of analysis of the model is the country level, there are some exceptions as the case of Hong Kong. Macau was not included in the Hofstede studies but an acceptable extrapolation can be achieved from the combined analysis of the results for Hong Kong and China. The results are similar and identify the long-term orientation as the highest-ranking factor with a very high score, a high score on power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, a higher importance given to quantity versus quality of life, and individualism as the dimension with the lowest ranking for both destinations.

Since a travel destination is inherently a point of cultures convergence, the concept of absorbing capacity might represent an important potential for innovation in the development of a destination. Absorptive capacity is defined as “the ability of a firm to recognize the value of new, external information, assimilate it, and apply it to commercial ends” (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990, p. 128). Absorptive capacity is considered critical to innovation and depends on the knowledge base of the firm in related areas. The concept can be transferred from the firm or organization level to the destination level, directed to innovation influences on strategy, positioning, and development and consolidation of competitive advantages, with ultimate goal of long term economic survival.
In their review on theory and research in organizational ecology, Singh and Lumsden (1990) identify six approaches to the study of organizational mortality which, if applied to destination analysis, represent major challenges or even threats to economic success and destination survival. The six approaches are the following: (1) fitness set, based on competition theory and niche-with theory (Hannah & Freeman, 1977), focused on the selection process of optimized organizational forms and on the evolutionary advantage of specialist or generalist strategies according with the environment variability and uncertainty; (2) resource partitioning, a model for strong economies of scale markets, where the concentration of specialist and generalist organizations determines if they are going to operate in the center or in periphery of the market, and predicting that as the concentration of mass market generalist organizations increases their mortality rate increases as the mortality rate of specialist organizations decreases (Carroll, 1985); (3) liability of newness, focused on the vulnerability of new or young organizations that results in higher failure rate, due to the difficulty of attacking the markets of established competitors (Stinchcombe, 1965); (4) liability of smallness, on the influence of organizational size on the mortality rates, predicting the higher mortality rate of smaller organizations (Aldrich & Auster, 1986; Freeman & Hannah, 1983); (5) founding conditions, focused on the influence of the social structure at the time of the founding and the imprint on the organizational processes (Stinchcombe, 1965), and Carroll and Hannah (1989) also argue that high organizational population density at founding can increase the mortality rate due to stronger selection pressures on new organizations; (6) density dependence and population dynamics, focuses on the influence of the number of organizations in the population on the mortality and founding rates (Hannah, 1986).

Considering the Butler (1980) model of destination cycle of evolution, Macau is in the development stage, as new important infrastructures are still being planned, initiated on or in advanced or conclusion phases. The carrying capacity level still seems distant although the pressure over the city infrastructures was clearly felt in 2007, when the number of arrivals was very close to 27 million. According to the World Tourism Organisation, carrying capacity can be defined as the maximum number of people that may visit the tourist destination, without causing destruction of the physical, economic, socio-cultural environment and an unacceptable decrease in the quality of visitors’ satisfaction. The concept of carrying capacity is especially relevant to this discussion once the ratio of tourists per resident or versus the land area in Macau is extraordinary. In 2007, when the arrivals reached the maximum, there was a ratio of over 924,000 visitors per km² and, for the same year, the ratio of visitors to residents was of 50 to 1.

In order to develop and progress, a destination has to become an effective and efficient travel attractor. The attraction of the destination in the origin markets depends on the perceptions associated with the destination image (Moreira, 2009b, 2009d) and on the perception of different dimensions of access (Moreira, 2007, 2009c). The force of the attraction emerges from the perception of a positive trade off in travelling versus staying in the origin city. This perception will influence the go or no go decision to travel. The where decision determinants that influence the selection of a travel destination instead of a competing alternative are explored by the international tourism demand model.

The international tourism demand model, based on the classical economic theory, is typically estimated as a function of the tourists’ income, the contrasts between the prices in the origin market, the travel destination, the competing destinations, the exchange rates, and the travel costs (Cho, 2010). According to Cho (2010), after a decision to travel has been made, the
travel destination is selected from the alternatives to maximize utility. However, even if accepting that the human decision processes are rational, and that has been much disputed (Simon, 1955; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974, 1981; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979, 1982; Moreira, 2009a, 2009d) the process involves the complexity inherent to the fact that value and utility where found to be highly subjective and to vary across individuals, time, contexts, and mental frames of decision.

One form of addressing this complexity is also through the perspective of the mental image of the destination that influences the travel decision. Destination image can be understood as information, or as knowledge, and is an area of study that has created some interest (Camprubi, Guia & Comas, 2008), in part due to the core interest in destination choice (Papatheodorou, 2001). The decision models in general involve the origin market and only one destination as the final output. Travel involving multiple destinations is considered residual, due to the minimal share of the total when compared with the single destination figures (Papatheodorou, 2001).

The most powerful destinations attractors: (1) are unique to the destination, and (2) are associated with mental perceptions (Weidenfeld, 2010). The present study focus on the perception of the destination trying to identify how tourists and residents perceive three factors of destination attraction related to travel, tourism and economic growth, external and internal travel access, and cultural aspects of destination attraction.

THE STUDY: METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

The data collection was carried out during March 2010, through structured interviews at the city centre and points of entry of Macau. A Chinese-English bilingual questionnaire based on a 1-5 rating scale (limit 1 corresponding to ‘strongly disagree’ and limit 5 to ‘strongly agree’ with the statements) was used to standardize the interviews for consistency and data log. The survey sampling tendency was random in nature, as individuals were not selected before they were invited to participate in the study. The sample included 480 respondents, with a balanced gender frequency (47% male, 53% female) and two identical groups of visitors (n=241, 50%) and residents (n=239, 50%). The age categories percentage distribution was the following: 15-24, 28%; 25-34, 37%; 35-44, 23%; 45-54, 9%; 55-64, 1%; and 65 or above, 1%. The questionnaire and descriptive statistics for the full sample (visitors plus residents) are presented in Table 2. The Cronbach alpha for the total set of 13 items was of .80 and the average inter-item correlation .24 for 470 valid cases, confirming the internal consistency and reliability of the questionnaire. The descriptive statistics show that all the means are above the rating scale mid-level (three) reflecting the overall positive tendency of the perceptions. The standard deviation was stable across all the items, varying one unit or less. The highest means were found on the perception that economic development is important and should be supported, and that tourism is positive to the economy. The development of tourism was considered a factor of travel attraction and of improvement of the internal transportation access to other countries. In the perception of the culture influence, the multicultural environment was considered to support a more prosperous and competitive economy. The lowest score was on the perception that with the growth of tourism the city is now more clean. Although still on positive ground, the score of this item identifies a concern that should be considered and followed.
Table 3: Perception of economic growth, perception of access and transportation networks, and perception of competitive advantages and attraction of residents, travelers and tourists.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of economic growth</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism is positive to the economy</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic development is important and should be supported</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of access and transportation networks</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism improves the external transportation access to other countries</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism improves the internal transportation network of the city</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of competitive advantages and attraction of residents, travelers and tourists</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With the growth of tourism the city is now more clean</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism preserves and protects monuments and heritage sites</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism increases the number of different cultures in the population</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism increases the number of cultural and arts events</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the growth of tourism the quality of cultural and arts events rises</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With development of tourism cities becomes more attractive to live</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the development of tourism cities become more attractive to visit</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economy of a city with many cultures is more competitive</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economy of a city with many cultures is more prosperous</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: Perception of economic growth, perception of access and transportation networks, and perception of competitive advantages and attraction of residents, travelers and tourists

Analysis of variance by category (residents vs. travelers and tourists)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Residents</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Travelers and Tourists</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception of economic growth</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism is positive to the economy</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>3.4        ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic development is important and should be supported</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>.4 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of access and transportation networks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism improves the external transportation access to other countries</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.4 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism improves the internal transportation network of the city</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>14.2 .01</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Perception of competitive advantages and attraction of residents, travelers and tourists</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the growth of tourism the city is now more clean</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>14.9 .01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism preserves and protects monuments and heritage sites</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.5 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism increases the number of different cultures in the population</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.7 .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The growth of tourism increases the number of cultural and arts events</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.9 .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.7 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With development of tourism cities become more attractive to live</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.2 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the development of tourism cities become more attractive to visit</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>.1 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economy of a city with many cultures is more competitive</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>.0 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economy of a city with many cultures is more prosperous</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.7 ns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparisons of results by category show a strong consistency of the perceptions of the travelers and tourists, and the residents, hence supporting the overall reliability of the findings. All the means were on the positive range of the scale (higher than three) and a number of these were quite positive (higher than four). Travelers and tourists were significantly more optimistic about the improvements that the growth of tourism could stimulate in the internal transportation of the city. This is also true for the perception that the city is now more clean with the growth of tourism, and the residents were significantly more reserved about this statement than the travelers and tourists. The travelers and tourists were also more positive about the influence of the growth of
tourism in the increase of the number of different cultures in the population and on the rise of
the number of cultural and arts events.

DISCUSSION

The results confirm the positive perceptions of: (1) the relation between tourism and the
economy; (2) the growth of tourism and the development of the external access links and the
internal transportation networks; and (3) the development of tourism and the development of
a competitive advantage of the city to attract more residents, more travelers, and more
tourists. There was a generally positive perception of the statements included in the
questionnaire and a dominant consistence between the responses of residents and tourists and
travelers.

