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# **THE NEW GOLDEN AGE OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY**

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# Working Papers

# Preserving Culture or Destination Branding?: World Heritage Status for Tana Toraja

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## Abstract

World Heritage (WH) is an area of critical interest within cultural and heritage tourism research. It is mainly studied within the fields of tourism management and marketing, policy and conservation

**Key words:** World Heritage, UNESCO, Community-based Tourism, Heritage Tourism

World Heritage (WH) is an area of critical interest within cultural and heritage tourism research. It is mainly studied within the fields of tourism management and marketing ([Cros, 2008](#); [Landorf, 2009](#); [Shackley, 2006](#)), policy and conservation ([Drost, 1996](#); [Reddy, 2009](#); [Yan & Bramwell, 2008](#)).

Scholarly interest in this area has risen over time because a listing as a WH site is considered as a 'highly appreciated accolade' in the tourism industry and recognised as an important marketing tool by regional and national governments, international and local tourism operators and local residents ([Smith, 2002, p. 137](#)). This is especially so in those regions in underdeveloped countries and regions where there are few sources of income apart from tourism ([van der Aa, 2005](#)).

WH sites are administered by UNESCO. UNESCO states its prime intentions in including sites in its listings as the identification, protection, conservation, presentation and transmission to future generations of cultural and natural heritage. It does not directly link listing to the development of the tourism sector.

For UNESCO, 'heritage' is classified into categories: cultural heritage and natural heritage. Cultural heritage can be defined by tangible items such as archaeological sites, historical buildings and historic urban centres ([e.g., Benhamou, 2003](#)). Intangible heritage is defined by UNESCO as '[...] the practices, representations, expressions, as well as the knowledge and skills, which communities, groups and [...] individuals recognise as part of their cultural heritage' ([UNESCO, 2003](#)).

Heritage therefore 'embodies the community's value of its social, historical or cultural dimensions' ([Thorsby as cited by Benhamou, 2003](#)). In this sense the value of heritage is determined by a society which possesses it, and not by outsiders. The definition of heritage can therefore change over time and space, and depends on the variety of these dimensions (Chastel 1986, cited in [Benhamou, 2003](#); [Schouten, 1995](#)).

Ashworth (2006) argues that the concept of heritage can only be determined by individuals because each person creates his/hers known heritage for his/her own self-identity.

This is important when considering the custodians of heritage, and the burdens as well as the assets that they are expected to maintain. It is also relevant to tourism development, which seeks to identify products that satisfy visitors to a region rather than those a region may want to present to outsiders.

Anthropologists such as Hobsbawm and Ranger (1983) and Keesing (1989), have explained how ideas about 'heritage' and 'tradition' are transformed by the politics of the present. Ashworth and Tunbridge (1999) support this notion, and state that the conceptualisation of the past in historical artefacts, buildings, collective and individual memories is shaped and influenced by current needs, including the individual's identity within social, ethnic and territorial entities. For a given location therefore, local circumstances can have an impact on what is regarded as heritage. In addition, economic needs can lead to the commodification of heritage for the tourism sector without regard for longer-term ramifications.

The discourse around WH to date focuses mainly on commercial tourism outcomes. There are only a limited number of studies on the potential tension between UNESCO's desired outcomes and local community's needs and expectations – including how they view their own culture and how this evolves over time, and in terms of how people make their livelihoods within this special setting. More studies are needed to look at whether UNESCO's definitions and concepts of 'heritage' impact on local communities, and whether this is a barrier to fulfilling local communities' own needs or those of UNESCO.

My paper seeks to explore, compare and contrast the expectations around WH status held by UNESCO, by national, regional and local governments, and local communities, with a particular focus on the tourism sector. It seeks to identify shared expectations, highlight divergences and identify contradicting expectations, and to understand the drivers of these. It focuses on a specific location – Tana Toraja – and the Torajan ethnic group in Sulawesi Island in Indonesia, to demonstrate whether UNESCO shares the same view of WH concepts and desired outcomes as local Indonesian national/provincial governments and local residents.

The first section looks at UNESCO's concept of 'cultural heritage' and 'preservation', and the different ways this is interpreted and given importance by different groups. UNESCO as an international body has defined WH to include elements of 'outstanding universal value' (UNESCO, 1972). Yet, heritage locations are by definitions that are specific to a place and to a group of people. This leads to questions about whose heritage is to be preserved, and for what purpose (Ashworth & van der Aa, 2002). I explore whether this tension between the universal and local creates issues for particular locations and cultures using Tana Toraja as a focus. In addition, whilst UNESCO's mission is to preserve and protect cultural heritage, Adams (2006) argues

that culture is dynamic; this raises questions about the possibility and desirability of intangible heritage being preserved.

The second section analyses the views and expectations of UNESCO, national and provincial governments and locals involved in the tourism sector with regard to achieving WH status. I hypothesize that UNESCO, governments and locals have different expectations and that these different stances emanate from the different expectations of WH as it is defined. To uncover these issues I compare Toraja's nomination submission in 2001 – which focussed on tangible aspects of culture – with a second, tentative listing for nomination in 2006. The latter was the second attempt to grant WH status to Tana Toraja and to date no UNESCO ruling has been handed down. I explore UNESCO, local and national governments expectations around tangible and intangible aspects of culture – such as ethnic identity, traditional religion, and living traditions, and how they are to be preserved. I seek to uncover the local residents' and local government's intentions in relation to tourism development that emerged through the WH nomination process. In doing so, I aim to demonstrate the tensions arising around the ownership of and responsibilities for heritage sites among UNESCO, national and provincial governments, and local residents.

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# Exploring Destination Identity and Destination Image in the New Age of Tourism: a case study of Brand Bali

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## **Abstract**

The growth of Web 2.0 as a platform to share travel information has prompted tourism bodies to pay closer attention to how their destinations are perceived by target markets. Set within the context of the emergence of Web 2.0, a platform designed to enable users to generate and share information on the Internet, this paper evaluates the relationship between destination identity and destination image and adopts the view that a successful destination brand relies on the congruence between destination identity and destination image. The elements of destination identity are composed from the supply side and the elements of destination image are composed from the consumer side. The objective of exploring the alignment between these two perspectives is to propose a model to encourage the alignment of these two perspectives and evaluate the effectiveness of a destination branding strategy.

**Key words:** Destination Identity, Destination Image, Web 2.0

## *Introduction*

Interpersonal influence and word-of-mouth (WOM) are considered to be most influential on consumers' purchase decision-making (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). Today, the transmission of WOM marketing in a tourism context has changed dramatically with the introduction of the Internet, particularly Web 2.0 applications (Wenger, 2008). Web 2.0 is a platform where users and travellers can generate and share their own content on the Internet (Schegg, Liebrich, Scaglione, & Ahmad, 2008). Due to the vast amount of tourism information available on the Internet, the use of Web 2.0 has become an increasingly dominant source of information for travellers when searching for tourism related information and has restructured the way people plan for and consume travel (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010).

In this context, consumers' perceived images of tourist destinations are likely to be highly affected by Web 2.0 content. Visitors' or consumers perceived images of a destination reflect the differences in information processing and interpretation among people, but destination marketers hope that consumers' perceived images of a destination is the actuality of the destination (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000). This implies that in projecting the desired image to the target market, there is a possibility

that the marketing activities are not always effective. Indeed, the disparity between projected and perceived images may impede tourism development of a destination (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988). Ashworth and Goodall (1988) further suggested that this can lead to a gap between visitors' expectations and experiences, which may in turn lead to visitor's dissatisfaction with the destination. As such, it is important to understand the relationship between the projected and perceived images of a destination to reach an effective destination branding strategy.

The projected image of a destination can be analysed by looking at the concept of brand identity. In the context of tourism, destination identity relates to how a destination positions itself and how it wants to be perceived and remembered in the mind of its target markets (Wheeler, Frost, & Weiler, 2011). Consequently, to achieve a destination's marketing objectives, it is essential that target markets perceive the brand in the similar way as destination identifies itself. Perceived destination image has a direct influence on consumers' intentions to visit and recommend the destination to others (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001). Qu, Kim, and Im (2011) suggest that building a strong destination image is vital as it enables destinations to increase repeat visitation, as well as attract new tourists.

Therefore, destination marketers need to have an image formation strategy to maintain, increase, and develop their tourism industry because understanding how consumers' images are formed helps destination marketers to project the appropriate destination images to their target markets (Gartner, 1993). Commonly, target markets that have not visited the destination have limited knowledge regarding the place, quite often this limited knowledge is obtained from the information provided by the media or their social groups (Um & Crompton, 1999). This information influences tourists' image of alternative destinations. Thus, image formation is a vital component in the destination selection process of potential tourists (Gartner, 1993).

### ***A Model of Destination Branding in a Web 2.0 World***

Figure 1 presents a model of destination branding that incorporates the supplier and consumers side perspective of destination branding through destination identity and destination image where Web 2.0 is included as an influencing agent of image formation. The construct on the consumers' side is used to evaluate destination image and includes components that influence destination image formation, these being cognitive image, affective image, overall perceived image, and conative image. The cognitive element refers to the evaluation of a destination based on the belief and knowledge of that destination, while the affective elements refers to the feelings about a destination, and conative image is the intent or action component as it is similar to behaviour (Gartner, 1993). These components, excluding conative image, are translated into the supply side that forms part of the self-analysis to evaluate destination identity. This research will explore Web 2.0 exchanges and not traditional one-way exchanges.

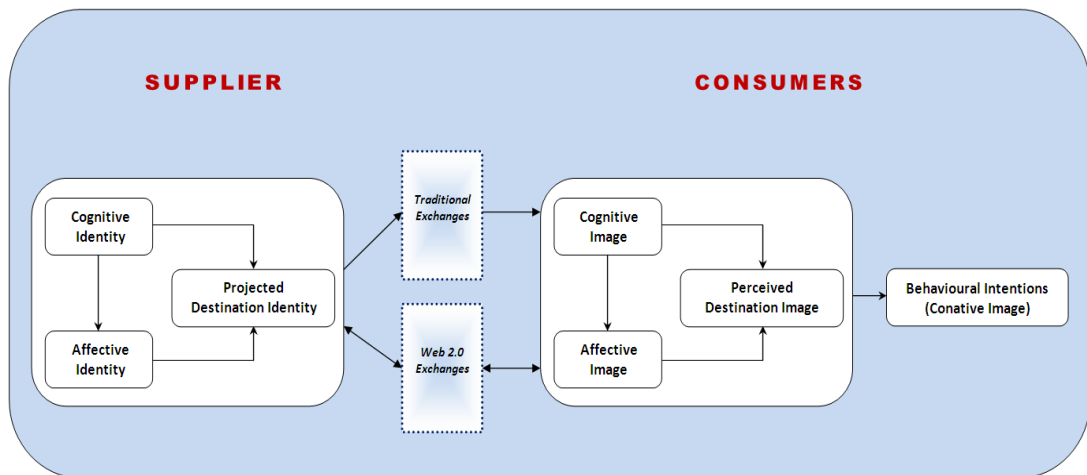


Figure 1: A Model of Destination Branding in a Web 2.0 World

### *Proposed Study*

A study will be conducted to test the framework represented in Figure 1. The study will examine the efficacy of Brand Bali, which was launched in 2007. It will explore whether Brand Bali resonates with target markets and impacts their attitudes and behaviours in relation to visiting Bali. To obtain information on the projected destination identity of Bali, relevant stakeholders involved in the development of the tourism industry of Bali and the introduction of Brand Bali will be selected as the research sample. These will include personnel from the Indonesian Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Bali Government Tourism Office, and Bali Tourism Board. Consumers' perceptions on the perceived image of Bali will be obtained from a sample of Australian residents because Australia is the largest market for tourism in Bali (Bali, 2011). As travel blogs operate as an informational function prior to purchase decisions (Huang, Chou, & Lin, 2010), online interviews will be undertaken with respondents who are using travel blogs as a means of gathering information about Bali, to provide insights into how they perceive Bali as a tourism destination and how their image of Bali as a tourist destination influences their behavioural intentions with regard to visiting Bali.

### *Conclusions and Implications*

The growth of Web 2.0 as a platform to share travel information is phenomenal and accelerated, and it appears to be a marketing communications tool that will continue to evolve. With the intense competition between destinations, understanding the relationship between destination identity and destination image with Web 2.0 as an influencing factor of destination image helps improve the competitiveness of a destination. This paper proposed a model that links destination identity and destination image. It is intended that the model will be tested with a study that will specifically add to the knowledge of branding theory in the 21<sup>st</sup> millennium. Further research on destination branding strategy will benefit tourist destination bodies in maintaining and increasing their destination competitiveness.

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# Service blueprinting as a tool in visitor management assessment and planning

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## **Abstract**

Service blueprinting is a management tool that can help improving and managing service delivery systems by identifying and mapping processes. This paper proposes its use to map aspects of characteristic visitor experiences in order to assess and improve visitor management interventions. Service blueprinting is applied to ZEALANDIA – The Karori Sanctuary Experience, a nature-based conservation attraction in Wellington, New Zealand. The delivery of visitor experiences at ZEALANDIA is mapped with a view of identifying strengths as well as potential ‘fail points’ in service delivery and visitor management. Further, the value of service blueprinting in assessing visitor management interventions is considered.

**Key words:** Service Blueprinting, Visitor Management, Planning, Service Delivery

## ***Extended abstract***

A recent review of the literature on visitor attraction management (Leask, 2010) has confirmed the lack of research on both visitor management and service delivery. Both topic areas have vital implications for managing the visitor experience and, as such, must be considered key challenges in visitor attraction management and deserving of increased consideration in research. Service blueprinting has been proposed by Laws (1998) as a tool to map processes with the aim of managing service delivery systems. While Laws uses service blueprinting to conceptualise visitor satisfaction, this paper proposes its use to map aspects of characteristic visitor experiences in order to assess and improve visitor management interventions. Service blueprinting is applied to ZEALANDIA – The Karori Sanctuary Experience (from now on: ZEALANDIA), a nature-based conservation attraction in Wellington, New Zealand, that is frequented by recreationists as well as tourists. The service blueprinting process is explained, applied and its usefulness for identifying visitor management challenges and needs highlighted. The contributions of this paper are both conceptual and practical. The combination of visitor and management perspectives in the service blueprinting approach forms the conceptual contribution. The identification of possible ‘fail points’ in the service delivery process and, by implication, the visitor experience, as a basis for visitor management interventions is the practical contribution.

The effective management of any visitor attraction is dependent on a number of factors, including attraction type and nature of the resource (Boyd, 2000; Benckendorff & Pearce, 2003). Increasing visitor expectations of service, decreasing (public) funds, limited staff skills and likely conflicts in balancing conservation values and access for visitors have been identified as challenges in visitor management, among others (Leask, 2010). The aforementioned issues hold true for ZEALANDIA, the case study investigated in this paper. ZEALANDIA is managed by the Karori Sanctuary Trust; a large number of volunteers perform roles and tasks in management, conservation, hosting and guiding. Limited public funding is still available but the attraction is expected to be self-sustaining from 2012 onwards. In combination with recent changes in branding and increased international marketing, the provision of high-quality visitor experiences becomes even more crucial. ZEALANDIA has won much public acclaim and recognition but two challenges remain: Firstly, the strong involvement of volunteers means that professional standards of hosting and guiding can differ strongly between visits; secondly, conservation and visitation are often seen (and managed) as conflicting responsibilities which complicates the tasks of both trained and untrained personnel. The implications of these challenges are likely to increase as ZEALANDIA's offerings have recently been extended by an indoors exhibition, a café, a shop and conference facilities which increased visitor management requirements. The service blueprinting process used in this paper takes account of these additional facilities and assesses and maps their use by individual visitors.

Service blueprinting is used to identify and map processes with the aim of understanding and managing service delivery systems. Shostack (1984) emphasises the importance of identifying processes of service delivery with a special need to isolate potential fail points. The preparation of a service blueprint consists of three stages. First, the progression of service consumption is mapped from the user (in this case, visitor) perspective using a time dimension. Second, the main management functions and tasks associated with the management of the service/ experience are mapped. A third step brings together these two perspectives with the aim of creating a visual map of the service process and related management interventions. On this basis, decisions with regard to possible modifications of the process that takes into account the elimination or moderation of potential fail points. Service blueprinting has been chosen for this paper as service mapping as a technique would have required determining performance standards and measures which was neither feasible nor appropriate in the context of this project.

This paper applies the above process to the visitor experience of individual visitors at ZEALANDIA. The first step, the mapping of the progression of service consumption from the, in this case, visitor perspective is based on the experiences of individual visitors (as opposed to visitors as part of a package tour, cruise ship package tour or school groups).

414 individual visitors were surveyed on site in December 2010 and January 2011. Most individual visitors were local recreationists (>45%) and international visitors (>41%). Their lengths of stay in various parts of the attraction (including facilities such as the café etc) are used to map two characteristic visitor experiences and service

experiences at ZEALANDIA. The second perspective, main management functions and associated tasks, are based on the author's perspective. The author has closely followed visitor management at ZEALANDIA during both before and after the re-branding process. Visits with student groups as part of a second-year course in Visitor Management have further enhanced familiarity with the attraction. The third step, bringing together the two aforementioned perspectives is the conceptual contribution of this paper. The result is the visualisation of the service blueprint that combines the visitor experience and management perspectives. Significantly, the sequences of characteristic visits by individual visitors can be related to the relevant management tasks and challenges which allows for both an identification of visitor management challenges through examining potential 'fail points' as well as for an exploration of possible solutions for specific challenges rather than the ubiquitous "improving the visitor experience" objective present in so many visitor management strategy documents.

It is suggested that service blueprinting can serve as one possible means of addressing current issues in service delivery and visitor management at visitor attractions. The service blueprinting approach is found useful for the examination and understanding of the service delivery process in a visitor attraction. Limitations resulting from separate perspectives of visitors and managers can, to a degree, be avoided. To employ a more forward looking perspective, a service blueprint allows for a hypothetical testing of visitor management assumptions before spending resources on implementation. Random service development, common in the tourism and hospitality industries for a number of reasons including lack of professionalism, an untrained, often seasonal, workforce, and the perception that formal training is unnecessary in tourism and hospitality, can be controlled. Further, the process is comparatively simple for tourism managers to apply to different attractions; it can be conducted separately for different visitor groups and updated regularly as visitor management requirements evolve.

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# Tourism Field Studies: Experiencing the Carnival of Venice

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## Abstract

While there are many studies in a diversity of disciplines that document examples of experiential education, there is a current need to report studies that demonstrate such approaches within tourism, hospitality and event management education. Many educators have found experiential methods to be useful in supplementing theory with contextualized application; nevertheless, it is important to explore experiential approaches and offer considered examples of experiential education examples. These documented cases can contribute to the development of a stronger theoretical foundation upon which to base future examples of experiential learning within tourism, hospitality and event management contexts. Well designed experiential education programs have the potential to surmount some of the limitations of traditional approaches to instruction.

This paper offers an analysis of an experiential education program: a study tour that focused on the *Carnival of Venice*. Students with an interest in event, tourism and/or hospitality management were invited to learn about this renowned event by participating in a variety of experiential activities. The study tour to Venice was supplemented by short visits to towns such as Verona, Florence and Rome. An analysis of participant experiences demonstrates a very high level of interest in this example of experiential education and demonstrates how such experiences ensure participant commitment and enhance deep learning while providing a platform for creativity in educational programming and assessment.

**Key words:** Experiential Education, Educational Tour, Carnival of Venice

## INTRODUCTION

Balancing theory and practice in tourism education is the source of consistent debate in a number of different disciplines. University programs have traditionally produced graduates with good quantitative and technical abilities but with little experience in practising interpersonal and communication skills as they pay, as Lamb, Shipp & Moncrief (1995, p.10) suggest "too much attention on theories and concepts and not enough attention on communication, decision-making, and other skills that are at least as important to career success as content knowledge".

Various other strategies have been employed in higher education in order to strike the elusive balance between theory and practice, and recent publications on the benefits of integrating experiential education programs, activities and techniques have added substantial evidence to the debates about the purpose and advantages of this approach. Experiential education is defined by Kolb (1984, p.41) as '...the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience'. Kolb's (1984) learning theory suggests four distinct learning styles based on a four-stage learning cycle, offering both an understanding of individual learning styles and an explanation of a cycle of experiential learning that applies to all. Kolb (1984) indicates that the crucial first step in experiential learning is to provide relevant experience from which, after a period of reflection, the learning eventuates

The aim of this paper is to offer an analysis of an experiential education program which was provided by a study tour to the *Carnival of Venice*. The paper analyses the student experience in terms of motivations to attend, the educational program and assessment responses, and demonstrates that the experience enhanced learning, encouraged peer facilitation, increased awareness of participant behaviour and ensured participant commitment. Moreover, the paper offers a number of key learnings which may be considered useful when developing experiential learning programs.

## **PREVIOUS STUDIES ON EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING**

Literature on experiential education is found in a variety of different disciplines. One often begins with the work of Kolb and Kolb's (2000) bibliography of research on experiential education found 1004 studies conducted in management (207), education (430), computer sciences (104), psychology (101), medicine (72), as well as nursing, accounting and law. There have been also a number of different reports written within the context of tourism, (Schlager, Lengfelder & Groves, 1999; Barron & Arcodia, 2002; Xie, 2004), hospitality (McMahon & Quinn, 1995; Fallon & Daruwalla, 2004); events (McDonald & McDonald, 2000; Digance, Davidson & Gleeson, 2001; Lawrence & McCabe, 2001; Arcodia & Barker, 2002; Moscardo & Norris, 2004) and sport (Hovelynck, 2001).

Wingfield and Black (2005, p.121) suggest that "the main emphasis of an experiential design is to provide students with practical knowledge, activities, assignments and experience they can apply to their futures". Their research into active versus passive designs in business courses found that students perceived active course designs to be more useful to their future than passive designs. The authors also found no impact on student grades, satisfaction or more positive perceptions of the course (Wingfield & Black, 2005).

Mainemelis, Boyatzis and Kolb (2002) demonstrate that using only experiential education showed higher levels of skill development in interpersonal skills and lower levels of analytical skill development. The authors found the ideal learning style was one which balanced experience with conceptualisation. More recently, a study conducted by Jiusto and DiBiasio (2006) investigated the relationship between experiential

education and life long learning in engineering students and found that students who participated in an off-campus experience felt that they had significantly progressed their writing, critical thinking and research skills. Tangible evidence in support of these findings was found in the final report submitted by participants.

There are a number of well-established processes in experiential learning. Key amongst these are work experience (McMahon & Quinn, 1995), field trips (Xie, 2004; Hirsch & Lloyd, 2005), simulation gaming (Arcodia, 2002), role plays (Ruhanen, 2005) case studies (Galluci, 2006; McCarthy & McCarthy, 2006) and service learning (Mumford & Kane, 2006; Klink & Athaide, 2004). Field work is defined by Lonergan and Andresson (1988, p. 64) as "...any arena or zone within a subject where, outside the constraints of the four walls classroom setting, supervised learning can take place via firsthand experience". As such, field work may incorporate field teaching, field trips, field research or field camps (Dando & Wiedel, 1971; Fuller, 2006). The field trip, or what may be described as an extension of the field trip, the study tour, is a popular method of practical education. Much has been written about the field trip as a model of experiential education. Usually included as a supplement to the traditional teaching configuration of lectures and tutorials, field trips are able to provide different insights and learning experiences from those provided by lectures and tutorials (Hirsch & Lloyd, 2005) as well as unique social experiences including building social networks (Jakubowski, 2003; Fallon & Darruwalla, 2004, Fuller, 2006), team spirit (Hirsch & Lloyd, 2005; Xie, 2004) and personal growth and self awareness (Jiusto & DiBiasio, 2006). According to Fuller et., al (2003) and Fuller (2006), students perceive fieldwork to be beneficial to their learning because they experience realities of their field, acquire deeper knowledge about course concepts, develop technical skills and interact with lecturers and peers.

Little has been written on the impact of tourism field trips on students (Xie, 2004), and there is little data available on experiential education as an effective methodology in learning about tourism at university level (Schlager et.al., 1999). Robson (2002) suggests this could be because tourism field trips involve visiting tourism destinations and there may be a perception that field trips are perceived as quasi holidays without meaningful educational value. Furthermore, Scarce (1997) regards field trips as 'short-term experiential learning' which refers to assignments that ask students to integrate course materials with a brief excursion to observe or participate in a related social phenomenon (Xie, 2004).

In addition to the challenges of how to provide students with the appropriate skills to be industry ready, there is increasing pressure on tertiary institutions to provide programs of study that prepare students for work in the international arena and exactly how to internationalise curriculum has been discussed well in the literature. The study tour to international destinations is one way in which this can be achieved.

Arcodia and Dickson (2009) evaluated the program named the International Tourism and Hospitality Academy at sea (ITHAS) which was a ten-day experiential education program run by a partnership of universities from Europe. The underlying idea of the program was to enhance methods of teaching and learning by allowing students to

participate in a theoretical and practical education in an international and multicultural environment by blending the theory and practice. The study concluded that it was a learning experience that allowed students to make clearer and stronger connections between theory and practice almost immediately. Further, students also felt that their learning was enhanced by the international setting and the communal learning environment.

According to Porth (1997), the study tour is essentially an academic course which includes both a traditional classroom-based lecture series with experiential learning opportunities in an international setting. The author also notes that some American business schools offer the study tour as a stand-alone course or as an inclusion to a regular course and that academic credit may or may not be awarded. Porth (1997) proposes a three-phase model for designing and teaching a study tour course: pre departure, on tour and post-return. Phase one focuses on the planning considerations and pre-departure lecture sessions that provide the theoretical grounding for the experience. Phase two is the part of the program conducted overseas which balances formal learning opportunities and unstructured time for participants to immerse themselves in the encounter more deeply. Phase three is the review and reflection stage that helps make the connections between theory and practical application through reflecting on participant experiences from phases one and two.

While the learning and experience outcomes for the study tour are similar to the ones outlined above, Loveland, Abraham & Bunn (1987) note some additional value is to be gained from international study tours as they can provide both educational value and cultural enrichment by incorporating visits, for example, to companies and government organisations with a traditional lecture program. Johnson & Mader (1992) note that these programs are costly to develop, operate and to be a participant. The authors further identified a series of benefits of the international study tour, including the benefits of small group experience (including working in small groups), exposure to different and a deeper engagement with the host culture and enhanced knowledge retention due to the unique experience.

The literature demonstrates that experiential education programs result in an increased ability to apply theoretical underpinnings to practical situations (Brown & Murti 2003; Wingfield & Black, 2005) as information received in the classroom setting is reinforced through practical experience. This experience can be either through observation and reflection (e.g. case studies, role-plays) or through active participation (e.g. work placements, field trips, and educational tours). As the majority of the literature emerges from disciplines other than tourism and hospitality management, more research needs to be conducted within these contexts in order to ascertain the true value of experiential education approaches to university education. From the literature explored above, a series of gaps emerge. Firstly, it is clear that insufficient attention has been given to the role of experiential learning in the context of tourism, leisure, hospitality and event education. While the reasons for this may be many and varied, it is significant as tertiary educators internationally strive to find innovative ways to engage students in meaningful learning experiences. Secondly, of the literature that does exist, to date little attention has been paid to establishing the motivators for students to participate in experiences

of this nature and of the role the educational program plays in this. These are important to establish again from the perspective of innovative classroom experiences and to ensure that the programs that exist are providing a useful balance of theoretical underpinnings reflection and skills development.