These positive perceptions alone do not allow a direct conclusion that the development of
tourism influences economic growth, access and transportation networks, and competitive
advantages as a multicultural society, a more prosperous and competitive economy or a
stronger attraction of the destination over travelers, tourists or new residents. The conclusion
that tourism supports economic growth is derived from the contributing share of tourism to
the gross domestic product, the progressive increase of access capacity and the rise of the
arrivals and population numbers. The relation between the factors that support the destination
travel attraction and tourism is bidirectional. A strong and prosperous economy, international
and internal access networks, and a social and cultural environment favorable to foreign
visitors are expected to enhance the development of tourism. In the same way, these factors
are also expected to be object of further developments following the growth of the number of
arrivals and the rise of the economic indicators. Nevertheless, the finding that the perceptions
of the factors studied are positive is already a favorable indicator of a competitive advantage
of the image of the city.

CONCLUSION

The present study is part of a research line on the importance of information perception and
mental images for human decisions, destination marketing and destination development. The
paper offers an indication of the potential of the contribution of organizational theories to
applications in the field of tourism studies. New theories and emergent lines of research can
produce management insights in planning and monitoring the change process for a
destination to become an effective and efficient travel attractor, by strengthen the economy,
the socio-cultural structure of the society, and the external and internal access networks,
hence developing and consolidating competitive advantages to ultimately increase the
positive probabilities of progress and long term survival.

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VFR TRAVELLERS: HOW LONG ARE THEY STAYING?

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**VFR TRAVELLERS: HOW LONG ARE THEY STAYING?**

**ABSTRACT**

Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) travellers is a substantial segment of tourism in many destinations around the world. However, relative to its size, research has been lacking; commencing only around twenty years ago, and gaining momentum only this century. Research into VFR traveller profiles and characteristics has been limited, and some of what has been done conflicts with other findings. One such component, which is important for destinations, is length of stay. Whilst some of the research has indicated that VFR travel is associated with long length of stay, other research indicates that it is more linked with short-break tourism. This research has considered this concept, for VFR travellers compared with non-VFR travellers at three contrasting destinations in Australia. Based on quantitative research using probability sampling, VFR travellers were compared to non-VFR travellers at the popular tourism destination, Sunshine Coast (south-eastern Queensland); the northern Queensland destination of Townsville; and the inland Victorian destination of Ballarat. Whilst the average length of stay varied between all three destinations, relative to non-VFR travellers, there was no significant difference between VFR and non-VFR travellers. Therefore, VFR travel was not found to be associated with either short or long stay at the three destinations considered. However, length of stay was greater, the more popular the destination is with tourists. As such, VFR travellers stay at more attractive destinations longer than at less attractive destinations, but not at any significantly different level to non-VFRs.

Keywords: VFR, visiting friends and relatives, length of stay

**INTRODUCTION**

Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) travel can be described as travel involving visits to friends and / or relatives. It is recognised in many regions as a major tourism segment due to its size. However, it is “one of the most neglected areas of study” (Page & Connell, 2009, p.94). In comparison to its size, there has been little research into VFR travellers, their motivations, behaviours and characteristics, and the factors that influence their choices. This has led to their lack of recognition in Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) marketing plans and an assumption that they contribute little to local economies and tourism industries.

Numerous research gaps are evident in the extant literature. This research aims to examine one of these areas, focusing on the length of stay of VFR travellers relative to non-VFR travellers in three contrasting tourist regions. Length of stay is a critical component of tourism examination, leading to obvious benefits through local economies due to additional funds to tourism industries. This aspect has been particularly confusing in the literature, with mixed findings apparent. Therefore, it is still unknown whether VFR travellers stay for longer or less time than other travellers. Through considering the relative difference between VFRs and non-VFRs at three differing destinations in the one country, Australia, it is intended that more can be revealed about this large and important form of travel.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**
Considering the size of VFR travel, relatively little research has been undertaken in the field. Academic research in the field is somewhat new, with the first major study being only two decades ago (Jackson, 1990). Jackson’s (1990) article struck a chord with a number of researchers, creating curiosity concerning VFR through the mid 1990s. However, VFR travel failed to maintain the momentum in interest, with relatively little literature resulting until more recently.

VFR travel has been highlighted through previous research as being historically ignored and underestimated (Braunlich & Nadkarni, 1995; Hay, 1996, 2008; Jackson, 1990, 2003; King, 1996; McKercher, 1994, 1995; Morrison, Hseih, & O’Leary, 1995; Seaton, 1994; Seaton & Palmer, 1997; Seaton & Tagg, 1995; Yaman, 1996). The reason why VFR travel has failed to attract the level of research it may deserve is an interesting point. Whilst VFR travel is one of the largest and most significant forms of travel, and is recognised as being a sizable form of travel worldwide, “VFR travel remains well-known but not known well” (Backer, 2009, p.2). It is often overlooked in terms of marketing campaigns, and many researchers consider that the area has been forgotten and largely ignored (Hu & Morrison, 2002; Pennington-Gray, 2003, Young, Corsun, & Baloglu, 2007).

There have been various reasons put forward as to why VFR travel tends to be neglected despite its size. Jackson (1990, 2003) suggests it is largely a classification problem. Despite tourism marketing organisations failing to champion it or undertake dedicated marketing strategies to capture these travellers, Lee, Morrison, Lheto, Webb and Reid (2005) feel that these organisations cannot afford to marginalise VFR travel because of the fact that it is “buoyant” (p.35). Paci (1994) blames the “poorly documented” (p.36) data for the neglect in this field, which Hay (2008) also recognises, stating that VFR started life as a “residual classification” that did not belong in the main categories of tourism (p. 1). As such, it has always been seen as an ancillary form of tourism. Seaton and Palmer (1997) considered three perception problems causing the neglect of VFR travel. These three perceptions are: low economic impact, that it cannot be influenced by tourism planners, and that it cannot be influenced by marketing. Backer (2010a) took these further, providing eight reasons to explain this neglect, and each of these will be discussed through this paper:-

- definitional difficulties
- discrepancy with existing data,
- difficulties with measurement
- lack of lobbying
- perceived minor economic impact
- tourism textbooks
- VFR travellers are difficult to influence
- VFR is not ‘sexy’

The first of these points is particularly interesting. With few attempts to put forward a comprehensive definition for VFR travel, it suggests a lack of thinking that underpins the field. In a number of cases (for example Lee, et al. 2005; Hu & Morrison, 2002), no definition is provided but the authors state that data were collected by purpose of visit, which reveals an assumed definition for VFR travel in this manner. Whilst it is reasonable to assume that readers will have an overall understanding of what VFR stands for, it does overlook the data collection problem that VFR is commonly categorised by purpose of visit, but it can also be categorised by accommodation type (Seaton & Palmer, 1997). Different percentages will be attained depending on which classification is used, and neither should be considered a comprehensive definition.
However, VFR travel has also been classified in terms of accommodation. King (1994) stated that VFR travel is categorising visitors by the type of accommodation that they used. Boyne et al. (2002) proposed that “a VFR tourism trip is a trip to stay temporarily with a friend or relative away from the guest’s normal place of residence, that is, in another settlement or, for travel within a continuous settlement, over 15 km one-way from the guests’ home” (p.246). They admitted that this definition “largely avoids rather than confronts some of the key conceptual issues” (p.246-7). Similarly, Kotler et al. (2006) state that “VFR, as the name suggests, are people that stay in the homes of friends and relatives” (p.748). These suggestions reinforce the implied notion that VFR travellers do not stay in commercial accommodation. In fact, according to Navarro and Turco (1994), the perception that VFR travellers make little use of commercial accommodation and do not tend to frequent restaurants, cafes, pubs and clubs is why VFR travel has not been clearly defined.

A definition was put forward by Backer (2007) that “VFR travel is a form of travel involving a visit whereby either (or both) the purpose of the trip or the type of accommodation involves visiting friends and / or relatives” (p.369). This has since been used as the basis for a definitional model (Figure 1) to visually highlight that there are in fact three distinct VFR types, and by measuring VFR by purpose of visit or accommodation type, only two of the three groups will be measured.

Figure 1: VFR Definitional Model.
Source: Backer (2010b, p.45)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of Visit: VFR</th>
<th>Purpose of Visit: Non-VFR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation: Friends &amp; family</td>
<td>Accommodation: Commercial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ PVFRs</td>
<td>✓ CVFRs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ EVFRs</td>
<td>✓ non-VFRs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PVFRs = Pure VFRs (people who are staying with friends or relatives and also state a VFR purpose of visit)
EVFRs = Exploiting VFRs (people who are staying with friends or relatives but did not travel for the purpose of visiting them)
CVFRs = Commercial VFRs (people who travelled to a destination for the purposes of visiting a friend or relative but stay in commercial accommodation)

VFR travellers who stay with friends and relatives and also state a primary purpose of visit as being VFR are considered in the above model to be ‘pure’ VFRs (PVFRs). This is represented by the top left hand box in the matrix. Below that box, are EVFRs, who stay with their friends and relatives but this is not their purpose of visit. They are, in a sense, exploiting their friends and relatives. At the top right hand box, CVFRs are represented, who have come to the destination specifically or primarily to visit their friends and relatives but elect to stay in commercial accommodation.
With definitional considerations only now appearing in the literature, it is not surprising that this has been considered to be one of the causes for neglect in the area of VFR travel. This also helps to improve understanding of why there is discrepancy with existing data, the second reason for neglect. The size of VFR in terms of purpose of visit is not the same as the size of VFR by accommodation. By referring to VFR by purpose of visit data, which can be substantially different to the proportion of VFRs by accommodation data, an underestimation of VFR size results.