## THE VENETIAN CONTEXT

Over 20 million people visit the city of Venice each year (*Regione del Venezia*, 2009) so consequently it is one of the most visited cities in the world. Venice has many drawcards, each of which in isolation render the city distinctive and idiosyncratic, but city marketers enjoy an array of superb possibilities that promote tourism. Some of these advantages include a most distinctive traffic system, the canals; internationally renowned festivals such as the *Carnival of Venice* and the Venice Film Festival; an iconic mode of transport such as the gondola; characteristic buildings steeped in family and political history; and the added bonus of being part of Italy, a culture that has been embraced by the world, and as a national destination, visited by many. The *Carnival of Venice* served as the focal point for the study tour. The Carnival is one of the most recognisable and distinctive festivals in the world. It has a long history since most sources date it from the 15<sup>th</sup> century but after an interruption which lasted approximately 118 years it was re-introduced in 1979. The Carnival celebrates the 'mask' which served as a equalising device between the classes of Renaissance Europe and beyond, and currently provides the city of Venice with an extraordinary attraction in its otherwise low season (February) when it is generally rather cold, has few tourists and is prone to flooding.

Venice also enjoys recognition by the UNESCO World Heritage Program which has recognised the distinctiveness of Venice. The program documents significant sites of 'outstanding [cultural](#) or [natural](#) importance to the common heritage of [humanity](#)' (UNESCO, 2010). World Heritage sites need to fulfil only one of ten criteria established by UNESCO to be considered (Table 1). The city of Venice fulfils six such criteria and is consequently a most excellent site for an extended experiential learning exercise which focuses on event, tourism and hospitality management.

**Table 1: UNSECO selection criteria for World Heritage Listed Sites**

i.	to represent a masterpiece of human creative genius;
ii.	to exhibit an important interchange of human values, over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town-planning or landscape design;
iii.	to bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a cultural tradition or to a civilization which is living or which has disappeared;
iv.	to be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history;

v.	to be an outstanding example of a traditional human settlement, land-use, or sea-use which is representative of a culture (or cultures), or human interaction with the environment especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change;
vi.	to be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance. (The Committee considers that this criterion should preferably be used in conjunction with other criteria);
vii.	to contain superlative natural phenomena or areas of exceptional natural beauty and aesthetic importance;
viii.	to be outstanding examples representing major stages of earth's history, including the record of life, significant on-going geological processes in the development of landforms, or significant geomorphic or physiographic features;
ix.	to be outstanding examples representing significant on-going ecological and biological processes in the evolution and development of terrestrial, fresh water, coastal and marine ecosystems and communities of plants and animals;
x.	to contain the most important and significant natural habitats for in-situ conservation of biological diversity, including those containing threatened species of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation.

## PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The aim of the experiential program was to provide students with the prospect of learning in context about some significant issues in event, tourism and hospitality management. It offered the opportunity to put into practice some of the theoretical concepts learned in coursework in order to build knowledge and skills which would progress their understanding. The main objectives of the field study were to understand the emerging significance of special events for the international community; to identify and evaluate issues and processes in the organisation of international festivals and to demonstrate their understanding of the interrelationship between the event management industry, tourism and hospitality.

As shown in Table 1, the program was divided into three phases. Phase One consisted of a series of pre-departure lectures and seminars during the university summer session. It also included a series of "getting to know you" dinners as the participating group did not generally know each other. A positive group dynamic was imperative to the success of this program. Phase Two consisted of the field experiences in Italy.

Venice, Verona, Florence & Rome were the destinations selected for inclusion in the program with the majority of experiences designed for Venice. The extensive program included a variety of learning activities such as: lectures and guest speakers, site visits and field research, workshops (mask decorating and wine tasting), day trips to nearby cities and islands, overnight stays in Florence and Rome and some optional activities.

The final phase of the program, Phase Three, centred on debrief and final assessment. This phase included the final assessment submission and a follow up social evening. The field study was supported by two theoretical underpinnings: *authenticity* and *environmental sustainability*. The theme of authenticity was based on theories developed by authors such as Richards (2007) who considered the views of various stakeholders of a traditional event in Spain and concluded that residents had a practical perspective of authenticity, focussing on the history and cultural significance of the event whereas visitors were more focussed on the actual event. The theme of sustainability emphasised the triple bottom line approach to sustainability considering the work of authors such as Hede (2008) and Getz (2009). To link theory and practice in the best possible way, student met experts from local tourism, event and hospitality enterprises and had the opportunity to discuss with them contemporary and destination-specific tourism problems.

## **METHOD**

A paper-based survey was developed to assess the student experience of the field trip. The questionnaire consisted of twenty-one questions that were both closed and open-ended. The questions were arranged in three main areas: demographics, satisfaction with the experience and the experiential education experience following a previous study conducted by Arcodia and Dickson (2009). Appropriate questions were gleaned from previous studies and developed from a consideration of key issues in the literature. The responses to the closed questions were framed by a five point Likert scale where 1 represented 'very poor' and 5 represented 'excellent'. The purpose of the study was explained to participants during the orientation session on the first night of the program. This was to develop interest in the documentation of the experience and to encourage participants to reflect on their daily experiences. An invitation to be involved was extended to all participants and the questionnaire was distributed during dinner on the final night of the program.

## **FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

The questionnaire produced a number of interesting results which have been summarised, categorised and analysed in the following paragraphs.

### **Demographics**

The field trip was open to students across the university at undergraduate level. There were a total of 23 participants in the inaugural program, 22 female and 1 male. The majority of participants were 19 years of age (34.8%), were Australian citizens (78.3%) and had travelled overseas before (91.3%).

### Motivations, satisfaction and interaction

Participants were asked to provide the main reason they attended the program. While each comment was individual, the general consensus seemed to be a motivation to travel/experience Italy and Italian culture. A full summary of the comments are included in Table 2. Other notable motivations included the fact they could gain credit towards their program of study and to experience 'new' things.

**Table 2: Motivation to attend the study tour**

Respondent	Comment
1	Unique
2	To gain some experience in tourism to help my degree and to travel to a new country
3	Carnival of Venice, art, could gain credit for arts, something different
4	I've always wanted to go to Italy
5	The experience of different cultures, Italian culture and the carnival of Venice and the opportunity to travel with Australian students
6	For the 'work' experience and to experience Italy
7	Experience something new
8	To travel to Italy
9	For a different style of learning experience
10	To experience travelling to Italy and seeing the carnival
11	The experience it offered – it was new and different way to complete a uni course
12	Opportunity to travel. Looks good on the resume
13	To gain insight into tourism in Italy and attend the carnival
14	I've never been to Europe before and was such a great opportunity to experience tourism and event related activities
15	Because I wanted to travel to Italy with a pre-arranged tour group
16	Because of the destination, specifically, I have always wanted to come and because it counts as a major elective towards my bachelor
17	Visiting Venice for the first time so I was very interested. Also to get credit towards my major



18	To have the opportunity to travel to places not previously visited within the safety of the group
19	Good experience and hadn't done anything like it before
20	Opportunity to visit Europe and the Venice carnival
21	To experience Europe and the Venice carnival
22	Interest in travel and events and for the experience
23	To go to Ill Ballo del Doge

While experiential learning may be of particular intrinsic interest to participants, especially when compared to traditional modes of learning, a salient point to note here is that the destination itself plays a significant role in the successful development of an experiential learning exercise. Participants respond best when the intrinsic interest in a field study is coupled with a destination which appears to also provide great interest. These sentiments are similar to those found by Arcodia and Dickson (2009) where European students on a study tour in Croatia reported that the destination was one of the most appealing elements of the experience, with some indicating that they were stimulated not only by the educational aspects of the trip but by the experience of travelling in a new international destination.

### **The educational program**

The program consisted of a variety of activities which were developed to provide breadth and depth experiences. A number of questions were asked in order to evaluate the strength and success of the study tour academic program. When asked to rate the pre-departure lecture series, the majority of participants (82.6%) felt that they were 'good', 8.7% felt they were 'excellent' and 4.3% respectively felt that the pre-departure lectures were 'poor' or were 'unsure'. Pre-departure lectures were an important part of the program because they served two important purposes. The first was that they provided theoretical and contextual perspectives for participants to consider. The second was that they provided participants with opportunities to meet each other so that initial interpersonal barriers were lowered before the experience began.

The program consisted of a series of activities designed to give participants insight into the event, hospitality and tourism industries. Participants were asked to identify the three experiences which they enjoyed the most from the program. The most popular activity was the mask workshop (26.6%) followed by the site visits to hotels (21%). The day trip to Verona and the wine tasting in Florence were the next most popular activities (14% respectively). A full summary of the responses can be found in Table 3. These results do not demonstrate a particular pattern but that participants enjoyed a variety of organised experiences. Groups with different characteristics may well appreciate different activities to those mentioned. For example, a group of participants which

included more males might well have chosen different experiences as their most preferred.

**Table 3: Summary of most popular activities**

	Frequency	Percent
Mask workshop	19	26.6
Site visits to hotels	12	21.0
Day trip to Verona	10	14.0
Wine tasting in Florence	10	14.0
Rome activities	6	8.4
'Getting to know you' dinners	3	4.2
Authentic group dinner	3	4.2
Florence activities in general	3	4.2
Florence activities in general	3	4.2
Group dinners in general	2	2.8
Murano and Burano tour	1	1.4
Accommodation in Venice	1	1.4
Total	69	100

### **Assessment**

All coursework needs to be assessed in appropriate ways so that participants receive feedback on their learning and accrediting authorities can make a judgement in terms of credit gained towards a qualification. The philosophy underpinning the assessment items in this program was that the assessment had to reflect appropriate levels of critical thinking for a course offered at university level but also be able to provide students with assessment items which fitted well with the experiential nature of the program and the context of the where the learning was taking place. The study tour provided students with three assessment opportunities. Firstly, an oral presentation which identified and analysed distinctive features of Venice and its carnival. Secondly, a

literature review of articles in the popular media to investigate how the *Carnival of Venice* is conceptualised and documented. Thirdly, the preparation of a Visual Learning Diary which was a summary and analysis of participants' responses. Participants were asked to create a sequence of digital visual images, with appropriate extended introduction, captions and extended conclusion, which encapsulated the essence of the carnival and its city, and to identify and explain potential issues reflecting the themes that underpinned the study tour.

Students were asked to rate the usefulness of the three assessment items in relation to their individual learning objectives. The responses to these were positive and similar. With respect to the oral presentation item 60.9% indicated that this item was 'useful', 30.4% indicated it was 'very useful' and 8.7% were 'unsure' if the presentations were of use. A summary of responses can be found in Table 4.

**Table 4: Usefulness of oral presentation**

	Frequency	Percent
Useful	14	60.9
Very useful	7	30.4
Unsure	2	8.7
Total	23	100.0

For each assessment item, participants were also asked to provide details as to what aspects of each task they found useful. For the oral presentations, nearly all respondents seemed to value the background information on Italian culture and history that the presentations provided. A further sample of comments is found below:

'Helped us know what to expect'

'Diverse areas covered gave a good overview of the trip and its destinations'

'The authenticity of the culture/items (e.g. Murano glass, masks, food etc.)'

'I found the architecture, gondola and church presentations most useful as the presenter of the site visits did speak about the information that was mentioned in class'

The second piece of assessment was a literature review of representations in the popular media of the Carnival of Venice. The purpose of a literature review is generally to establish a theoretical framework, analyse current debates, define key terms and identify areas which need further analysis. Literature reviews are often conducted only of scholarly work but in this case, there is a paucity of academic literature on the Carnival and the task was not to establish a theoretical framework but to understand

how the Carnival is perceived by the lay person.. As summarised in Table 5, the majority of respondents suggested that it was 'very useful' (39.1%) or 'useful' (30.4%). 26.1% were 'unsure' and 4.3% felt it was 'very unuseful'.

**Table 5: Usefulness of literature review**

	Frequency	Percent
Very useful	9	39.1
Useful	7	30.4
Unsure	6	26.1
Very unuseful	1	4.3
Total	23	100.0

Many of the comments provided by participants acknowledged that the task helped them to further understand Italian culture and in particular, the Carnival and provided them with more of an idea of what to expect. A further selection of comments is included below:

'Seeing different perspectives of the carnival – not just a tourist perspective'

'To clarify the perceptions in popular media; assess quality of information from magazines to blogs'

'It gave me a deeper understanding of the Carnival'

'I found it gave me an insight into opinions and views of other people on the destinations and Carnival'

'It allowed us to focus on an area of interest and expand our knowledge'

The final assessment was the *Visual Learning Diary*. Much of higher education has relied on traditional forms of written assessment because of the value placed on written communication. The traditional notion of 'text' however is well contested as it is used more widely with forms of communication now including oral, film, video and a variety of "still visuals". There is a strong argument that students need to develop multiple illiteracies, with the written word representing a valid, but only one form of communication. This field study explored possibilities of introducing visual components into teaching and assessment strategies by piloting and evaluating specific visual processes. The city of Venice, particularly at carnival is a very visual experience so a

visual form of assessment was deemed to be very appropriate. The majority of respondents (47.8%) reported that it was 'very useful'. 30.4% felt it was 'useful' and 17.4% were 'unsure'. Table 6 shows the summary of responses to this question.

**Table 6: Usefulness of visual learning diary**

	Frequency	Percent
Unuseful	1	4.3
Unsure	4	17.4
Useful	7	30.4
Very useful	11	47.8
Total	23	100.0

In terms of what aspects of this task were of use to participants most participants noted that it helped them to reflect on their experiences. A summary of qualitative responses is below:

'Helped reflect on the trip'

'Forced me to look beyond what a tourist may see and analyse our surroundings more'

'Helped to document/recognise important factors of the Carnival'

'It provided focus to our wonderings'

'Very practical way to organise learned material'

'Draws your attention to problems you may not have realised otherwise'

These outcomes support those of Schlager et. al. (1999) and Arcodia a& Dickson (2009) who reported similar comments received from students participating in a field-trip based experiential education exercise.

## **CONCLUSION**

The key proposition in this paper was that well designed experiential education programs have the potential to surmount some of the limitations of traditional approaches to instruction. While many disciplines document examples of experiential education, there is a paucity of literature which analyses such approaches within event tourism and hospitality management education.

This paper offers an analysis of a study tour that focused on the *Carnival of Venice*. The program consisted of three key periods which included pre-departure, in-field and post-departure phases. The results of this study clearly demonstrate the value of experiential

learning and in this instance, the value of an international study tour experience. Further, the paper highlights the general value of experiential education and demonstrates how such experiences enhance deep learning while providing the opportunity for creative learning experiences and assessment.

A limitation to this study was that the questionnaire was administered directly at the end of the Carnival of Venice experience which could impact on the data. Firstly, the 'experiential euphoria' may have influenced responses providing a strongly positive view of the experience and secondly there was not a sufficient length of time for participants to reflect on their experiences and make an assessment of the applicability of the knowledge and skills which had been acquired by participating in the study tour. A follow up survey would be beneficial to gauge the longer term effects of their experience.

The data analysed from *Carnival of Venice* field study suggests however, that the exercise provided event, tourism and hospitality management students with firsthand insight into the tourism industry in one of the world's premier destinations at a time when one of the world's most recognisable festivals was taking place. The results of this study support the clear advantages of experiential learning and sustain the need for further research in this area. Experiential learning exercises offer the potential to experiment with creative teaching, learning and assessment techniques. Further research is required to explore some of these strategies and techniques further.

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# Muslim Women tourist behaviour: The Spiritual Gaze

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## Abstract

Tourism is a process that includes a combination of phenomena; it has social, cultural, economic and anthropological elements. 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 behaviour. 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.

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a process that includes a combination of phenomena; it has social, cultural, economic and anthropological elements. 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'. 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* and 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?"

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?

### *Research Approach*

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) points 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 behavior 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.

## DISCUSSIONS AND FINDINGS

This research identified Muslim women's *tourist gaze* in Setiu by looking and assessing the data from difference perspectives. The first phase of this analysis research revisited the demographics of the tourists, illustrating their travel behaviours and demands. The process to improve the standard of living and economy led to a new lifestyle of travel and leisure as an integral part of their way of life. The findings of the present study also provided some evidence to confirm that although religion and culture are not a primary motivation for visiting Setiu and tourists appear to hold long-established perceptions of Setiu as a coastal destination, experiences of the Setiu coastal area are an important medium for appreciating and understanding Muslim culture. Accordingly, most of the women tourists were motivated by opportunities for sightseeing, relaxing and the beautiful scenery. The empirical results of this study provide tenable evidence that motivations, expectations, perceptions and satisfaction simultaneously generated more precise destination behavior. The tourists' motivation to visit this destination could be divided into three themes. All these themes showed that tourists pursue three different travel motivations, there were six expectations and perceptions, and women tourists had four types of experiences. In short, the first theme consisted of motivations that are associated with the origin and women tourists' backgrounds. The second theme included expectations and perceptions, regarding site being a cultural and natural destination, including non-accidental tourists becoming involved in an emotional experience which related to the motivation to know the destination better. The third theme is based on self-perception related to self-experience, fulfillment and spiritual reflection, where differ from person to person in terms of *gaze* and experience.

Interestingly, leisure and travel were perceived by Muslim women as something that reflected their own religious faith. This is largely due to Islam's rules and principles by which Malaysians live, creating a balance between lifestyle and serving God. As such, there is an increasing notion that experiences of Setiu's coastal area are consumed out of desire for a 'romanticized' version of destination however it may constitute immersion with the essentials aspects of beauty, calm and tranquility. The connection to such an idea runs deeper than initially thought. The behavior of tourists in Setiu initially can be considered as a form of *romanticism* which allowed the sea and coastline to be viewed in an aesthetic way (Inglis, 2000), and tourists appreciate the magnificent scenery (Urry, 2002). A significant component of a Malay woman's gaze is thus what has been termed *the spiritual gaze*, which is very different from Western notions about nature and pristine environment. These Muslim women's gazes however are totally different from the *reverential gaze* as suggested by Urry (2002: 150). The gaze "used to describe how Muslims spiritually consume the sacred site such as Taj Mahal where Muslim visitors stop to scan and to concentrate their attention upon the mosque, the tombs and the Quran script" (Edensor, 1998, cited in Urry, 2002: 150). The Muslim women's *spiritual*

*gaze* refers echoes Urry's (2002) contention that there will always be other senses where the *gaze* varies from place to place. Travel for recreation purposes by Westerners is indeed 'away' as well as for the Muslims but it also reflects reconnecting with the world's creator, in the Muslim perspective. For Muslims, travelling is about re-anchoring their beliefs through appreciation of the creation of the creator. In other words the Muslim lens is very different from *the tourist gaze*. While understanding divinity's creation is an integral part of the Muslims' *gaze*, what was also intriguing was how Muslim women learn to understand themselves.

## CONCLUSION

*It can be concluded* that reviews of different *tourist gazes* often wrap up with cautious and indeterminate remarks and frequent statements for further research. In accordance, this research in short is significant in two ways. Firstly there is the theoretical contribution to the body of knowledge about tourism. Secondly is the practical contribution to tourism planning and development, specifically in Malaysia's tourism industry. In this study, the theoretical contribution enhances the understanding of *the tourist gaze* which symbolized tourists' motivation, perceptions, expectations and experiences of a destination. The conceptual framework used in this study provides new insights into the *gaze* relating to another group of tourists, i.e. Muslim women. It can be concluded that the Setiu coastal destination is consumed somewhat superficially as an "unfamiliar aspect of what had previously been thought of as familiar" and as "particular signs that indicate it is indeed extraordinary", or in other words an object of the Muslim women's *spiritual gaze*. In line with the views of previous explanations, this study found that tourist normally looking something which are different from other tourist's views and hope for something unusual or different from the normal environment found at home. Next, with the increase of females' tourism activities in Malaysia, not only strengthen Muslim women as an important social entity, but also has a direct impact on human (woman in particular) resource development. The group target becomes something more than just instrumental in steering *the tourists' gaze*. Based on this analysis of Setiu's domestic tourism, this paper is able to offer several constructive criticisms of Urry's analysis of *the tourist gaze*. In particular, this paper argues that in an Asian country such as Malaysia; where there is a very different context from Western perspectives, the *gaze* does not fully encapsulate tourists' experiences completely. This paper suggests that the concept of *the tourist gaze* is too individualistic to be consumed in the existing tourism industry. Discovering *the tourist gaze* from another perspective makes it possible to identify tourist behavior and demand for products and destination development that are mutually beneficial to both tourists and local people.

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# Crises once removed: a study of the impact of the Libyan Crisis on Malta, April 2011

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## **Abstract**

Tourism, as we have witnessed widely in recent years, is extremely crisis-sensitive, both at the micro level of the individual business or in terms of the macro impact on a destination, country or region. Crises may be the result of natural disasters caused by famine, fire, hurricanes, volcanic activity or flooding or may be induced by human conflict or mismanagement - war, terrorism or nuclear accidents are examples of such crisis situations. The literature on crises in tourism generally focuses on the destinations or businesses that are directly affected. However, there is a gap in discussion relating to how crises or disasters in one location can impact on other destinations in both positive and negative ways. At its simplest, visitors who cannot or will not visit one location because of what is happening there will, in many instances, choose an alternative destination for their leisure vacation, although, of course, some forms of tourism are place specific (VFR, pilgrimages). Thus, the negative consequences of the Bali bombings on the local tourism industry in 2002 may have resulted in increased levels of business for competing destinations in the region and far beyond. However, limits to geographical awareness may also have resulted in reduced propensity to travel to other Indonesian and regional destinations. Likewise, the 1991 Gulf War saw destinations and businesses affected as far away as Cyprus in the eastern Mediterranean.

There is a well established literature on the relationship between the tourism industry and crises of various types. Theoretical themes are well covered in Scott and Laws (2005) and Laws, Prideaux and Chon (2007) as well as by Ritchie (2004). At a policy level, Blake and Sinclair (2003) report the possible and actual measures taken by governments to the events of 9/11 in the United States in order to guide future responses to global-impact events of this scale. In terms of market impact of crises at a

destination level, Eugenio-Martin et al (2005) present an interesting study in relation to Scotland and foot and mouth disease. Mansfeld (1999) is an example of a study that addresses recovery from crises, a major concern for destinations faced with the aftermath of natural or other disasters. Beirman (2002) addresses a similar theme in the context of prolonged crises for a country and region. Managing crisis responses at a strategic level is a theme addressed by Ritchie (2004).

In terms of individual businesses, again, there is a well developed literature. Israeli et al (2011) consider how businesses respond in the luxury hotel market, focusing on India. McMullan and Baum (2011) mirror Ritchie's (2004) macro-perspective when they address approaches to crisis response in the context of small to medium sized hotel operations, seeking to identify the basis for a common response model and Israeli (2007) considers a similar theme in the context of restaurants. The extent to which managers of hospitality and tourism operations are crisis-ready is a concern for Rousaki and Alcott (2007) who concluded that prior experience of crisis management was an important factor in their degree of readiness.

The purpose of this working paper is to report the preliminary outcomes of a study into the effects of the Libyan Emergency or Revolution on Malta, an island located some 1,200 km to the north. The up-rising commenced in February 2011 in the form of peaceful protests, modeled on similar action in Egypt and Tunisia but soon escalated into full-scale civil war, with active NATO intervention through air strikes in support of the rebels. Malta maintained a strict position of non-engagement in the military conflict but became a major centre for humanitarian support as well as acting as a co-ordination centre for governments, NGOs, charities and the media. For example, two weeks into the crisis, some 8,000 foreign refugees are reported to have been evacuated via Malta (Euronews, 2011) and this role as a staging post continued for a considerable time. There was active, short-term involvement by Maltese tourism interests in supporting the humanitarian effort - Air Malta, for example, was one of the last airlines to cease operations out of Tripoli, continuing to offer services at a significant loss in an effort to evacuate as many refugees as possible (Control Risks/ International SOS, 2011).

In April 2011, some two months after the start of the Libyan Revolution, a survey was conducted of over 250 managers of tourism operations in Malta. Participants were owners, senior and middle managers participating in an EU-funded training programme. They represented all sectors of the industry in Malta, both public and private sector and included managers from the accommodation, heritage, attractions, activities and transport sectors. Respondents completed a questionnaire permitting both open and closed responses to a range of questions relating to the direct and indirect impact of the crisis on their business. Preliminary responses highlight the following outcomes:

- Respondents reported both positive and negative impacts from the crisis. Generally, the positive impacts were immediate and short term while the negative impacts related to effects on market perceptions and the cancellation of future bookings



- The number reporting negative impacts was significantly greater than those reporting benefits as a result of the crisis
- Positive impacts were reported by the transport sector (both international and local) and by some major hotels
- Negative effects were reported by resort hotels and smaller accommodation providers
- Neutral impacts were reported by restaurants, heritage facilities, attractions and activity operators, few of which would operate significant advance bookings and cater predominantly for the leisure market
- Few businesses reported significant rises in the charges they were able to levy as a result of the crisis. However, a number noted price reductions or complementary services which they had applied in response to the short-term needs of crisis victims and support agencies
- Generally, the impact, if any, on employment numbers was negative although some businesses reported short term increases in demand for labour. Most frequently, the impact was neutral
- Assessment of the extent to which the tourism industry in Malta was able to provide a coordinated response was mixed. Overall, most managers did not report evidence of leadership and coordination in this regard
- A significant number of respondents reported previous crisis experience, either in Malta or overseas

These findings are preliminary and we plan to report more detailed analysis in due course.

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# Picking O'er The Bones: a postmortem on Hospitality Management Education (DoB 1893)

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## Abstract

Hospitality management education is almost 120 years old - a venerable age for any living organism. The questions that are posed in this working paper are a) is that aged body actually still with us on this earth and b) if it is, should life support be maintained or would family and friends (ie. those of us who are its prime stakeholders) be doing the kind and decent thing by finally pulling the plug, at least within the context of developed economies? These are serious questions because the cumulative investment by governments, families, students and the wider community in

These questions are posed on the basis of a number of major concerns with the state of hospitality management as a field of academic investigation, discourse and education. In no way is this intended to spill over into a challenge to vocational and technical education for the sector although some of the concerns expressed are also applicable to this sector. These concerns are identified on the basis of both empirical evidence and observations. Essentially, the evidence relates to a wide range of issues that are applicable to hospitality management education in its contemporary state within most developed societies. A separate debate may be required for this theme in the context of countries with immature and emerging hospitality sectors. The following concerns can be highlighted.

- hospitality management is one of the few (and certainly the oldest) vocational education areas that 'benefits' from bespoke educational provision up to executive management levels (as well as dedicated monotechnic providers) where such provision is not a requirement for professional accreditation or registration (as is the case with medicine, law, accounting etc.)
- there is little evidence to support claims for such bespoke programmes beyond the lobbying power of the hospitality industry itself. The origins of isolationism lie in the original focus of many providers where education at management level evolved out of a practical and skills-based training culture
- as a consequence, hospitality management education is offered in second or third tier university or college institutions (with perhaps one or two exceptions) - whichever global university ratings are employed, it is clear that hospitality management education does not feature in the programme offerings of any of the

world's leading universities with the exception of Cornell University, which is generally rated in the mid-teens as an institution

- indeed, hospitality management education to university degree level is increasingly also offered by a new wave of non-university institutions that traditionally focused on vocational and practical skills outcomes, whether in Australia, Hong Kong, Ireland, Switzerland, Taiwan or the UK. This has had a seriously detrimental impact on the academic status of the field

- hospitality management education is perceived to be primarily vocational and non-academic in nature, not a natural choice for able and aspiring students - this perception is compounded by widely held concerns about work, working conditions and progression opportunities within hospitality as an industry

- it is taught by faculty with a strong record of professional experience but whose academic and published research record is poor relative to allied social science and business disciplines

- there is a paucity of high quality and recognized discipline-indigenous research published in the field of hospitality, amply demonstrated by Baum (2011) and cogently argued in relation to the parallel field of tourism by Tribe (2011) and Airey (2011)

- hospitality management education frequently involves industry internships with roles and responsibilities that bear little resemblance to the job aspirational roles of those entering programmes, ie. front-line service positions with little development or progression opportunity

- the curricula of many programmes begin with learning that is rooted in vocational or "trade" education and that is the dominant image of these programmes

- level progression is frequently sacrificed to increasing the accumulative breadth of learning acquired during programmes

- there is a perception that the management of hospitality enterprises requires bespoke business education which is somehow distinct from that delivered for students aspiring to roles in other sectors, vis. Hospitality Accounting, Hospitality Marketing. The effect of this is that such subjects are frequently dumbed down to the lowest common denominator level of weaker students

- the conventional curriculum development paradigm for hospitality management programmes is to focus on what the industry articulates as its skills needs. The issues with this paradigm are multi-fold - industry does not have a singular need and, across the spectrum of business by size and ownership, perceives its skills requirements in very different terms; perceived skills needs change rapidly and in 360 degree directions, according to time and circumstance and, indeed, are generally highly volatile - therefore, it is difficult to benchmark three or four year curricula credibly against such criteria

- more fundamentally, an industry-driven curriculum focuses on what businesses perceive their requirements are for entry level front-line and junior supervisory roles in the here and now and rarely take a longer-term and strategic perception of what managers should be able to contribute once they achieve positions of leadership within the industry
- this results in curricula that focus, at best, on operational management outcomes and little space is given to the development of the reflective practitioner, able to focus on strategic, long-term learning requirements
- partially as a consequence of this focus on the “tyranny of immediate relevance”, few graduates of bespoke hospitality management programmes play true leadership or innovator roles in the contemporary global industry
- at the same time, there is evidence of a major leadership deficit within the sector, which is impacting on the attractiveness of hospitality to all of its major stakeholders - investors, governments, students, families and the community
- declining demand for hospitality management education has perpetuated a cloning effect with a range of allied curriculum areas emerging both within it (bar management, culinary management) and adjacent to it (events management), all of which face very similar if not identical perceptual and actual problems within the context of a future role in university education

This paper will sift the hard evidence relating to these concerns in order to determine whether hospitality management education as a university field of study has (or, indeed, should have) a meaningful future within the academy.