VFR travel can be a difficult segment to measure, hence the third reason for VFR neglect. VFR travellers might be staying in commercial accommodation or with friends and relatives. It can be resource intensive to gather adequate data to measure this. The “emphasis on gathering data from commercial accommodation houses” (King, 1996, p.87) necessarily under-reports VFR travel as well. This contributes to VFR being underestimated and neglected.

Lack of lobbying is another cause for neglect. Hay (1996, 2008) has highlighted this as one of the central problems of VFR travel: that it lacks a lobbying group. Often accommodation providers take up the majority of seats on Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) boards and represent a substantial membership composition. These people will often perceive that VFR travellers are not part of their customer base. There has been no place on a board of directors of a DMO for a representative to champion VFR travel. The strategic direction of the marketing efforts will be geared towards other areas by those in a position to champion other causes. King (1996) takes this further by stating that there is actually lobbying against research into VFR travel. He claims that in some countries there is lobbying, primarily by the accommodation sector, against using public funds to undertake research in this area.

With relatively little research undertaken into VFR travel, and lobbying against it, little research has been undertaken to explore the economic impact. In fact VFR travel tends to hold secondary status within tourism (Lehto et al., 2001). VFR travellers are considered to be of inconsequential value to a local economy, with the perception that they spend little and do little in terms of mainstream tourism activities. The problem is one of perception rather than actuality though, with research by McKercher (1994) and King (1994) highlighting the value of VFR travel to local economies.

Furthermore, VFR travel is said to be less susceptible than other forms of tourism to seasonality issues (Aseidu, 2008; Bull, 1995; Denman, 1988; Hay, 1996; McKercher, 1994; Seaton & Palmer, 1996; Seaton & Tagg, 1995; Weaver & Lawton, 2010), and “is most likely to fall outside the conventional tourism season” (Aseidu, 2008, p.617). Therefore, the reduced seasonality aspect of VFR travel also compounds its stabilising effect on local economies.

A further reason why VFR travel tends to be neglected is to do with tourism textbooks. Despite its size, VFR travel is given at best, a cursory mention in tourism text books (Backer, 2010a). Present by way of a column in a table only, or a few paragraphs at best, VFR barely makes it to the index of many current tourism educational books and does not even rate a place in the index of others. With tourism text books serving as a critical reading and learning tool for future tourism managers undertaking degrees, and serving as the basis for a teaching template in tertiary education, VFR is regularly left off the teaching syllabus resulting in the continuation of VFR travel being neglected (Backer, 2009).
Another reason that contributes to VFR travel’s neglected status is the issue of how to influence VFR travellers. It has been considered to be a form of tourism that happens “naturally” and that cannot be influenced (Morrison et al., 2000, p. 110). However, VFR hosts are considered to hold a highly influential role concerning what activities are undertaken by VFR travellers (Jackson, 2003; Meis, Joyal, & Trites, 1995; McKercher, 1995; New Zealand Tourism Board, 1986; Yuan et al., 1995) and therefore it would seem logical that VFR travellers can be readily influenced at the local host level. Tourists tend to rely heavily on the advice provided by friends and relatives in selecting a destination (Mill & Morrison, 1992; Young et al., 2007). Therefore, local residents would normally play a key role in VFR travel, not only in influencing the actual VFR trip, but in determining VFR behaviour regarding local activities and attractions once they arrive.

An eighth and final reason as to why VFR travel tends to be neglected is that it is not regarded as being a ‘sexy’ area of marketing (Backer, 2010a). International marketing is often regarded as more high-level and prestigious and falls under the obvious charter of National Tourism Organisations. Marketing to ‘Aunt Betty’ is not as glamorous.

With relatively little regard provided for VFR, and many assumptions regarding their behaviours, it is not surprising little is known about the characteristics and behaviours of VFR travellers. Length of stay is one of those behaviours where little is known. Whilst research has been done that considered this aspect, there is no consensus regarding this feature.

Many studies have discussed the length of stay of VFR travellers, and the issue of relativity – whether VFR travellers stay longer, shorter, or the same time as other travellers has been discussed by a smaller number of studies. Those studies showed different findings. Some researchers claimed that VFR travellers are associated with a long length of stay (Bull, 1995; Lee et al., 2005; MacEachern, 2007; Polak, 1993; Yuan et al., 1995); others reported that VFR travellers have a short length of stay (Boyne, 2001; Fache, 1994; Hay 1996; McKercher 1994, 1995).

Seaton (1994) found that international VFR travellers to the UK had a longer length of stay. However, he also recognised that tourism operators that deal with short-break travel will typically find that more than half of their market comprises VFR travellers (Seaton, 1994).

Whilst VFR travel has been associated with both short-break travel and long stay travel, further differences in length of stay may be found where VFR is disaggregated into VF and VR trips. Based on an analysis of UK data, Hay (1996) found that VR trips (average of 3.7 nights) were longer than VF trips (average 2.1 nights). However, once compared with the holiday segment (average of 5.5 nights) both VF and VR trips were still comparatively shorter (Hay, 1996).

The length of stay for VFR travellers also holds interesting elements from a commercial accommodation perspective. According to Lehto et al. (2001), VFR travellers staying in commercial accommodation have a longer length of stay than other tourists. This issue also bears importance in terms of the economic impact that VFR travel has on a local economy. Similarly, Braunlich and Nadkarni (1995) found that VFR travellers staying in commercial accommodation exhibited significantly longer lengths of stay to the pleasure market.
However, the impact of the destination on length of stay has not been considered. Therefore, the aim of this research is to consider whether VFR travellers have a long or short length of stay, relative to non-VFR travellers. In order to address this research question, both VFR and non-VFR travellers were surveyed and three different destinations along the eastern seaboard of Australia were selected in order to understand the impact that destination type may have on how long VFR travellers like to stay for.

**METHOD**

Quantitative research was considered the most appropriate for this study. As a structured data collection process was required, questionnaires were selected based on face-to-face surveying. This was considered the most appropriate means of gathering responses from both VFRs and non-VFRs. Mailing out surveys was dismissed as this would involve inconsistent methods of capturing VFR travellers and non-VFR travellers. That is, VFR travellers would be contacted through their hosts’ address whilst non-VFR travellers would have to be contacted through accommodation houses. Telephone surveys were discounted as they would not be an appropriate method to capture visitors without accessing databases.

Face-to-face street surveys were considered suitable because a variety of busy locations can be identified and selected. A key advantage of this method is that all completed responses can be gathered within a relatively short period of time and any doubts respondents may have for any question can be clarified on the spot (Sekaran, 2000). The researcher can also “motivate the respondents to give frank answers” (Sekaran, 2000, p.234). Street surveys were considered the best approach in order to have a consistent method for surveying all groups (VFR travellers and non-VFR travellers). They were also considered the best approach for reducing bias of the respondents.

**Sampling Zone**

Three destinations along the eastern seaboard of Australia were selected as sampling zones (Figure 2). The Sunshine Coast, located around 100 kilometres north of the State of Queensland’s capital, Brisbane, was selected as one area to undertake this research. The Sunshine Coast region has a population that exceeds 260,000 people (ABS, 2008), which is the tenth largest population area in Australia (Sunshine Coast Australia, 2009). It is one of Australia’s most popular holiday destinations (Weaver & Lawton, 2010) and ranks in the top ten destination regions in Australia for inbound visitors (Weaver & Lawton, 2010) and in the top five regions in Australia ranked by expenditure (TRA, 2009).
The second destination, Townsville, is located further north than the Sunshine Coast. It has a population that is over 180,000 (ABS, 2008) and is the largest city in the north Queensland zone. As it is adjacent to the centre of the Great Barrier Reef, it is popular with tourists, and also boasts large sporting events, the nearby Magnetic Island, and popular walking tracks (JCU, 2010).

The third destination, Ballarat, is located in the state of Victoria, around an hour’s drive from the state capital, Melbourne. Ballarat has a population of around 90,000 (ABS, 2008). It has a number of tourist attractions, such as the Observatory and Ballarat Wildlife Park, but is best-known for its open-air museum Sovereign Hill. Sovereign Hill is a popular major attraction in Victoria, but due to Ballarat’s proximity to Melbourne, often suffers as a day-tripper destination. Unlike Townsville and the Sunshine Coast, Ballarat does not have a commercial airport.

The vast differences in these destinations in terms of climate, popularity, infrastructure and population provided sufficient contrast for examining the issue of length of stay for VFRs based on different destinations. Whilst smaller more remote destinations naturally exist, it
was vital from a resource perspective to encounter reasonable numbers of overnight visitors in order to gather data.

Probability sampling was determined as suitable for this research. In the Sunshine Coast, 738 visitor surveys were collected. Data were disaggregated into VFR and non-VFR based on the VFR definitional model (Figure 1), capturing a total of 229 VFRs and 509 non-VFRs. In Townsville, 132 surveys were collected, with 64 VFR surveys and 68 non-VFR surveys. In Ballarat, the total number of surveys collected was 254, comprising 98 VFRs and 156 non-VFRs.

RESULTS

Visitors to each of the three destinations were asked “how many nights are you staying?” Analysis of these results enabled the assessment of the length of stay for VFR and non-VFR travellers that were staying at each location. As the largest sample size came from the Sunshine Coast, in-depth statistical analysis was undertaken on those results to determine a plan for testing for the other destinations.

The raw data indicated that VFR travellers stay more nights than non-VFR travellers at the Sunshine Coast (Table 1). However, as outliers skewed the data and violated the assumption of normality, data were converted to logarithmic functions. A t-test of the logarithmic data to test for significant differences between the length of stay for VFR and non-VFR travellers indicated there was no difference at the 95% confidence level (Table 2). As such, length of stay (number of nights) was unaffected by visitor types, with both VFR and non-VFR travellers staying for similar durations of time.