# **The Development of a Trans-National Tourism Risk, Crisis and Recovery Management Network**

## Case Study: Establishment of the Pacific Asia Travel Association's Rapid Response Taskforce

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### **Abstract**

Since the 9/11 attack of 2001 the global tourism industry has become increasingly aware of and responsive to the trans-national nature of tourism crisis events. Some crisis events, notably the 9/11 attack itself and more recently the ash cloud from the Icelandic volcanic eruption of April 2010 have disrupted tourism on a global scale.

This paper will focus on the development of the Pacific Asia Travel Association's *PATA Rapid Response Taskforce* (PRRT) which was formed during 2011 and will be the focus of PATA's tourism crisis management strategy over the coming decade. However, PRRT's establishment, its triangulated strategic approach and operation has evolved within a far broader context of international tourism industry crisis management at both government and private sector level seeking trans-national approaches to preparing for, responding to and recovering from crisis events.

PATA's approach to trans-national crisis management should be analysed within the context of trans-national crisis management employed by different organisations. These include individual multinational companies such as the International Hotel Group, sectoral organizations such the international Air Transport Association representing the airline sector and global tourism bodies including the UN World Tourism Organisation (which represents over 150 national government tourism ministries) and the World Travel and Tourism Council which represents the top 100 global travel companies.

**Key words:** tourism crisis response, Trans-national management

### **Introduction**

Tourism crisis events frequently extend and impact beyond the borders of a single country. The ash cloud from Iceland's Eyafjallajökull volcanic eruption of April 2010 caused extensive disruption to commercial air traffic and tourism within Europe and had a global ripple effect in which tourism movements and travel itineraries to and from Europe were disrupted affecting millions of travelers. In May-June 2011 the eruption of a volcano in Chile caused similar disruption to airline and tourism movements throughout the Southern Hemisphere which impacted on international and domestic tourism to, from and within Southern Australia, New Zealand, South America and South Africa. During 2011 the "Arab Spring" political uprisings in Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Syria, Bahrain and Yemen have shaped a range of negative perceptions towards travel throughout much of the Arab world and the Middle East. Wars, acts of terrorism, natural disasters and pandemics have impacted on tourism globally as the case with the 9/11 attacks and large regions of the world as was the case with SARS in 2003 and the Indian Ocean tsunami of 2004.

The concept of a multinational crisis management response network is not new. The airline sector and specifically the International Air Transport Association established a very effective crisis communications unit in the wake of the 9/11 attacks in 2001. However this was confined to a specific sector of the tourism industry. The Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) established the beginning of a response network after the Bali bombing of October 2002 and PATA's head office in Bangkok has conducted close monitoring of crisis events impacting on tourism in the Asia Pacific region as an ongoing priority since 2002.

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) has enhanced its role in the area of crisis management since the Indian Ocean tsunami of December 2004. In 2006 the UNWTO established the Tourism Emergency Response Network (TERN), an initiative led by its former deputy Secretary General, Geoffrey Lipman. (Glaesser 2011) The basic concept of TERN was to utilise the resources of all major international tourism related organizations who are affiliated to TERN to mobilize their resources to monitor the situation of a crisis, communicate to stakeholders and the media and establish policies to assist destination regions and authorities affected by crisis events in managing and recovering from the crisis. In 2009 the UNWTO established its [www.sos.travel](http://www.sos.travel) web site as an enhancement of the TERN concept.

In May 2011 PATA's executive decided to establish a crisis ready taskforce comprising of PATA officials and members based in several Asia Pacific countries, including Thailand, Japan, Singapore Canada and the UK which was charged with three key tasks. Monitoring crisis events, developing training material and delivering training programs to assist PATA members and affiliated organizations to effectively prepare for manage crises in their own jurisdictions and to respond to and manage major trans-national crises within in the Asia Pacific Region. The taskforce which operates under the acronym of PRRT (PATA Rapid Response Taskforce) was officially launched in October 2011. This paper will discuss the concept of PRRT, its activities and includes an analysis its planned role within the broader context of multinational tourism crisis response and management networks.



## The Evolution of PATA's Rapid Response Taskforce

The Pacific Asia Travel Association was established in 1952 (Gee and Lourie 2001). PATA, or is was originally known as PITA (Pacific Interim Travel Association) was established with the intention of being the representative organization of the tourism industry in North America, the Pacific Islands, East and Southeast Asia and Australasia. Until the 1990s PATA evolved from its origins as US centric tourism association with the focal point of its activities and membership based in Hawaii and the US Pacific coast. However this quickly changed with the growth of mass tourism to and from Asia. By the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century the centre of gravity for Pacific Asia tourism had moved from America to Asia and in recognition of this fact, in PATA relocated its head office its head office from San Francisco to Bangkok in 1998 where it remains today.

PATA is unusual as a major trans-national tourism organisation. Its structure includes regionally based chapters all of which are linked to the head office. PATA can be best described as a hybrid tourism association. Its current membership includes 49 national tourism ministries from all over the Asia Pacific region and many state/ provincial and regional tourism associations. PATA's private sector members include airlines, hoteliers, tour operators, land transport providers, cruise operators, car rental firms, media organizations and a wide range of tourism industry and tourism related service providers including credit card companies, duty free chains. It members also includes universities and private educational institutions.

PATA's unusual blend of government and multi-sector private sector tourism industry members and companies with tourism related-related interests have pushed PATA's leadership to be heavily focused on and responsive to travel industry trends. Although its official geographic limits encompass all of Asia and the Pacific Ocean states and Pacific rim countries, PATA has members and chapters in several European countries and South Africa.

Crisis management has been a long standing concern of PATA. It was a theme of its 1996 annual conference and in fact had been a concern of the association and its members since its establishment. The Korean and Vietnam wars, conflicts between India and Pakistan and instability in Indochina, Malaysia and Indonesia have all impacted on tourism to the Asia Pacific region since 1952. The 1991 Gulf War was just one of the catalysts which propelled PATA take the issue of crisis management seriously and professionally. In 1995 PATA became one of the first major tourism associations to establish an internet site and in 1997 PATA moved its strategic intelligence centre from Singapore to Bangkok.

One of PATA's strengths is the ability to gather current tourism intelligence from its various members and chapters and disseminate this information rapidly to members and the travel industry media. The internet and the proliferation of E media outlets and social media sites in recent years have speeded and up and facilitate widening of the dissemination process. PATA's government members alone, include 49 national tourism ministries all of which share critical data with PATA which its Strategic Intelligence Unit uses in forecasting market trends and in disseminating destination

information. PATA's ability to gather and disseminate intelligence rapidly enables it to be nimble and timely in dealing with crisis events. This ability was first employed immediately after the Bali bombing of October 12, 2002. By sheer coincidence, all the board members were in Denpasar on that evening attending the wedding reception for PATA's Deputy CEO, Peter Semone. Immediately after the bombing PATA's board immediately commenced crisis communication from Bali and worked closely with the Balinese regional and Indonesian national tourism authorities. PATA commissioned a Bali taskforce immediately after the bombing which recommended a number of key actions including the establishment of ongoing crisis monitoring for the Asia Pacific region.

PATA's well documented *Project Phoenix* (Yates 2006) in which it coordinated the Asia Pacific crisis communications and recovery campaign to spearhead the rapid recovery of tourism to the Asia Pacific region after the 2003 SARS outbreak established a template for media leveraged post-crisis recovery. During and after the Indian Ocean Tsunami of December 2004 PATA in cooperation with national tourism authorities was the most reliable and most up to date source of tourism related information on the status of tourism, transport and accommodation in tsunami affected areas of Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Sri Lanka.

PATA has continued to play a proactive role in dealing with tourism related crisis events in the Asia Pacific region including the Samoan tsunami of 2009, and political instability and riots in Thailand 2008-10. In May 2011, following a major conference in Bangkok focused on mapping the future for Thai tourism in which post crisis recovery issues were the prime focus, PATA's interim CEO, Bill Calderwood and PATA's board decided that it was appropriate for PATA to establish a permanent crisis management taskforce. Bert van Walbeek, an experienced Bangkok based risk and crisis management consultant with close links to PATA was invited by the PATA board to chair the PATA Rapid Response Taskforce.

The purpose of PRRT as outlined by Van Walbeek (Van Walbeek 2011) was triangular in nature. One side of the triangle involves developing a guide book, training modules and programs to prepare and train PATA members and stakeholders to manage crisis events, The second side of the triangle is a an ongoing monitoring process, utilising e resources and links with the PATA web site, travel industry and wider media to keep track of emerging threats to tourism and the third side is the mobilisation of the PATA Rapid response Taskforce to directly assist companies and destination authorities in the management of crisis events.

The members of the taskforce are geographically dispersed with the core members based in PATA's Bangkok head office and members located in Japan, Singapore, Tokyo, London, Vancouver and Sydney. The PRRT members would communicate with each other via skype phone links, e mail and SMS.

In November 2011 PATA released PRRT's guide booklet, *Bounce Back A Guide to Tourism Risk, Crisis and Recovery Management* (Beirman and Walbeek 2011) as the first stage of the PRRT roll out. The PRRT also kept a close watching brief on the Thai

floods of October/November 2011 in conjunction with the Thai Tourism Authority. PRRT's Task Force was officially activated in November 2011 by the PATA board. PRRT has timed the completion of its training modules by February 2012 which will be available for CD Rom disk or electronic distribution to PATA members. PRRT has already established links with a wide range of media outlets in readiness to launch crisis management and tourism recovery campaigns for the Asia-Pacific region when and if the need arises.

The ongoing research arising from this working paper will detail the workings of PRRT and compare its role with private sector and international government based trans national tourism organisations which have developed risk, crisis and recovery management networks.

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**NB.** The author is an active member of the PATA Rapid Response Taskforce in a strictly honorary capacity. In fact all non-Bangkok based PRRT members volunteer their time for this activity.

# In the Eye of the Beholder: Street Art, Landscape, and the Tourist Gaze Refocused

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## **Abstract**

This discussion explores the rise and commodification of urban Street Art as a tourism focus in Melbourne, Australia. Melbourne as a tourist city is briefly evoked, then a context is framed that locates and characterizes a tourist gaze seeking sub/counter-cultural experience. A discussion of 'spectacle' and 'commodity' will then further illuminate the Melbourne street art phenomenon, with one emergent conclusion being that the variety of forms such tourist visits can take – including guided tours - may result in the (perceived) diminishment of counter-cultural artistic expression/ protest and a reconfiguration that results in yet another mainstream tourist experience.

**Key Words:** urban street art, tourist gaze, sub/counter-cultural experience, artistic expression/protest, reconfiguration.

## **Introduction**

Visiting a new city can be all about 'I know what I *want* to see', a personal checklist of informed desire, or 'I know what I *have* to see', conforming to the more familiar use of an obligatory, major site checklist. What underpins both approaches, however, is the knowledge that in the targeted destination there will be new sites and sights, and that personal responses will usually fall somewhere on an exhilaration/ tick-it-off/ disappointment continuum. The personal checklist informed travel and tourism long before the commodified Grand Tour, and still has currency, although the number of lists of places to be visited, books to be read, movies to be seen, and so on, before one dies appears to be growing at an alarming rate. Such lists mirror a tourist itinerary in the sense that there is a perceived necessity to visit/ read/ see all on the list or else risk a sense of failure, an inability to satisfy external measures of achievement and subsequent success.

The obvious counterpoint to being a dismal flop as a tourist (or a list checker) is to reverse the focus, and create personal itineraries that challenge and defy predictable mainstreaming through a celebration of the subversive, counter-cultural and possibly even the criminal. Dark Tourism immediately springs to mind but this discussion has a different trajectory, the rise and commodification of urban Street Art as a tourism focus in Melbourne, Australia. Melbourne as a tourist city will first be briefly evoked, then two of Urry's nine tourism practices (2002) will be utilized to develop a context that locates and characterizes a tourist gaze that seeks sub/counter- cultural experience. Whilst McGaw's (2008) discussion of 'spectacle' and 'commodity' will further illuminate the Melbourne street art phenomenon, one obvious conclusion can only be that the variety of forms such tourist visits can take – including guided tours - may result in the (perceived) diminishment of counter-cultural artistic expression/ protest and a reconfiguration that results in yet another mainstream tourist experience.

### **The City of Melbourne**

The City of Melbourne has, for some time, been constructed for resident and tourist consumption in quite particular ways, most of which are dependent upon phases of historical development. Miles Lewis' commissioned work *Melbourne: The City's History and Development* (1995, 2e) examines the rise of the city from beginnings as 'frontier town' to the urban 'spurt' after the Olympic year of 1956 into the mid-1970s. In the thirty or so years since then, Melbourne has developed in ways that echo McLoughlin's 1992 observation:

*Melbourne has gone through a remarkable transformation, from a rather sleepy, and predominantly Anglo-Celtic provincial town into a much larger, industrialized, vital and multicultural metropolitan society. (25-26)*

That combination of vitality and multiculturalism has contributed to both the diminishment of provincialism and the rise of a dynamic metropolis that is currently, according to *The Economist* 'the world's most livable city' but more of livability later.

Given that dynamism is so often about dismantling, or at the very least challenging, the established order, new forms of cultural expression in art and architecture are often the most frequently encountered physical manifestations that regularly confront and challenge the status quo at any given time in a city's history.

Melbourne's tree-lined avenues and extant Victorian architecture are not only cherished by residents but also contribute significantly to the city's tourism policy and practice and, perhaps more importantly, to the construction of a touristic 'imagination' of the city. The challenge at this point, however, is that the 'tourist' visiting Melbourne is just as vital, dynamic, diverse, multicultural and – dare it be written – as subversive as elements of the city itself.

### **The Tourist Gaze**

The tourist 'gaze', as initially proposed by Urry (1992) provided a means of critically considering what is being looked at, by whom, and for what purpose/s and were

contextualized through the social practices of tourism. For the purposes of this discussion, the two most relevant of Urry's nine tourism practices are:

(7) The tourist gaze is directed to features of landscape and townscape which separate them off from everyday experience. Such aspects are viewed because they are taken to be in some sense out of the ordinary. The viewing of such tourist sights often involves different forms of social patterning, with much greater sensitivity to visual elements of landscape or townscape than normally found in everyday life.

and

(9) An array of tourist professionals develop who attempt to reproduce ever new objects of the tourist gaze. These objects are located on a complex and changing hierarchy. This depends upon the interplay between, on the one hand, competition between interests involved in the provision of such objects and, on the other hand, changing class, gender, generational distinctions of taste within the potential population of visitors. (see also: Xie, P., Osumare, H., and Ibrahim, A., 2007:465)

Urry's identification of phenomena that are 'out of the ordinary' and the emergent reproductive processing of such 'new objects' by tourist professionals can be applied to the institutionalization of street art as a cultural tourism attraction. It can also be viewed in the familiar tourism context of the initial shock and subsequent mainstream legitimizing of rebellious and confrontational forms of expression.

### **Sketching the Background**

Pursuing the historical background, Ganz proposes that the etymology of 'graffiti' is derived from the Italian *sgraffio*, meaning 'scratch', that early man had blown paint through hollow bones around hands to create silhouettes, and that excavations at Pompeii revealed elections slogans and obscenities (2004:8). Just as the Impressionists, Post Impressionists, Cubists, and Surrealists rejected modes of representation that had preceded them, and created their own forms of resistance so, too, have those who identify as Street Art(ists). Bou explains that:

*Street art, as the name implies, encompasses all artistic incursions into the urban landscape and derives directly from the graffiti painted on Harlem (New York) train cars in the late 1970s. Its philosophy and raison d'être have evolved, as have those of all art and artistic movements, as society has undergone socio-political and cultural changes, but its essence remains the same (delinquent and antisystem). Many artists call this movement 'post-graffiti'. (2005:6)*

Street art in its current form may not be new but it still polarizes opinion and response, with a Melbourne daily newspaper headlining an article reporting that a council funded guide to city graffiti is under fire with 'Vandals, apply here' (Wright, 2011:13). Vandals, those 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> century destroyers of art and the printed word, still have currency (see Houghton, 2008, below), although the question of what exactly is being destroyed, and by whom, is still lacking consensus. Two curious episodes in the annals of Melbourne street art took place in 2008 and 2010 respectively. In a curiously fragmented article

titled *'The painter painted: Melbourne loses its treasured Banksy'*, Janae Houghton wrote in December, 2008 that a Banksy stencil of a little diver protected by a plastic cover was ruined when vandals tipped silver paint behind the plastic cover. Eighteen months later Raymond Gill reported in late April 2010 (*'City does give a rat's for Banksy's wiped-out art'*) that the Melbourne City Council was responsible for inadvertently painting over a Banksy stencil of a rat in a Hosier lane council cleanup.

*'As the street art capital of Australia, we are aware of the popularity of Banksy's works and have made exceptions to preserve them in the past', Melbourne City Council chief executive Kathy Alexander said yesterday. 'In hindsight, we should have acted sooner to formally approve and protect all known Banksy works. It is very unfortunate that this Banksy artwork has now been removed'*

## **Conclusion**

What is now obvious is that the 'art' part of street art is now manifestly mainstream in terms of wider socio-cultural, and certainly Melbourne City Council awareness (see: <http://www.melbourne.vic.gov.au>) but such status does not necessarily indicate widespread acceptance or approval – the political debate continues.

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# **An Investigatory Analysis of the Main Motivational Dimensions of Audiences at Ethnic Minority Cultural Festivals**

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## **Abstract**

The paper aimed to investigate the main motivational dimensions of ethnic minority cultural festival attendees and to compare that ethnic minority's audience members' and other audience members' motivations. The geographical focus of this study was a small scale cultural festival in Adelaide, South Australia, the 2009 Fešta, a festival which celebrates the traditions of the Croatian culture for the Croatian community and that aims to raise awareness of the culture and traditions to those not of Croatian heritage. A structured quantitative survey was conducted. The results identified eight main motivational dimensions for attendance at the festival: 'community support', 'escape', 'knowledge/education', 'food, wine and entertainment', 'family togetherness', 'marketing' and 'socialisation'. This paper suggests implications for event designers and managers seeking to increase overall attendance and levels of audience satisfaction at both smaller scale cultural festivals in general and ethnic minority cultural festivals in particular.

**Keywords:** Audience motivation, event design, community events, cultural festivals, ethnic minority, South Australia

## **Introduction**

There is anecdotal evidence that festivals and special events are emerging as one of the fastest growing types of tourism attractions and playing a crucial role in stimulating domestic tourism businesses (see for example, Getz, 1991, 2007; Long & Perdue, 1990). Previous studies have accordingly emphasised the importance of understanding (cultural) festival visitors' or audience's motivations and attempted to identify motivational dimensions of audience attending a wide range of festivals including arts festivals, sport festivals, the World Cultural Expo, music festivals as well as aboriginal cultural festivals (Bowen & Daniels, 2005; Chang, 2006; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Kim, Uysal, & Chen, 2002; Lee, 2000; Lee and Lee, 2001; Lee, Lee, & Wicks, 2004; Schofield & Thompson, 2007; Van Zyl & Botha, 2003). Especially, Lee (2000) suggests that the identification of audience needs and motivations is essential for the successful development of the festival programme. Lee and Lee (2001) also posit that segmenting festival markets through audience motivation is a powerful marketing tool which is likely to enable festival and event managers to more effectively satisfy their audiences at their festivals and events.

Despite the welcome growth in research on festival motivation, there is little research on audience motivation associated with small scale community cultural festivals. There is also a paucity of research on audience motivation of ethnic minority groups who attend their own small scale community cultural festivals. Australia is a multicultural country and in Adelaide, South Australia, there are numerous ethnic minority groups residing and numerous cultural festivals specifically designed to celebrate specific ethnic cultures. Cultures that can be classified as 'dominant' or 'majority' populations such as German, Greek, and Italian in the South Australian context, have effectively made a mark on producing successful, larger scale community cultural festivals including 'Schutzenfest', 'Glendi' and 'Carnevale: Italian Fun, Food and Fair Festival'. However, other 'minority' ethnic groups such as Lebanese, Polish and Croatian, have yet to develop events that match the popularity and success of those larger scale cultural festivals that are supported by larger ethnic populations. Thus, this study attempts to identify the major motivational factors that attract an audience to a small scale ethnic minority cultural festival by examining the Fešta - Croatian Food and Wine Festival, held in Adelaide, South Australia. Specifically, this pilot study aims to (1) identify the main motivational dimensions for attending the Fešta; (2) identify the audience demographics and examine whether any motivational differences exist between Croatian-born (same ethnic minority group) and non-Croatian-born audiences (other populations); and (3) provide programming or marketing implications for the event designer of smaller scale community cultural events.

## **Research methods**

A structured quantitative survey method was used to collect data. The survey instrument composed of two main sections: demographic information and audience motivation to attend. The motivation items were initially generated from a thorough review of previous studies in particular those on cultural festival motivation research (Chang, 2006; Lee, 2000; Lee et al., 2004; Schofield & Thompson, 2007; Thompson & Schofield, 2009; Van Zyl & Botha, 2003). It was assumed that these items would be most appropriate for measuring audience's motivations for attending Fešta – Croatian Food and Wine Festival, given that Fešta is a cultural festival. With slight modification and exclusion of non-relevant items such as sports attraction, a total of 32 motivational statements were selected and a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree) was utilised to measure the construct.

An on-site, interviewer completed survey was conducted at Fešta on the 21<sup>st</sup> of November, 2009. The festival was a one-day event that was held at the Croatian Sports Grounds Gepps Cross in Adelaide, South Australia. In total, 183 questionnaires were collected on the day. The respondents were chosen based on random selection, throughout the day of the event at different locations of the event site. Surveys were undertaken throughout the whole day of the event and in all areas of the event site (for example, the food, sport and entertainment areas). Surveyors worked over shorter periods to ensure a full day of data collection to allow for multiple audience types.

## Results

### *Socio-demographics of respondents and factor analysis*

Respondents were almost equally spread from each of the genders with 48 percent male and 52 percent female. The respondents' ages spread across the cohort categories with 41 percent below the age of 35 and 59 percent above. Most of the respondents did not have a higher tertiary education (63.9%), though 32.8 percent had a university education with 3.3 percent completing postgraduate studies. 113 respondents (61.7%) were non-Croatian born including United Kingdom, China, Greece, India, Italy, Finland and Australia, and 70 respondents (38.3%) were Croatian-born.

The thirty-two items of audience motivation were subjected to principal component analysis with 'Varimax' rotation method to maximise variance of the loadings. After inspection of item content for domain representation, seven motivational items exhibiting high cross loadings were deleted. A final eight-factor model was estimated with the remaining twenty-five items. The factor solution accounted for 73.299 percent of total variance. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ( $p < .000$ ) and KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy (.725) exceeded the recommended minimum value of .60. This indicates that the factor analysis was considered a useful validation of the factor model. These findings provide evidence for the construct validity for the scale (Churchill, 1979). The eight dimensions are named (1) 'community support', (2) 'escape', (3) 'knowledge / education', (4) 'food, wine and entertainment', (5) 'novelty', (6) 'family togetherness', (7) 'marketing', and (8)

'socialisation'. The results of the reliability test indicate that the eight dimensions all had meritorious internal consistency with a coefficient of .872, .880, .703, .721, .717, .944, and .893 respectively with an exception of .612 for the dimension of 'socialisation'. All factor loadings were greater than .40, ranging from .548 to .955. Meanwhile, communalities for each variable which show the amount of variances accounted for by the factors were from .471 to .931, indicating each variable contribute to establishing the factor structure. Thus, the results of this study satisfied the recommended thresholds for both factor loadings and communalities.

### ***Motivational differences between Croatian-born and non-Croatian-born audience's members***

The motivational differences between Croatian-born and non-Croatian born audience's members to the 2009 Fešta – Croatian Food and Wine Festival in Adelaide, were tested using an independent t-test. The t-test revealed that no statistically significant differences existed between Croatian-born and non-Croatian-born audience's members with respect to all eight motivational factors. Nevertheless, for five of eight motivational factors the mean scores of the Croatian-born audience's members were found to be slightly higher than those of non-Croatian-born audience's members in terms of 'community support', 'escape', 'food, wine and entertainment', 'marketing' and 'socialisation'. This indicates that the audiences with a Croatian ethnic background were highly motivated to attend their ethnic group's cultural festival (e.g. Fešta) to support their ethnic community, to celebrate and showcase their community's spirit and pride, to enjoy their traditional food, wine and entertainment as well as to share those experiences with other audiences who had different ethnic backgrounds. In contrast, the non-Croatian-born audience's members were more motivated by the factors of 'knowledge/education' and 'family togetherness', demonstrating that they wanted to learn more about the Croatian cultures and traditions with their family members, relatives and friends. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that for the both groups 'food, wine and entertainment' was identified as the greatest motivational factor whereas 'marketing' was considered as the least important motivation. These results show that traditional food, beverage and entertainment including music and dance are one of the major vehicles to attract audiences to such an ethnic minority cultural festival no matter what ethnic backgrounds they held.

### **Conclusion and implications**

The findings offer several implications for state governments, local communities, and public or private festival and event organisations that have an interest in developing small scale community and ethnic minority cultural festivals. For the event designer, an understanding of the eight identified motivational dimensions of such small scale ethnic minority cultural festival audience is paramount to the identification of different (specific) wants and needs in order for the event's overall design to provide higher levels of satisfaction for the event's specific target audience. Event designers should offer a

provision and supply of authentic and traditional ethnic cultural products and program elements such as food, beverage and cultural activity (including dance and music), which will lead to maximising 'the effectiveness of communication with and the positive and meaningful experience for the event's audience' (Brown, 2005). For audience members with the same ethnic background as that of the festival, this designed and programmed *authenticity* will therefore provide a great opportunity not only to celebrate and support their traditions, beliefs and practices associated with their cultural baggage or cultural heritage, but also to educate younger generations to better understand their roots and traditions that should be preserved and continued from generation to generation. Thus, the attention of audience member will be captured, engaged and retained throughout the duration of the festival and thereby.

For audience members with different ethnic backgrounds to that of the festival, this will certainly provide the opportunity to gain a greater understanding of that ethnic minority group's culture and traditions as well as a better understanding of diverse cultures. It is also important to note that the event designer should develop the concept and utilise event design principles and techniques to enable such educational messages and experiences to be delivered not only by passive observation but also by more active audience participation in the event (for example, making simple ethnic foods and crafts, learning simple dance steps, with guidance and explanation from members of the ethnic community). Importantly, event designers and festival organisers, for such small scale ethnic minority cultural festivals where smaller budgets and fewer resources for marketing are likely to be the norm, should regularly evaluate their marketing strategies, broadening the information about the *cultural* activities of the festival and design the event to make them more appealing for a wider audience.