Table 1: Relationship between length of stay for VFR and non-VFR travellers to the Sunshine Coast (raw data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sunshine Coast</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>10.3 *</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-VFR</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>7.8 *</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the 95% confidence level

Table 2: Relationship between length of stay for VFR and non-VFR travellers to the Sunshine Coast (log means)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sunshine Coast</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Log Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-VFR</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levene statistic = 18.46 (p<0.05) t(349)=0.294 (p>0.05)

At Townsville, VFR travellers stayed an average of 5.4 nights, compared with non-VFR travellers’ 4.6 nights (Table 3). Again, due to the skewed nature of the data, they were converted to logarithmic functions and the t-test was undertaken on the log data. The test revealed no significant difference in length of stay (on the log data) at the 95% confidence level.
Table 3: Relationship between length of stay for VFR and non-VFR travellers to Townsville

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Townsville</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>(NS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>(ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-VFR</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>(ns)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(NS) not significant

In Ballarat, VFR travellers stayed an average of 3.52 nights, compared with non-VFR travellers’ 3.23 nights (Table 4). After converting the raw data to logarithmic functions to normalise the skew of the data, a t-test was undertaken on the log data. The test revealed no significant difference in length of stay (on the log data) at the 95% confidence level.

Table 4: Relationship between length of stay for VFR and non-VFR travellers to Ballarat

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ballarat</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>(NS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>(ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-VFR</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>(ns)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(NS) not significant

As a larger sample size in the Sunshine Coast enabled further disaggregation of data, testing between the three VFR types based on the VFR definitional model (Figure 1) was undertaken. The purpose for this was to see if any differences in length of stay between the VFR types could be established that may assist in explaining the differences exhibited in the literature.

Table 5 provides the mean results for the raw data as well as log means. Analysis of these results enabled the assessment of the length of stay for the three VFR types that were staying at the Sunshine Coast. There was no statistically significant difference for the length of stay for the different VFR typologies. Statistical tests were undertaken on the log means, as outliers in the data violated the rule of normality and as such the data were converted to logarithmic functions. A test of the homogeneity of variances revealed that differences in the length of stay across the three groups were not significant at the 95% confidence level. The ANOVA result was not significant, and individual post hoc tests using Tukey HSD at the 95% confidence level revealed no statistically significant difference between any of the sets in terms of length of stay.

Table 5: Relationship between length of stay and VFR typologies (Sunshine Coast)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean (nights)</th>
<th>Log Mean (nights)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Tukey HSD (mean difference)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PVFR</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVFR</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EVFR</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Levene statistic = 0.626 (p>0.05), f (0.615)=1.607, (p>0.05)
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This research highlighted that VFR and non-VFR travellers exhibited a similar length of stay to each other in the Sunshine Coast, Townsville and Ballarat. This study revealed no statistically significant difference between the two groups of VFRs and non-VFRs at those three destinations. This is in contrast to the findings established through the literature, which had revealed different results with regards to VFR length of stay, with some research indicating that VFRs have a longer length of stay to that of non-VFRs whilst other literature stated that VFRs are inclined to stay shorter lengths of stay.

This aspect of mixed findings for length of stay was noted by Aseido (2008), who stated that the longer length of stay reported by Lee et al. (2005) could be associated with “the fact that a large number of VFR travellers stay in non-paying residences with friends and relatives, contrasting with non-VFR travellers who stay mainly in commercial accommodations” (p.612). A larger sample size in the Sunshine Coast enabled further disaggregated to examine this, and commercial accommodation did not impact upon length of stay in this instance.

When this aspect was considered for CVFR travellers (Table 5), there was no difference for length of stay for those VFR travellers compared to the other VFR travellers (PVFRs and EVFRs). Of note, the raw data results from this study did reveal a significant difference in length of stay. It was only through converting the data to logarithmic functions that a significant difference was no longer apparent. The data collected for this study included some VFR travellers who had very long lengths of stay. This necessarily skewed the data and violated the rule of normality, essential to accept the results from the t-test. It is unknown whether other studies also experienced outliers in their data, and if so, how these were addressed. VFR travel may be more typically associated with outliers, with extremely long lengths of stay, compared with other forms of travel. Therefore, further research to explore this in other destinations would be useful to “help illuminate the actual relevance of this variable in decision making among VFR” travellers (Asiedu, 2008, p.612).

This research has contributed to the literature on VFR travel in several ways. Firstly, it has contributed to the body of knowledge in this field, which, relative to the size of the segment on a global perspective, is small and limited. Secondly, it has assisted to improve knowledge on the mixed findings regarding length of stay for VFR travellers. Based on three different destinations, there was no significant difference between VFR and non-VFR length of stay once data were converted to logarithmic functions to normalise the skew and enable t-tests to be conducted. Thirdly, and perhaps more interestingly, what this research highlights is how much impact destination can have on VFR length of stay. The most popular destination of the three, the Sunshine Coast, enjoyed the longest trip duration for both VFR and non-VFR travellers. The destination with the least appeal for tourism, Ballarat, also revealed the shortest length of stay, for both VFRs and non-VFRs. As such, VFR travellers stay at more attractive destinations longer than at less attractive destinations, but not at any significantly different level to non-VFRs. If indeed VFR travel is purely about visiting friends and relatives, then the attractiveness of the destination should have no influence. However, VFRs seem to want to stay longer when the destination is attractive. Therefore, it seems that VFRs can be influenced, not only by their hosts, but by where the hosts reside. Further investigation into the host-destination relationship would add greatly to knowledge in this important and sizable tourism segment.
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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE INBOUND EUROPE INTERNATIONAL VISITOR PROFILE IN AUSTRALIA - A MAPPING ANALYSIS OF VISITOR TRAVEL PROFILES

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper examines which of the European markets are most thriving in terms of future marketing activities. Most European visitors travelling towards Australia are coming from the UK, Germany, Scandinavia, France, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, and Switzerland. In 2008 over 1 million visitors arrived from these countries, most of them were visiting New South Wales, Queensland and Victoria (Tourism Research Australia, 2010).

However there are significant differences in which tourist destinations visitors are targeting and previous research has also confirmed that “variables such as tourist perceptions of a destination, (...) demographic profiles and tourist activities may vary according to countries of origin.” (Kozak, 2002, p. 221). The Northern Territory for example ranks 4th with some visitor groups (Germany, France, Netherlands and Switzerland) and is neglected by others. Thus European inbound tourism is concentrated on particular states rather than evenly dispersed within Australia. The analysis of data from Tourism Research Australia (2010) on the different international visitor profiles has shown that the European market differs essentially on the basis of repeat visitation, demographics, seasonality, duration of stay, destination and visitor expenditure. An overall comparative analysis of various European market segments has lead to a better understanding of the destination preferences of the European visitors. It provides deeper insights into why certain Australian states do not evince much interest among the European visitors despite having world class tourist drawcards. The outcomes of the study have important implications concerning most important European inbound tourism markets in Australia.

Keywords: Australia, Europe, inbound tourism, visitor group, visitor profile

REFERENCES


ADAPTING A TOURISM CRIME/VIOLENCE TYPOLOGY: CLASSIFYING CRIME AGAINST INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS IN NEW ZEALAND IN THE PAST 5 YEARS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper is informed by past and current acts of violence and crime against international tourists in New Zealand; acts which could potentially have a negative impact on the tourism industry of New Zealand and on its “clean cut” image abroad. New Zealand prides itself of being a thriving, sustainable, clean, and relatively safe country to visit. This view is perhaps best reflected in the Tourism New Zealand marketing campaign, 100% Pure New Zealand. Taking a qualitative approach, this paper examines Pizam’s (1999) Tourism Crime and Violence Typology within the New Zealand context. Using data from New Zealand media reports during the period 2004-2010, this paper aims to classify acts of crime and violence committed against international tourists visiting New Zealand. Next, it endeavours to draw a picture of the agencies involved in the aftermath of each act (such as agencies could be law enforcement, community, tourist industry, visitors, businesses and government agencies) and the strategies used in the recovery stage after a crime has occurred (such strategies can include marketing, publicity, information dissemination, etc.). Through the use of this typology it is expected to gain understanding of how agencies work together to overcome the damaging effects of crime to the tourism industry. The paper will conclude by discussing how information disseminated by the media only provides partial information and will recommend ways in which agencies could better communicate with potential tourists.

REFERENCE

DYSLEXIA AND TOURISM-RELATED EXCLUSION: THE ROLE OF TRAVEL INFORMATION PROVISION

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Access to transport is increasingly recognised as having a significant impact upon tourism for people with disabilities. The ability to access tourism-related opportunities is highly dependent upon the ability to access private and/or public transport. However, for people with disabilities, there are many barriers to transport access. This abstract considers those with dyslexia. The abstract reports results from an in-depth qualitative study which focuses upon dyslexia as a contributory factor in tourism-related exclusion, with specific reference to the role of travel information in preventing travel by this group. Results and discussion illustrate the complex way in which people with dyslexia interact with travel information and the extent to which this contributes towards the tourism-related exclusion of this group. The authors have been unable to locate any previous related studies focusing on people with dyslexia.

This research calls for greater recognition and awareness of dyslexia. In line with this, the abstract concludes with an overview of potential solutions, with an emphasis upon actions to create more accessible traveller information systems, for people with dyslexia. Greater awareness of and support for dyslexia could result in more useful, more usable and more used travel information, which could both facilitate and broaden the travel horizons of this group and, from this, the tourism-related opportunities available to them. Of course, the research is not only of benefit to those with dyslexia. Implementation of more accessible information systems could also therefore extend far more widely to include a greater number of non-dyslexics.

Keywords: Dyslexia; transport; travel information; equality; inclusive design; accessible tourism; tourism exclusion.

INTRODUCTION

The role of tourism is increasingly recognized as a positive instrument towards the improvement of quality of life for all people, and has the potential to make a contribution to social development. This gives rise to a new agenda for tourism research: to include basic research to substantiate long-term policies, and help translate research into policies and measures (Handszuh, 2007).

The World Health Organisation (2007; cited in Disability North, 2010) estimates that there are over 600 million people with disabilities worldwide, which is approximately 10% of the population. As the population ages, more people will fall into this category (White, 2004; and Tourism for All cited in Gill, 2007). Research shows that those with a disability are likely to
spend more and take longer holidays than people without a disability. This group is also more likely to travel out of season than the average traveller (Gill, 2007). Further to this, an increasing number of people with disabilities are travelling abroad for business (White, 2004).

‘Accessible tourism’ enables people with either permanent or temporary disabilities to function independently and with equity and dignity through the delivery of universally designed tourism products, services and environments (Darcy & Dickson, 2009; cited in Darcy, 2010). For people with disabilities, accessible tourism is highly dependent upon the ability to access private and/or public transport. Providers and policymakers must ensure that people within this group are aware of available and acceptable transport options, so that they can make an informed decision on whether a particular trip is suitable for their needs (Gill, 2007). The following qualifications to this assertion are important: the richness and reliability of information; appropriate and relevant information sources; access to the information; and communication tools (Eichhorn, Miller, Michopoulou & Buhalis (2007). This abstract considers those with dyslexia. The abstract reports qualitative research which focuses upon dyslexia as a factor in, and contributor towards tourism-related exclusion, with specific reference to the role of travel information in preventing and facilitating travel by this group. There is a paucity of evidence specifically considering those with dyslexia, and the author has been unable to locate any previous related studies focusing upon this group.

UNDERSTANDING DYSLEXIA

Dyslexia is a specific learning difficulty which mainly affects the development of literacy and language related skills. It is likely to be present at birth and to be lifelong in its effects. It is characterised by difficulties with phonological processing, rapid naming, working memory, processing speed, and the automatic development of skills that may not match up an individual’s other cognitive abilities. It tends to be resistant to convention teaching methods, but its effects can be mitigated by appropriately specific intervention, including the application of information technology and supportive counselling (British Dyslexia Association, 2009). Dyslexia affects at least 6 per cent of the UK population and 8 per cent of the world population (European Dyslexic Association, 2007), affecting those using alphabetic-style languages and those whose languages are based upon symbols rather than letters (Miles, 1993; and Beaton, 2004).

METHODOLOGY

Given the paucity of existing understanding in the research literature, a qualitative exploration was necessary. Although a quantitative-based survey would have highlighted the prevalence of the problem, this study aimed not to establish facts that can be statistically verified or generalised, but to advance theoretical and contextual understanding of the complex needs and experiences of people with dyslexia. Considering that dyslexia is particularly related to written language and is exacerbated by stress, focus group research offers a way of placing people with dyslexia in a suitable environment where they can comfortably share their attitudes and experiences, without the need for the use of written language.

52 participants were recruited to six focus groups. This was not a comparative study with non-dyslexics. For that reason, recruitment was solely with people who have received an official diagnosis of dyslexia. A good spread of age was achieved (18-60). Although gender differences in the incidence of dyslexia exist (Beaton, 2004; Miles, 1993), an equal mix of
gender was attained. Participants were either dependently or independently mobile, with a mix of experiences to draw upon. The initial discussion focused upon the participants’ experiences of dyslexia, before turning to focus upon their experiences of travel and transport. Participants were encouraged to discuss their travel in terms of the journey lifecycle (the stages from the decision to plan a journey to arriving at the destination), before considering travel by car and/or public transport for unfamiliar local or long distance journeys. Participants discussed their mode use, before being guided to consider reasons for this. Information use emerged naturally through discussion. Travel behaviour and attitudes towards transport were explored to investigate the perceived constraints on travel choice and the barriers to tourism.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results and discussions illustrate the complex way in which people with dyslexia interact with travel information, which directly results in exclusion from the transport system and tourism participation for this group. The task of planning and undertaking an unfamiliar journey is affected by dyslexia, with this relationship associated with and exacerbated by a lack of appropriate informational support. Concurrent travelling and comprehension of information, together with complex and unfamiliar transport systems and street layouts require sophisticated processing skills, which people with dyslexia may not necessarily possess. The situation is intensified because information does not support these weaknesses. It is either unavailable or of little use, being difficult to access and decipher. In consequence, this group faces limited travel horizons and access to tourism-related opportunities because they are unable to explore the choices and opportunities available to them.

CONCLUSION

This study calls for greater recognition and awareness of dyslexia, particularly within travel information provision. This could broaden the travel horizons of those with dyslexia and, from this, the tourism-related opportunities available to them. Much remains to be done if dyslexic people, numbering a substantial percentage of the population, are to be empowered to make fully informed choices about whether, when and how to travel and if they are to be assisted in successfully accessing tourism-related opportunities. The research highlighted a number of potential solutions to facilitate greater tourism-related inclusion for people with dyslexia, with a wide range of needs, with an emphasis upon actions to create more accessible information systems. In order to provide a more inclusive environment for this group, policymakers and operators should consider reviewing information provision and activities across the board. This should consider how information is provided – via web based services, mobile devices, maps and timetables, or audibly; and it should look at the efficiency of information systems ranging from the use of electronic variable message signs to making sure conventional signs are not obscured by trees. But it should also include issues of staff training, such as inclusion criteria for concessionary travel, disability training, and the provision of specific stress management advice for travellers (Lamont, 2009).

Of course, the research is not only of benefit to those with dyslexia. Some of the difficulties reported may equally be experienced by people without dyslexia. Implementation of more accessible traveller information systems could also therefore extend far more widely to include, or make access easier to, a greater number of non-dyslexics. However, for providers and policymakers to truly regard themselves as having an interest in accessible tourism, this concept needs to be considered as part of strategically planned process (Darcy, 2010).
The research primarily draws upon the UK evidence base, reflecting the advanced position of the UK in this field and the location of the primary data collection. However, it is suggested that to fully enable this group, it is advocated that a global approach to accessible tourism is necessary in order to remove barriers that currently restrict their options for overseas travel. A qualitative cross-national comparative study, with the purpose of establishing the applicability of the analyses outside of the UK, would advance understanding in this area. Examining the variability of transport organization, travel information provision and the perceptions and interventions of other countries towards dyslexia, would further develop best practice guidance in the provision of information to facilitate travel for this group and form an essential component of success in the development of transportation and tourism worldwide.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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GAP YEAR EXPERIENCES AND NEW ZEALANDERS: A FRESH PERSPECTIVE?

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

This paper will explore the multiplicity of experiences and interactions of young New Zealanders who have undertaken a Gap Year before entering University. This paper will aim to illustrate the impact of this mobility on these student’s lives. The dynamic process of movement and stasis, albeit often temporary for these young people, involves a constant negotiation of their sense of self and where they belong. In identifying these experiences, this paper will seek to recognise the blurred nature of much of the mobilities literature whilst emphasising that, for these young people, their ways of knowing and belonging have become more complex. This paper will be based on research undertaken with first year undergraduates attending a New Zealand university. In-depth interviews are used in order to gain a reflective overview of their experiences. Through the negotiation of work, leisure, travel and self, it is anticipated that these young people will demonstrate a broader understanding of, and have developed, wider global perspectives. It is also expected that thinking specifically about the impact of their experiences will highlight areas that have yet to be explored within the academic literature. This paper will conclude by highlighting that the Gap Year is becoming a global phenomenon and as such needs (re-)contextualising in such terms within both the tourism industry and the academic literature.
KNOWING ME KNOWING YOU AH-HA: THE TOURIST HOST EXPERIENCE AT THE WHITE LADY

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The White Lady is a movable fast food kitchen-restaurant that has operated in Auckland’s CBD for the past 50 years. This paper illuminates the mutual gaze (Maoz, 2006) between the White Lady workers and tourists. Their relationship is established as being symbiotic because it is mediated through contemporary commercial hospitality exchange practices. This relationship aligns best with Perkins and Thorn’s (2001) suggestion that the ‘New Zealand’ tourist experience as exemplified at the White Lady reflects the resourcefulness of pioneer culture, interaction and participation. The position taken is contrary to Ap’s (1992) suggestion of an unequal power dynamic between host and tourist, and also to Urry’s (1990; 2001) suggestion that the tourist gaze is passive. By establishing how the White Lady has come to provide a uniquely New Zealand tourist experience, the paper intends to contribute to theory on the tourist gaze by presenting results from a uniquely New Zealand case.