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# Nutritional labelling on restaurant menus

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**Key words:** Menu Labelling, Calories, Full Service Restaurant, Health Education

## Abstract

Against a background of rapidly increasing obesity and associated diseases in populations ([Lowell, 2004](#)) the aim of this research was to investigate whether nutritional information on restaurant menus would influence consumers' choices when dining out.

Growing interest and concern over the increasingly unhealthy environment that consumers are exposed to ([Paton, 2008](#)) and the many diseases including obesity which is seen as an epidemic in western cultures caused by poor nutritional habits (Sack, Radler, Mairella, Touger-Decker, Khan, 2009) raises concern. Actions to fight this epidemic have been introduced at multiple levels including public policy and legislation, health promotions and education campaigns in some countries ([Sack, 2009](#)). However, there are no regulations for menu nutritional labelling in the hospitality industry in New Zealand and a lack of evidence on the impact of menu labelling on consumer food choices in 'fine dining restaurant setting'.

The study's main research objective was to examine the impact of menu labelling on consumers food choices in a 'fine dining restaurant setting'. An experimental, pilot approach was chosen for the study which included two phases: the first *without* nutritional information displayed on menus, and the second *with* nutritional information displayed against menu items. The researchers had available Mellors Restaurant which is a training restaurant within Otago Polytechnic, Dunedin, New Zealand. The restaurant has now been relocated and is now known as Technique. The restaurant offers diners an opportunity to dine at lunch and dinner during the polytechnic calendar. The food is prepared on site by student chefs and the restaurant is serviced by student waiters. The

restaurant offers a fixed price, table d'hôte menu with limited choices. It gave the researchers an opportunity to study diners' behaviour in Cullen's (1994) social eating context.

It included two phases: the first *without* nutritional information displayed on menus; the second *with* nutritional information displayed against menu items. The two phases were carried out in consecutive weeks, and apart from the calorie, kilojoule and recommended daily intake (RDI) values that were added against every menu item in the second week, the menus were identical. The calorie, kilojoule and RDI of each menu item were calculated from standardised recipes using *my recipes*, a web based recipe and menu management tool that provides recipe costing, nutritional analysis and menu pricing.

When the nutritional information was added, only the starter or entrée course showed one choice of approximately half the energy value of the other two choices, that is an obviously more healthy choice. A vegetarian salad with feta totalled 368 calories, 1540 kilojoules and 15% RDI, as compared to a soup that totalled 735 cal, 3078 kJ, 31% RDI, and a beef and vegetable dish with pancakes that totalled 862 cal, 3609kJ, 36% RDI. It was also noted that a diner who chose the lowest energy option for every course (starter, main and dessert) would still be consuming 89% of the RDI in this one meal. This observation in a fine dining training restaurant aligns with the findings of Burton, Creyer, Kees, and Huggins (2006) and Eskin and Hermanson (2004) that restaurant food is comparatively high in energy, although they referred to chain and fast-food restaurants.

A survey was used as a tool for collecting primary data from diners in both phases. Its design was brief and simple with a single question, in an effort not to intrude unduly on the participants' dining-out experience, even though training restaurant diners would expect to give feedback as part of their dining experience. The first survey asked:

*If nutritional information (e.g. calories and recommended daily intake) were provided against each menu item, would this influence your selection?*

The second survey asked:

*Did the nutritional information provided on the menu influence your selection?*

All participants were also asked for comments to add to their Yes or No response.

Staff members in the restaurant were informed about the study and were willing to administer the surveys. At the end of the meal service wait staff took a survey to each table of up to four diners and recorded responses. Detailed information was collected on all diners' menu choices during both phases of the experiment.

The response rate to the surveys was high. During the first phase, only one diner did not complete the survey, giving a response rate of 97.9% (47 diners). In phase two the response rate was 97.3% (142 diners). Diner numbers were lower in phase one



because lack of bookings meant one sitting was cancelled. The positive effect of keeping the survey tool brief and simple, along with administration by wait staff at each table, would seem to be borne out by the high response rate achieved.

In phase one 33% of respondents said that it would make a difference to their menu choices if they could see calorie values on the menu. However, in phase two, when calorie values were printed alongside each menu item, only 11% of respondents said that the calorie values influenced their menu choices. Interestingly, the total average calories consumed by each diner in phase one (2482) was almost the same as that consumed by each diner in phase two (2494).

In phase one, 17% (8 respondents) added comments to their survey. In phase two, 16% (23 respondents) added comments. In phase one, 87.5% (7 out of 8) of the comments were against the calorie values being added. They generally felt this information would detract from their dining experience. For example one respondent commented, "When I come out to dine, I come for the experience, not the calorie count."

Of the 23 comments from phase two, 40% (9) of the comments were negative about the calorie information provided; 30% (7) were positive about it, while the remaining 30% (7) made comments that did not relate to the calorie values, or that said they could not find the nutritional information on the menu.

The above results agree with McCabe's (2006) Canadian findings that the majority of her respondents (75%) dined in casual restaurants for "enjoyment" (p. 38). The next most popular reason, "saves time", was significantly behind at 38% (p. 38). There were five options for this question, and 511 respondents to the survey (McCabe, 2006). When asked what influenced their meal choice, "taste" was the majority choice (57%), followed by "cost" (20%), and "nutritional content" (19%) (p. 39). Both the current study and McCabe's (2006) show that only a minority of participants were interested in healthy eating.

One of the objectives of Potter and Williams's (1996) study, "to understand the factors which determine the food choices made in restaurants" relates to the current study (p. 44). The Australian researchers used five focus groups to gather their data, with a total of 28 participants. Their definition of a restaurant seems to relate to what would be termed fine dining in New Zealand, that is, "those eating establishments licensed to sell alcohol or allow its consumption, and having an à-la-carte menu." (p. 45). They also considered take-away food and café outlets.

These researchers found that their participants were price-sensitive. This seemed to be the main factor involved in choosing a restaurant and menu items. Similar to the current study's results, the Australian participants felt that eating out was an "occasion, where enjoyment was more important than eating wisely." (p. 48). Some of their young female participants were more focused on avoiding known "unhealthy" foods than on being attracted to "healthy" foods, and confessed to being "guided by guilt" (p. 48).

Many other factors potentially influence consumer decisions and menu choices in restaurants. O'Mahony and Hall (2007) examined the impact of sociocultural conditioning and the influence of media on perceived body image and how this influences food choices. Concern for physical appearance was found to be a major factor for their sample of women aged between 18 and 30 years. Their recommendations for the restaurant industry included specifically targeting this group with healthy options and nutritional information on the menu including calorie and fat content. Baltas's (2001) research found that diners may not understand nutritional information such as the recommended daily intake. This could explain some of the negative comments on the surveys from phase two.

Despite the introduction of nutritional labelling in fast food chains in the United States, there is still debate as to whether this labelling strategy will be effective or not (Spencer & Wang, 2010). The research conducted at Mellors did not provide overwhelming support for nutritional information to be on fine dining menus.

Whether the participants had calorie information available or not, or whether they appreciated it or not, seemed to make little difference to their menu choices as the average total calorie consumption for each diner was very similar (2482 in phase one and 2494 in phase two). However as already noted, only one course provided a significantly lower calorie value than the other choices in both phases.

Nutritional labelling on restaurant menus is a contentious issue. The rationale for making it compulsory is that it will provide necessary information to enable consumers to make healthier choices. However, it is unclear that this will result in changes in behaviour and ultimately an improvement in public health and a decrease in the incidence of chronic diseases associated with obesity. Barriers include, among other things, a lack of nutritional intelligence. In other words consumers lack the ability to accurately interpret the information provided by nutritional labelling. This may be exacerbated by the difficulty in standardising concepts like 'recommended caloric intake'. An easy-to-understand food labelling system presented in a standard format giving a holistic view of the nutritional value of food items (may be more helpful. The restaurant industry also has reservations about the costs, practicality and accuracy of nutritional labels. Restaurant meals are often complex and when standardised recipes are available they may not always be followed; menus change frequently; and diners often request modifications to menu items.

While there is little research on how food labels will influence consumer behaviour there are, however, some compelling arguments for adopting them. People do use nutritional labels on food products to make informed decisions and there is a link between food labels and eating more healthful diets. When nutritional labelling on food products was introduced it was not driven by consumer demand but now it is considered consumers have a right to know this information. Studies from the US also show that consumers want nutritional information in restaurants – at the point of decision making. Arguably it is difficult to educate people about nutrition and for them to make better choices

without this information. Already there is evidence from the US, where menu labelling laws have been introduced, that some restaurants have responded by modifying particularly unhealthy menu items and reducing portion sizes. Another positive outcome is increased consumer awareness that food consumed outside the home is likely to be higher in calories than home-prepared meals.

New Zealand is following U.S. trends, in both obesity statistics and an increase in the number of meals consumed outside the home. Policy makers, consumer advocates and the restaurant industry will be watching the impact of legislation requiring restaurants to display nutritional information on menus, and how this may result in changes in consumer behaviour. The restaurant industry may not necessarily have a role to play in improving the health of the nation.

This pilot study investigated the impact of nutritional information on menus on the attitudes and behaviour of restaurant customers. Multiple factors influence the selection of items from a menu, including socio-cultural factors and the role of the media. Nutritional literacy may be a key variable in making healthy choices when dining out.

Further research identifying and investigating these variables would provide useful information for the restaurant industry, public health analysts and policy makers. Nutritional value is an emerging topic for research in the restaurant industry with implications for market segmentation and brand positioning. Menu labelling may present opportunities for competitive differentiation in this dynamic industry. The researchers plan for future rounds of the study to move this to a longitudinal study. Further research to explore the attitudes and behaviour of consumers towards the availability and usefulness of information incorporating healthy eating, food safety and sustainability criteria in restaurants will also be undertaken.

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# Educating Gen Y: The New Golden Age of Action Research

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## Abstract

Educating Generation Y in order to deal with change management in the new golden age of global business is more important than ever in terms of both tourism and management students alike. This extended abstract represents the preliminary results of the first action learning action research (ALAR) cycle and identifies the encouraging contribution to tourism and management students' commitment, enhanced by the application of Action Research. Revan's (1983) formula  $L = P + Q$  (Learning = Programmed [traditional] knowledge + Questioning) and his six phase (ALAR) methodology. One of the unambiguous objectives for the use of action learning in this undergraduate education setting was to enhance learning of both declarative and procedural knowledge by conceptualising a reflective methodological approach that facilitates inquiry, removes uncertainty, and enhances commitment which in turn increases learning for generation Y students.

**Key words:** Tourism Education, Action Research, Action Learning, Student Commitment, Generation Y, Higher Education

Generation Y tourism and management students appear to demonstrate a high level of enthusiasm and commitment toward their studies in the early part of their course, however this appears to decline rapidly as the pressures of life and work commitments encroach upon their studies. Many students have factors that detract from their ability to make commitment to their studies, with work and family being among the major distractions.

## Literature Review

The development of improved pedagogical methods is a key principal that comes from the engagement and nurturing of student learning (Ramsden, 2007); this cannot be achieved without student commitment. Action learning / Action research (ALAR) aims to encourage thriving, sustainable and beneficial transformations, through insightful

teaching practice. Commitment is maintained in an environment of “co-generative learning among all participants” (Merskin, 2010, p.250). Commitment can also be enhanced by academics who strive for a “processes of establishing communication and common understanding” with their students (Van Manen, 1977, p.105). Action learning and reflection by academics is aimed at achieving student commitment through the “enhancement of participation” and “empowerment”, through curriculum development related to learning activities (Smith and Lovat, 2006, p. ix). Professor Revan’s action learning / action research (ALAR) six step methodology, and his formula of  $L = P + Q$ , support experiential learning to resolve problems through questioning, which in turn empowers commitment. (Revan, 1983).

Leader behaviour and participative decision making encourages commitment (Glisson and Durick, 1988). While, age and gender as well as scope and ambiguity impacted upon commitment levels (Randall, 1993). In a similar vein, (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) found that women and the more mature were more committed, notwithstanding this; limited work has been identified in the area of student commitment. Student commitment has been defined as “a promise to do or give something; a promise to be loyal to something or someone; the attitude of someone who works very hard to do something” (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2011).

In a qualitative study of 67 post-graduate students in the USA gender played a role in student commitment and their likely completion (Ellis, 2001). In another study student’s relationship with their adviser was significant in 87% of responses while student commitment was “very important” in 62% of responses and “somewhat important” in 31% of responses (Green & Bauer, 1995, p.537).

A French study of master’s student commitment levels acknowledged that ambiguity leads to classroom chaos, thus, detracting from participation, satisfaction, and student commitment. French students require firm leadership and course direction (Petersen, 2011). Petersen (2011) also identified that student commitment is reflected through “impacts upon their work, the professor, the rewards, the potential for graduation, and fellow students” (p.5). Student commitment research has been aligned to academic principles, enthusiasm and effort. Petersen (2011) also found “perceived organizational effectiveness and commitment” with students desiring feedback and participation in order to enhance commitment (p.7). There is paucity of research in the area of undergraduate commitment.

## **Method**

This ALAR methodology has been structured around Revan’s (1983) six phase ARAL cycle. Phase one – *identify the problem*; phase two, *gather data* phase three, *interpret data* ; phase four, *act on evidence*; phase five, *evaluate results* – both quantitative and qualitative data; phase six, *next step* – plan second phase of the ALAR cycle.

## **Results and Discussion**

In phase one, *identify the problem* - literature revealed a paucity of data relating to undergraduate commitment. Commitment was enhanced by: communication and

common understanding (Van Manen, 1977); perceptive and firm leader behaviour (Petersen, 2011); feedback (Petersen, 2011); participative decision making (Gilsson and Durick, 1988) and removal of ambiguity (Randall, 1993).

Phase two, *gather data* – tourism and management students' were asked to complete an open ended survey instrument.

Phase three, *interpret data* – students identified both positive and negative contributors to study commitment (see Table 1).