REFERENCES


RESPONSIBLE TOURISM QUALMARK ACCREDITATION: A COMPARATIVE EVALUATION OF TOURISM BUSINESSES AND TOURISTS PERCEPTIONS

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The Responsible Tourism Qualmark (RTQ) scheme is part of the New Zealand Ministry of Tourism effort to improve the sustainability of tourism industry practices. This research seeks to understand why businesses incorporate sustainable practices through RTQ, and how tourists respond to the concept of responsible tourism. The research comprised of two elements: (1) Self-administered surveys completed by tourists staying at RTQ accredited businesses (N=66); (2) Semi-structured interviews conducted with RTQ accredited businesses’ senior management (N=24). Results indicate that both businesses and tourists have confidence in the RTQ’s ability to deliver responsible practices. A large range of exogenous and endogenous pressures motivated businesses to engage in responsible tourism practices. Likewise, tourists demonstrated their support for the responsible tourism concept, in principle. However, this support is not yet translated into actual pressure. In addition to the identified motivators, businesses were analysed with respect to their degree of environmental awareness. Based on this, a segmentation of three types emerged: (1) The Devotees - those who hold high environmental awareness; (2) The Compliers - those who have some environmental awareness; and (3) The Opportunists - those who hold no environmental concern. This analysis helps explain the division between actors holding high environmental awareness and joining RQT for altruistic reasons, from actors holding low or no environmental awareness. The latter are largely motivated by legitimacy and competitiveness drives. This new understanding highlights an essential component in building operator capability of delivering responsible products: addressing the unique motivations, needs and constraints of each business type.
INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a process that includes a combination of phenomena; it has social, cultural, economic and anthropological elements. It includes such activities as diverse as shopping, surfing, snorkeling, sport-fishing, camping, and visiting sacred places and ancient sites. Understanding the reasons why tourists choose to spend their time, which is often constrained by busy work schedules, gender restrictions or religious/family commitments, in a particular manner, is an area of interest popular among tourism researchers. This field of study often utilizes the concept of the gaze (Urry, 1990), which looks into perceptions of tourism and provides a platform from which individuals can interpret the impact on their own behavior. In the early 1990s, the tourist gaze gained increasing attention worldwide. When it was introduced it reflected tourists’ behaviour, however the gaze is usually presented from a Western perspective (an interpretation derived from Western culture), related to the factors that influence tourists to set off towards destinations. This study seeks to challenge that perspective and asks how it might differ if another culture is considered. For example, what determines the tourist gaze of Muslim women? Is it different from that of other tourists, and if so, how? The understanding of tourist behaviour, gender groupings, culture and religion are the main concern of this paper. A case study serves as an ideal approach as a unit of analysis and allows in-depth investigation to be achieved. Setiu, a resort town on the coast of Terengganu, Malaysia is useful as a study site because it can be used to represent the diversity of tourism seen from the perspective of Muslim women as tourists.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

As Cabello (2007) suggests, a key component of the tourist gaze is the anticipation of sights viewed or imagined, regardless of the mechanisms. She states, the tourist gaze is recognized as a primary factor in deciding where to travel. Urry (1990, p. 86) argues this is because it ‘involves spectacles and self-indulgence’ He also suggests (Urry, 2002, p. 3), ‘places are chosen to be gazed because there is anticipation…. Such anticipation is constructed and sustained through a variety of non-tourist practices, such as film, TV, literature, magazines… which construct and reinforce that gaze’. On the other hand, the tourist gaze provides some guidance to understanding how the tourist behaves by the regulation of gender and culture. This study is carried out with the objective of interpreting differences in the tourist gaze from the perspective of Malay Muslim women’s perceptions of tourism, particularly in the Setiu coastal area. The ways in which Muslim women perceive their tourism experience will be identified and discussed. This offers an expansion of understanding (not only) of the concept of the tourist gaze, (but also of) tourism phenomena, gender identities and cultural relationships.
This research synthesizes the theories behind the structure of the tourist gaze, the values which emphasize them and the implications for tourism development and explores these ideas by applying a case study approach. In this case, it is a case study based on the perceptions of Muslim women in regards to the development of tourism, with particular reference to Setiu (Malaysia) coastal areas. The study aims to understand how the tourist gaze has changed and evolved within a specific societal, environmental and cultural example. In this research, attention is turned to a specific group of tourists, and the question that is asked is:

“How is the tourist gaze interpreted by Muslim women?”

One issue for this study is the absence of information on the preferences of tourists that contributes to tourism development by providing practical information that would be of considerable help in gaining better understanding of the Muslim women’s perspective, especially for the Setiu coastal area. The four research questions below relate to tourist behaviour. Thus, the case study at the heart of this investigation should enable an answer to be determined as to:

1. How do Muslim women perceive Setiu as a tourism experience?
2. What does the coastal destination mean to them?
3. What are their expectations for visiting a coastal tourism destination and what are their experiences?
4. How might this differ from “western” women and what, if anything, is significant about these differences?

At this stage, the formation of goals and objectives is based on the issues and problems identified. A review and analysis of relevant literature will be carried out to identify areas of concern and potential problems.

Research Approach

The structure of this study is initiated through its literature review of the tourist gaze theory and of tourism development from a wide perspective. This delivers an overall understanding of the definitions and scope of the tourist gaze, tourism and also related development issues. This research is primarily interested in the use of a qualitative research method by using the case study approach, including the background and related previous studies associated with the site, as well as the collection of important site data. As Yin (1984, p. 23) point out a case study is “... an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used”.

The case study in this research focuses on the tourist group behaviour in its total social setting and on the other hand, it is also used to help the tourists to develop a degree of confidence in their opinion. As Yin (1994) suggests using multiple sources of evidence is the way to ensure construct validity, the current study uses multiple sources of evidence such as semi-structured interviews and documents. While the semi-structured interview was chosen as the primary data gathering instrument, the questions were carefully proposed to give sufficient coverage of the study. Other than that, this study approach enables important data on the site to be recorded and analyzed. Finally, identification of the findings of the whole study will be identified and compared with the existing literature on theories in tourism and the important points will be summarized.
CONCLUSION

Tourist gaze is a complex area of enquiry. Many researchers have tried to explain and explore the concept. In order to investigate the actual perception and expectation of Muslim women tourists in Setiu, exploring this group of tourists from new a perspective, this study may not only help locals to better develop their destination, it should also assist other scholars and researchers to better understand Muslim women’s perceptions, expectations and motivations.

REFERENCES


TOURISM POLICY AND WORKING HOLIDAYS IN NEW ZEALAND AND JAPAN: AN OPPORTUNITY TO ADD VALUE

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

Working Holiday Schemes allow young people from one country to holiday and work in a reciprocating country, typically for up to one year. The first Japanese Working Holiday scheme was signed with Australia in 1980 and five years later a second scheme was signed with New Zealand. Japan has now established eleven reciprocal Working Holiday agreements, while New Zealand has gone on from its initial scheme with Japan, to establish thirty-six such programmes. This working paper examines developments in the Working Holiday schemes and seeks to determine if there are links to mobility, migration and the National Tourism Strategy of each country. This is done with reference to published documents such as the ‘Tourism Nation Promotion Basic Law’ and ‘Tourism Nation Promotion Basic Plan’ of Japan with the ‘New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015’. The paper also examines the changes in tourist arrivals between the two countries and seeks to understand the reasons behind the changes in both overall tourist numbers and Working Holidaymakers’ arrivals. The paper suggests that research to aid understanding of the policies of, and relationships between, New Zealand and Japan, provides an opportunity to add value for both countries.

Keywords: Tourism policy, working holiday schemes, working holidaymaker, Japan, New Zealand.
THE TRUTH AND MYTH OF WHERE TOURISTS STAY AND WITH WHOM IN NEW ZEALAND

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WORKING PAPER EXTENDED ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

There is a common saying that states “it’s not what you know, but who you know”. This expression has relevance for the important New Zealand tourism market segment, who identify themselves as “visiting friends and relatives”. For the year ended March 2010, 2.5 million international tourists to New Zealand generated 50.6 million tourist nights (Ministry of Tourism 2010d). In addition domestic tourists within New Zealand generated 48.8 million tourist nights (Ministry of Tourism 2010b). This gives a total of 99.4 million nights. Of these 99.4 million nights, only 32.3 million are spent in commercial accommodation (Ministry of Tourism 2010c), suggesting as many as 67.1 million (68%) could be staying with friends and relatives. There has been a widely held view, that those visiting friends and relatives (VFR) are not ‘real’ tourists because they do not spend much money (Denman, 1988; Jackson, 1990).

Tourists whose motivation to travel or reason for visit (RFV) is to visit friends and relatives (VFR), are considered by some to have little commercial value for the hospitality industry because VFR supposedly do not use commercial accommodation (Backer, 2007; Denman, 1988; Jackson, 1990). More recently the research by Backer (2010) has found that even though the ‘per person per day’ expenditure is low, because VFR tend to stay longer the VFR overall spend is on par with other travellers. According to the Ministry of Tourism (2010a) International Visitor Arrival (IVA) data for the year ended March 2010, the VFR segment has increased to 32% in 2010 from 28.5% in 2006. Brocx (2004), from interviewing the Auckland host community in 2003, established that about half of the visitor nights in Auckland were in some way associated with VFR.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the extent of the VFR influence on travel to and within New Zealand using secondary data from the New Zealand Tourism Strategy Group (www.tourismresearch.govt.nz). This exploration will attempt to ascertain whether the published data understates the level of VFR and whether it is worthwhile to research the extent of the VFR influence further.

OVERVIEW OF LITERATURE

The earlier literature on VFR invariably began with the suggestion the VFR is underestimated (eg Hay, 1996; Jackson, 1990; Seaton, 1995), and using secondary data went on to suggest otherwise. McKercher (1995) refers to the VFR as being invisible because their lower than average total expenditure conceals the possibility that VFR expenditure in some areas is as high, if not higher than, the holiday tourist. In the United Kingdom, according to Beioley
(1997) visits from friends and relatives encourage additional spending by their hosts. Backer (2007) in her research on the expenditure of the VFR segment and their hosts based on the Sunshine Coast, Queensland, Australia, confirms this with the finding that there was an increased expenditure by the hosts when their friends and relatives visit. The economic impact of VFR according to Backer (2007), found VFR expenditure per trip, when one included expenditure by the host, was higher, in the case of groceries, leisure shopping, constructed attractions, fuel, liquor, activities, entertainment, restaurants and cafes, than the non-VFR tourist spend. Essentially, the only areas where the non-VFR outspent the VFR were taxis, hire cars and accommodation. This finding suggests there is an inaccurate assumption regarding the low level of the economic impact of the VFR tourist. In concluding, Backer (2007) found that whilst the overall expenditure of VFR, when excluding host expenditure, was only Australian $1467, when the expenditure by the hosts is included it came to A$1699. What brings the non-VFR up to A$2075 was the A$825 spent on accommodation. When accommodation is taken out, VFR and host expenditure of $1699 is more than the A$1250 spent by non-VFR (excluding accommodation).

The following data from the New Zealand Ministry of Tourism (now Tourism Strategy Group) are all on March 2010 ended years, with comparisons to 2006 also on March ended years. Four surveys are sourced: International Visitor Arrivals (IVA), International Visitor Survey (IVS), Domestic Travel Study (DTS) and the Commercial Accommodation Monitor (CAM).

According to the Ministry of Tourism (2010a) IVA, there were 2.5 million international visitor arrivals, of which 32%, or 0.74 million were VFR. The IVS (Ministry of Tourism 2010d) confirms this percentage of VFR on a visitor basis and visitor night basis. The percentage growth between 2006 and 2010 (March ended years) for the total arrivals was 5.3% according to the IVA, and 3.7% according to the IVS (Ministry of Tourism, 2010d). The IVA includes all arrivals, whereas the IVS is only those 15 years and over. Of the increase of 3.7% (2009-2010) according to the IVS, most was attributable to the 21.3% increase in VFR visitors. On a visitor night basis the VFR increased by 33.9% over the five year period 2006 to 2010, with the total growth from 42.6 to 50.6 million visitor nights, up by 18.8%, with the holiday segment falling by 7.3%. VFR market share increased from 28.5 to 32% between 2006 and 2010.

The domestic tourist trips according to the DTS totalled 46.3 million, of which 15.5 million are VFR (33% market share). Night data by RFV is not available for 2010 (Ministry of Tourism, 2010b)

Table 1: Accommodation Usage-nights for Year ended March 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total nights</th>
<th>Spent in owner dwellings</th>
<th>% of total nights</th>
<th>VFR RFV nights</th>
<th>% of total nights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International(1)</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic (2)</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Source: Ministry of Tourism, 2010d (2) Source: Ministry of Tourism, 2010b

The Commercial Accommodation Monitor (Ministry of Tourism, 2010c), which measures tourist nights spent in commercial accommodation, states there were 32.3 million visitor nights spent in commercial accommodation, well short of the total tourist nights of 99.4
million by 67.1 million nights and more than the 46.3 million nights staying in owned dwellings, which are mostly friends and relatives (as a type of accommodation).

The usage of private dwellings by international travellers as an accommodation type is strongest in the VFR RFV segment, but ranges from 22% for RFV international holiday, 18% for international business travellers (Ministry of Tourism, 2010d). The domestic holiday traveller use of private dwellings is 42%, and domestic business is 32% (Ministry of Tourism, 2010b). Hotels and motels usage by VFR international travellers is 8% (Ministry of Tourism, 2010d) and VFR domestic travellers is 13% of nights (Ministry of Tourism, 2010b). Whilst there is a strong correlation between RFV and accommodation usage, there is some ‘cross-over’ of the reason for visit and accommodation usage.

VFR as an activity is in the top five activities undertaken by both international and domestic travellers. International holiday travellers have a 32% visitation to friends and relatives (Ministry of Tourism, 2010d), domestic holiday travellers only 11% (Ministry of Tourism, 2010b).

When it comes to the activity ‘dining out’, international VFR visitation was 98%, with shopping at 84%. This is on par with both the holiday and business RFV. Put another way, this means VFR go out to dine and shop as much as the holiday and business RFV (Ministry of Tourism, 2010d). The domestic VFR traveller is less likely than the international traveller to dine out or shop. This is also true of the domestic holiday traveller (Ministry of Tourism, 2010b).

Tourist expenditure shows a different picture, with the international holiday traveller clearly a bigger spender at $2,947 per person compared to $1,493 for the VFR and an overall spend of $2,633 (Ministry of Tourism, 2010d). If one were able to add in the host expenditure, and remove the money spent by international holiday travellers on accommodation, one might come closer to the findings of Backer (2007).

The domestic tourist expenditure data from the DTS enabled the extraction of expenditure on accommodation by RFV. The domestic traveller, including the day tripper, spent $188 per person per day. The domestic holiday traveller spent $189, the VFR $156 per person per day. The domestic holiday traveller spent $86 per person per day on accommodation. So without accommodation, they spent $103 on other than accommodation. The domestic VFR spent $31 on accommodation, belying the notion that VFR do not spend money on accommodation. When the $31 is taken of their total spend of $156, VFR spend on other is $125, which is more than the holiday traveller at $103. The domestic business traveller pattern is similar to the holiday. The VFR spend on transport ($55) is higher than the holiday ($50), but lower than the business ($90) traveller (Ministry of Tourism, 2010b).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, VFR is a growing market, and an important market for some sectors of the industry. Braunlich and Nadkarni (1995) and Backer (2010) suggest and demonstrate that VFR can provide opportunities even for the accommodation sector. The traditional tourist measures and top-line data show that the New Zealand VFR market is both increasing as a proportion of all travellers and in absolute size. The analysis of the use of commercial accommodation suggests the VFR influence could be as high as 68% over double the official RFV measure of VFR. The international traveller to New Zealand would appear to be more ‘hybrid’ than the domestic traveller, hence further research on VFR should focus on the
international traveller, rather than the domestic. The VFR influence is greater than the RFV data suggest and the expenditure data clearly show the VFR are economically valuable. Further research on the extent of influence of the friends and relatives on the choice of destination would add to the knowledge we have on the VFR market.

REFERENCES


UNDERSTANDING VISITOR ATTITUDES TOWARDS AQUACULTURE, SEAFOOD AND TOURISM IN THE NELSON/MARLBOROUGH AND GOLDEN BAY REGIONS IN NEW ZEALAND TO FOSTER INNOVATIVE SUSTAINABLE FORMS OF TOURISM

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

With the exponential increase in global travel over the last six decades, tourists have become more interested in individually customized products to satisfy their travel demands. For rural destinations, globalization has resulted in an increasing number of visitors looking for new authentic experiences linked to culture. This growing interest in cultural tourism by international and domestic travelers includes a new niche market linked to food and culinary tourism. Based on a visitor survey and case study approach in the Nelson/Marlborough and Golden Bay region this paper explores attitudes and expectations of international and domestic visitors towards seafood, aquaculture and tourism. In order to determine visitors’ attitudes and support for linking the tourism and aquaculture sectors, the creation of a visitor profile assists in understanding visitors’ interest in and knowledge about seafood. An evaluation of visitors’ expectations towards a seafood experience may support management decisions in terms of the establishment of an aquaculture and seafood trail. The research assesses the benefits of a themed trail and determines ways a trail can support an innovative and sustainable approach to rural tourism planning in order to maintain growth in primary industries like aquaculture and tourism.
FULL OF SOUND AND FURY SIGNIFYING NOTHING: THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AMBUSH MARKETING LEGISLATION

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

One of the conditions for hosting mega-events, such as the Olympics, World Cup Football and the Rugby World Cup, is that the host country develop and implement event-specific legislation to support efforts to reduce the frequency and impact of ambush marketing (in the case of New Zealand the Major Events Management Act). Legitimacy is then bestowed on both the local organizing committee and host nation because such legislation means they are conforming to the mandates established by an international sports organization. However, the execution and application of such legislation has been infrequent. The purpose of this presentation is to explain the under-utilization of event-specific ambush marketing legislation with the 2011 Rugby World Cup serving as the backdrop. Based on data collected from semi-structured interviews with New Zealand intellectual property lawyers and event managers, as well as marketing, advertising and sport marketing executives (and incorporating a historical perspective of previous mega-events), the results indicate a number of factors explaining the under-utilization of the legislation. This presentation offers suggestions why ambush marketing organizations are so rarely prosecuted under the event-specific such legislation. The difficulties with enacting prosecutions should not suggest that this type of legislation is ineffective from a prosecution perspective, but rather the value of event-specific ambush marketing legislation is that it successfully deters ambush marketing by creating an additional set of possible, significant transaction costs (e.g. fines, prosecution, negative media exposure) for the ambushing organization.
THE BIG OE: EXAMINING A NEW ZEALAND TRADITION FROM THE 50S TO TODAY

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

This presentation examines the New Zealand Overseas Experience (OE), a form of international mobility that is recognised as a New Zealand (pakeha) tradition, which has attracted research attention from several disciplines over the last decade. The presentation will examine the Big OE in a ‘tourism’ context through the eyes of those that have ‘done’ it. The characteristics of those who have been on an OE will be explored as well as their motivation for doing it and the OE experience itself. The analysis will distinguish between numerous generations of young New Zealanders, ranging from those that went in the 1950s through until those that did their OE in the 21st century. The research sought to generate a large body of data while minimising bias and was thus conducted as a drop and mailback survey using a stratified sample of Wellington City households.
WHO HAS THE MOST SUNSHINE? THE BATTLE FOR THE MOST ATTRACTIVE DESTINATION

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

Climate and weather is important for tourism and leisure as it impacts on destination attractiveness and subsequent visitation. Through an archive analysis of media articles and a content analysis of RTO websites this paper explores potential deficiencies in the currently available climate and weather information for tourists in New Zealand. While media reports focused on concern by many RTOs over the poor regional images generated by inaccurate and poorly presented climate and weather data, the RTO websites were found to contain limited climate and weather information. There is considerable potential for RTOs to improve in this respect.
Theme: Tourism, Hospitality and Sustainability

Leadership and corporate social responsibility in the hotel industry in Hong Kong.
(Working paper abstract).
Murray MacKenzie, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong and Mike Peters, University of Innsbruck, Austria.

Creating the environmental policy in the hospitality industry for selected countries.
(Working paper abstract).
Dominika Bojova, University of Economics Bratislava, Slovakia.

College students' willingness-to-pay for green hotels – an application of the theory of planned behaviour.
(Working paper abstract).
David Pearlman and Daniel de la Selva, University of New Orleans, USA.

Consumer preferences for sustainability in the luxury hotel sector.
(Presentation summary).
Tiffany Low and Sally Everett, University of Bedfordshire, UK.

Developing an oil vulnerability assessment tool for industry.
(Presentation summary).
Susanne Becken, Lincoln University, NZ.

Tourism and hospitality students’ perceptions of sustainability.
(Presentation summary).
Dale Sanders, Edith Cowan University, Australia.

Travel decision-making in a climate-constrained world.
(Presentation summary).
Anna Huebner, Aalborg University, Denmark.
LEADERSHIP AND CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN HONG KONG

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

It is well recognised that organisations develop different cultures and leaders from within, or as part of a team and this can play an important role in shaping its future in various ways (Schein, 2004; Gurerk, Irlenbusch & Rockenbach, 2009). Through good leadership the hotel industry has encompassed these principles to become more socially aware of its responsibility to customers and has recently improved it social responsiveness for its actions. Over the past decade there has been a growing awareness of the relevance of social responsibility within the hotel industry, which can create valuable and positive changes in an employee’s mindset and behavior within an organization (Ho, Seoki & Chang, 2010). Although social responsibility depends upon the management policies, core values, long term goals, and the culture within the business, the leadership style and practices in place also have an impact on productivity and performance of staff (Gill, 2008; Gill & Mathur, 2007). With leadership, managers can enhance the employees’ motivation and performance by maintaining a professionally committed and stable work force. Makower (1994) noted that socially responsible businesses are motivated by employee behavior in that well treated employees perform much better in terms of productivity and innovation. Hong Kong has become a leading tourism destination receiving over 29 million visitors in 2009 (UNWTO, 2010) and accordingly, corporate social responsibility CSR has become a major interest in hospitality research. However, there is a lack of scientific contributions that highlight an employees’ socially responsible behavior as interpreted by their leaders and managers. This working paper will investigate influences that leadership from a Hong Kong hotel manager has upon employees’ behavior to act more socially responsible for the company and the community.

REFERENCES


CREATING THE ENVIRONMENTAL POLICY IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

The safeguard of the natural environment is increasingly being delineated in popular and academic debate and constantly recognized as a matter of global responsibility. As a result, the hospitality industry has been frequently highlighted for its controversial role in contributing to negative impacts on the environment and for being highly dependent on natural resources for its existence. Although a wider range of literature has evolved illustrating best practice, a lack of awareness and recognition for adaptation and mitigation still exists, particularly within the hospitality sector. This study examines the effectiveness of existing environmental schemes for hotels in selected Central Eastern European Countries (CEEC). It shall establish whether environmental certification and labelling prompt the implementation of environmental policies within the hotel industry. Interviews are currently being conducted to explore the environmental awareness of hotel managers within CEECs and to investigate the challenges managers face when implementing environmental policies. As a result of this study, it is envisaged that hotels, within the national boundaries of the CEEC, may be encouraged to practice with more environmental awareness by joining environmental certification schemes.
COLLEGE STUDENTS’ WILLINGNESS-TO-PAY FOR GREEN HOTELS: AN APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

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WORKING PAPER ABSTRACT

College students represent a potential customer base with particular needs and wants, as well as attitudes and behaviors. The awareness, attitudes, and behaviors of college students’ towards “green initiatives” need to be measured to understand consumer behavior. The purpose of this study was to investigate if customers are willing to pay more than the standard room rate for a hotel’s green initiatives. Additionally, other objectives included: 1) to measure awareness of green initiatives among college students; 2) to measure awareness of LEED certification whether it affects willingness-to-pay; and 3) to explore differences among college students regarding awareness and willingness-to-pay for green initiatives in hotels based on their different demographic characteristics. Findings indicate a low awareness of green initiatives in hotels; nevertheless willingness-to-pay for them exists. The greatest contribution of this study is that it gives hoteliers information on the college student market as it relates to their environmentally friendly awareness, attitudes, and behaviors. With this information, hotels will be able to serve better this market in the future. This study provides a better understanding of how factors such as awareness, psychological determinants (e.g. social pressures) and demographics can influence college students’ willingness-to-pay for green initiatives in hotels. At the same time, hotels can have an idea of how much they can increase their room rates in order to increase its return on investment on environmentally friendly efforts.
CONSUMER PREFERENCES FOR SUSTAINABILITY IN THE LUXURY HOTEL SECTOR

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

Current concerns with economic and environmental challenges have meant that there is greater demand for ethical luxury consumption. This presentation proposes that historical incompatibilities between the concepts of luxury and sustainability require closer examination, and that the realignment of such terms might present significant opportunities for the luxury hotel sector. A number of contemporary authors, for example Bendall and Kleanthous (2007), have identified the potential for luxury brands to tap consumer concerns with sustainability as added value, and offering an additional competitive platform than just price alone. The aim of this presentation is to identify trends in consumer desires in the luxury hotel industry. This will be achieved through the collation and analysis of guest reviews and ratings of hotels from a British luxury hotel group. A process of qualitative coding was undertaken in order to identify predominant themes and trends within this company. The key findings of this investigation suggest that guests at luxury hotels may not currently place high levels of value on sustainable business practices. However, this should not inhibit hotels from adopting sustainable and ethical approaches to business development. By employing more proactive strategies, luxury hotels would be well placed to lead the way to a new form of consumerism where we value the environments we visit and the people and cultures they belong to. Findings from this study may have replication across the wider luxury hotel sector however a wider study across other hotels would be required to validate this.

REFERENCE

DEVELOPING AN OIL VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT TOOL FOR INDUSTRY

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

Oil is the lifeblood of our economy, and recent growth in tourism has largely been facilitated by the availability of cheap oil. Increasing scarcity of global oil resources and concomitant rising oil prices are likely to impact considerably on tourism, globally and in New Zealand. Higher oil prices will affect New Zealand tourism in three ways: a) macroeconomically, b) destination-related effects, and c) impacts at the individual businesses level. The outputs of research at all three levels (including detailed elasticity analyses by market segment) have been synthesised into a simple online tool that allows a business to assess how vulnerable they are to rising oil prices, depending on their market mix, dependency on energy as an operational input and geographic locations. Merits and shortcomings of such a simplified tool will be discussed critically.
TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF SUSTAINABILITY

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

As we move well into the 21st century, there is an increasing focus on the issue of sustainability by government, industry (including tourism and hospitality) and communities. Universities in Australia have responded with initiatives to embed more sustainability into the higher education curriculum. It is critical that graduates have the ability to make decisions and manage organisational and industry change towards sustainability. As part of the curriculum renewal process it is important that we first take the time to ascertain students existing understanding of and engagement with sustainability. This will facilitate the design and implementation of more integrated and relevant sustainability content. The aim of this research was to find out what tourism and hospitality students already know about sustainability, what they think it is and how they practice its principles. This presentation will communicate the preliminary results of a survey that was designed to measure the perceptions of sustainability amongst students enrolled in an introductory tourism and hospitality unit. The survey was conducted at the beginning of the first class before the students’ were provided with any information about the content of the unit. This research is an important first step in adhering to university policy whilst also meeting the needs of our students and ensuring that we have graduates who are job ready with sufficient knowledge and skills in the area of sustainability to really make a difference to all our futures.
TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING IN A CLIMATE-CONSTRAINED WORLD

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PRESENTATION SUMMARY

Climate change is an increasing concern for the tourism industry worldwide. Tourism contributes directly to the acceleration of global warming and many destinations are now faced with social and economic challenges (AusAID, 2009; Mimura, N., Nurse, L., McLean, R., Agard, J., Briguglio, L., Lefale, P., Payet, R., & Sem, G., 2007; UNWTO-UNEP-WMO, 2008). In particular, small islands states (SIS) are in a dilemma – while local stakeholders are significantly dependent on international tourism for their economic survival, tourists are becoming more aware of their own carbon footprint, especially when travelling to far away destinations. However, there is a dearth of information about the influences of global warming on the destination choice of potential travelers to SIS and, in particular, to destinations in the South Pacific Region. This study examined whether potential visitors perceived the South Pacific to be socially and environmentally vulnerable to climate change and explored the perceptions of risks associated with the region. Data from unstructured interviews and online questionnaires was collected from German residents. The findings illustrate that social factors such as political stability and water and food supplies, and environmental features such as coral reefs and natural flora and fauna are perceived as highly vulnerable to climate change. Respondents were less concerned about risks connected to a potential visit. To contextualize current findings from this study, a number of propositions for prospective studies evolved including the examination of perceptions held by present and post-visitors at a destination and comparing several SIS destinations seemingly impacted by climate change.

Keywords: Climate change, travel decision-making, vulnerability perceptions, risk perceptions

REFERENCES