**TABLE 1 Feedback from – Phase 2 – Planning - Identify the Problem – Questionnaire**

What are the things that would make it most difficult for you to make a commitment to this course?	What are the things that would make it easier for you to make a commitment in this course?	What do you expect from your lecturer?
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The amount and depth of reading required</li> <li>2. Too many assignments in this course and other</li> <li>3. Boring lectures and delayed lecture slides</li> <li>4. Other Commitments / family / work</li> <li>5. Adequate feedback</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Interesting lectures , less discussions in lectures, not asked questions in lectures</li> <li>2. Get slides on time</li> <li>3. Availability of lecturer / tutor to give assistance</li> <li>4. Commitment to assist with examples, discussions, answer questions, help where required</li> <li>5. Clearly defined tasks</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <b>Examples</b></li> <li>2. Understanding</li> <li>3. Relevant materials in lectures, real life examples.</li> <li>4. <b>Explanations of what is required</b></li> <li>5. Present requirements clearer.</li> </ol>

SOURCE: Developed for this paper

Phase four and five, *act on evidence* and *evaluate results*– Four tools were introduced to enhance commitment as a result of findings (see Table 1). Student commitment was measured in weeks six and eleven. Interventions were as follows: 1) Weekly activity sheets – removed task ambiguity with 79 percent of students nominating they were some help or above, this remained consistent from week six to eleven (see Figure 1); 2) Discuss examples – increased common understanding through questioning dialogue and feedback in 90 percent of students in line with (Marzano, R.J., Norford, J.S., Paynter, D.E., Pickering, D.J., & Gaddy, B.B., 2001) (see Figure 1); 3) Explain marking criteria – enabled students to question requirements; increased participatory decision making by 90 percent in week six and 100 percent by week eleven (see Figure 1); 4) Interactive case study analysis – used questioning improved from 68 percent in week six, to 100 percent by week eleven; (See Figure 1).

**FIGURE 1 Tutorial interventions and their impact from week 6 to week 11.**

	Discuss Example Assign.		Discuss Marking Criteria		Interactive Case Analysis		Tutorial Work Sheet	
	Week 6	Week 11	Week 6	Week 11	Week 6	Week 11	Week 6	Week 11
To a great extent	48%	34%	27%	22%	5%	22	26%	22%
To a lesser extent	26%	33%	37%	67%	42%	56	16%	45%
Was some help	16%	22%	26%	11%	21%	22	37%	11%
Limited help	5%	11%	5%	0%	32%	0	21%	11%
No Help at all	5%	0%	5%	0%	0%	0	0%	11%
	<b>90%</b>	<b>89%</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>68%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>79%</b>	<b>78%</b>

Source: Developed for this actions learning / action research project

Phase six, prepare for the next ALAR cycle.

### Conclusions and Recommendation

This extended abstract presents preliminary findings of the first ALAR cycle developed to enhance commitment with generation Y tourism and management students. It highlights the incremental benefits of using Revan's (1983) formula  $L = P + Q$  and his six phase ALAR methodology in the New Golden Age of Action Research with Gen Y.



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# From Place Attachment to Word-of-Mouth Behaviour: A Tourism Destination Perspective

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## **Abstract**

As a result of the development of web 2.0 and social media, user-generated content (UGC) is playing a more important role in influencing tourists' destination image creation, and further destination decision making. It is indicated that WOM communications are more credible than promotions or advertisements (Gremler, Gwinner, and Brown, 2001; Herr, Kardes, and Kim, 1991) and WOM can significantly affect tourists' destination choices (Gittleson and Crompton, 1984; Nolan, 1976; Simpson and Sigauw, 2008). Therefore, WOM or UGC generated by residents can possibly be more effective than that from other sources.

Concerning the role of residents in tourism development, a substantial volume of research on destination image considers local population to be an important part in fashioning this (Sainaghi, 2006; Hankinson, 2001; 2004; 2006; Blain, Levy, and Ritchie; 2005; Pike, 2005; 2009; Bornhorst, Ritchie, and Sheehan, 2009). This is because local people in a destination are experienced consumers who benefit from tourism by receiving economic assistance or by participating in activities within the destination (Choo and Park, 2009). Furthermore, destination brand is created by DMOs and destination stakeholders jointly, and destination stakeholders' performance can largely influence tourists' interpretation of the destination brand (Wagner, Peters, and Schuckert, 2009). Therefore, it is essential to understand how residents recognize, understand, and identify their place and what role they are playing in place branding, and further how their voluntary word-of-mouth behaviours are motivated and generated. Based on literature review from different subjects, this paper studies the nature of human-place relationship and further examines how the relationship can influence residents' word-of-mouth behaviour in tourism context, from a theoretical perspective.

## **Theoretical Development**

There are several different possible ways to describe and interpret the psychological connections between residents and their place brand based on different research streams: loyalty (from branding and service marketing theories), brand commitment

(from internal branding theories), organizational identification (from knowledge of social identity and organizational identification), and place attachment (from environmental psychology studies).

Combining the patterns or characteristics of each construct, a six-dimension place attachment is proposed to interpret the degree of human-place relationship: four evaluation based dimensions: *place identity*, *place dependence*, *affective attachment*, *social bonding*; and two interaction based dimensions: *interactional past* and *interaction potential*. Place identity is conceptualized in terms of the cognitive connection (Proshansky, 1978); place dependence is reflective of the conative component (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001); affective attachment is reflective of the effective component (Kyle, Graefe, & Manning, 2005); social bonding is equated with the affective component (Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001; Low & Altman, 1992; Mesch & Manor, 1998; Kyle, et al, 2005). Interactional past refers to the memories of interactions associated with a place while interactional potential refers to the future experiences perceived as likely to occur in a place (Milligan, 1998).

A conceptual model based on nature, antecedents, and consequences of the construct of place attachment is proposed to explore the psychological mechanisms by which place satisfaction, place attachment may influence residents' word-of-mouth behaviours, mainly positive word-of-mouth for a place as a destination.

### **Findings/Discussion**

The proposed model identifies two main phases in the formation of residents' attachment to the place and their citizenship behaviour to the place: (1) residents' internalization process; (2) residents' output process. In the internalization process, residents automatically transfer their evaluation of their resident place into their attachment to it. This transformation includes residents' identification of the place, further evaluation of their dependence on this place, as well as how they are emotionally bonded to the place. In the output process, residents voluntarily generated their word-of-mouth behaviours to sometimes consciously but mostly subconsciously assist promote the place as both a brand and a tourism destination.

### **Conclusion**

By proposing a conceptual model and designing relevant empirical studies to explain how residents perceive and form their attachment to a place, and how their word-of-mouth behaviours for this place as a destination are motivated, the study provides a better understanding of residents' roles in destination branding based on knowledge of branding, social psychology, environment psychology, consumer behaviour. The research explores the nature of the relationship between residents and their resident place, and analyses different constructs such as place attachment, place satisfaction, and their effects on word-of-mouth behaviour including one-to-one word-of-mouth, one-to-many word-of-mouth, and online review behaviours within a tourism context. Implications from this study shed light on how destination managers can understand the nature of residents' forming the relationship to the place and getting involved in

promoting place brand both consciously and subconsciously, and further develop effective strategies to motivate residents' word-of-mouth behaviours.

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# The Shock of the New – Visitor Experiences of Nascent Tourism in Colonial Victoria, 1834-1870

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## **Abstract**

This paper extends research by the author into the emergence of tourism in colonial Victoria and is part of ongoing research into understanding Victoria's 'tourism era of discovery'. Through examining various accounts of travelers to Victoria from 1834 until 1870 - which is generally regarded as the baseline of the commencement of international tourism to Australia - the paper is concerned with the processes of 'opening up' new locations and its focus is the discovery state of the development of tourism or what has been termed 'pretourism'. At its core, the paper is concerned with a fundamental set of questions: how does a tourist site come in to being? How does a tourist gaze emerge in a 'settler society'? How does an 'era of discovery' segue into 'tourism'? And, how was the tourist map of Victoria created by settler colonists? The Lal Lal Falls will serve as a case study.

**Key words:** Nascent Tourism, Settler Colonialism, Tourism History, Pretourism, The Picturesque

This paper extends research by the author (Clark 2002, 2006, 2010, 2011, *in press*; Clark & Cahir 2008; O'Mahoney & Clark *in press*) into the emergence of tourism in colonial Victoria and is part of ongoing research into understanding Victoria's 'tourism era of discovery' (Towner 1996: 140). Through examining various accounts of travelers to Victoria from 1834 until 1870 - which is generally regarded as the baseline of the commencement of international tourism to Australia (Davidson & Spearitt 2000) - the paper is concerned with the processes of 'opening up' new locations and its focus is the discovery state of the development of tourism or what Young (1983) has termed 'pretourism'. At its core, the paper is concerned with a fundamental set of questions: how does a tourist site come in to being? How does a tourist gaze emerge in a 'settler society'? How does an 'era of discovery' segue into 'tourism'? And, how was the tourist map of Victoria created by settler colonists? The lens for this research will be the Lal Lal Falls case study (Clark 2002).



The primary sources for this study will be published accounts of travel to Victoria during the nineteenth century. These accounts will enable observations of tourism and travel phenomena to be contrasted and allow geographical and temporal controls to be applied. Accounts from the 1830s and 1840s, for example, capture the nascent state of hospitality and travel as it is centered around squatting stations; the 1850s and 1860s show the evolution of an accommodation industry away from Melbourne and the improvement of transport infrastructure contrasted with the chaos caused by the gold rushes and the emergence of fledgling townships such as Ararat and Ballarat. The sources will be interrogated as journals or narratives that are a telling of the biography of the journey in ways similar to Carter's (1988) and Ryan's (1996) interrogations of the journals of Australian explorers.

Victoria's tourism era of discovery, here defined as 'nascent tourism' or 'pretourism' is a period that has generally been neglected in tourism histories in Australia. Nascent tourism, defined as the embryonic or emergent phase in which natural attractions are coming into being as the focus of tourist visitation, will be contextualized in various travel accounts that will be the basis of this study. Their primary value is that they should provide us with insights into Victoria's nascent tourism – we should be able to see the various places that were emerging as tourist sites in the colonial space. The transition or segue of 'discovery' to 'tourism' as captured in the classical tourism development models and concepts of Butler and MacCannell requires more analysis, especially the role of local landholders in generating 'nascent private tourism'. To narrow the focus, however, the study will revolve around visitation and tourism at one place, a waterfall on Lal Lal Creek.

### **Understanding the colonial settler gaze**

To understand the colonial settler gaze, it is necessary to understand the conventions or tropes that mediated it. The cultural milieu of the various travelers need to be contextualized, especially the prevailing paradigms or conventions of seeing, particularly the 'cult of the Sublime', the 'cult of the Gothic' (Ousby 2002), the picturesque and the panoramic (Ryan 1996). Renderings of the new world landscape in terms of old world paradigms, or the notion of pictorial colonization, should emerge in the various travel accounts. Furthermore, the role of settlers in mediating tourism, something I dubbed 'nascent private tourism' (Clark 2010) will be scrutinized – especially the scenic attractions and other places of interest that settlers, as hosts, showed their guests. In these settings, the settlers were themselves discoverers and explorers.

Henry Brown's (1862: 35) experience upon disembarking in Melbourne encapsulates the 'shock of the new' that confronted many travelers: 'I can truly say that I left the ship with a sigh of regret. It may be that the strangeness of all around made me cling instinctively to something that had been in England, and to which I was accustomed, but I have since learnt that there are few who leave a vessel, where they have been comfortable, without similar feelings'. Richard Howitt (1845: 168) also discussed the problems emigrants faced in new colonies, something he described as 'home-return-anxiety', where emigrants are personally 'abroad, but mentally at home; living, moving,

and having their existence amongst friends and kindred'. Kinahan Cornwallis (1859: 33f) confirmed that first impressions were often incorrect: 'The beauties of Australia have been frequently painted in the brightest and most inviting of hues, and I had read those pleasant book pictures before my embarkation from England; but instead of the beautiful, I had as yet only experienced the wretched, and on this, my first night in Australia ... After experience however proved to me that Australia abounded less in shadow than in sunshine, and that my first experiences of the country were the first'. Richard Twopeny (1870: 1) counseled his readers that 'In one sense the visitor is disappointed with his first day in an Australian city. The novelties and differences from the Old Country do not strike him nearly so much as the resemblances. It is only as he gets to know the place better that he begins to notice the differences. The first prevailing impression is that a slice of Liverpool has been bodily transplanted to the Antipodes, that you must have landed in England again by mistake, and it is only by degrees that you begin to see that the resemblance is more superficial than real'.

Several travelers considered Victoria to be very English. Ludovic Marquis de Beauvoir (1870: 19, 30), for example, was struck by the Englishness of Victoria and although he believed it was 'a good thing to arrive at a place without any preconceived notions or prejudices, to wait for and seize upon first impressions, though very likely ripener experience may change one's opinion', 'since I have landed it has struck me that the local tone of the country consists precisely in being no local tone at all, and that the colony, contrary to custom, resembles the mother country in a very unusual manner'. Samuel Smiles (1880: 179) who spent 18 months working as an accountant at Majorca during 1868-9, considered life in Victoria was very much like life in England. There are the same people, the same callings, the same pleasures and pursuits ... Indeed, Victoria is only another England, with a difference, at the Antipodes. The character, the habits of life, and tone of thought of the people, are essentially English'. Charles Carter (1870: 188) was struck with the English appearance of the country on both sides of the railway, at Malmesbury [sic], Kyneton, Woodend, all about Mount Macedon'. Mossman and Banister (1853: 62) considered the 'open forest-lands' of Victoria 'have very much the appearance of Hyde Park and Kensington Gardens'.

But Clara Aspinall (1862: 162) did not share their opinion and considered that Australian scenery 'cannot certainly bear comparison with British scenery; at the same time, I must add that I have seen some very pretty spots, and some very fine views in Australia; but whenever this happened to me, my first exclamation always was, "How very lovely! How very English!" Generally speaking, there is a monotony in the scenery of Australia which is wearisome to the eye. ... There is one want in Australia, which must always be felt in a new country by the traveler who is in search of the picturesque: namely, the want of scenes, ruins, or edifices hallowed by a sense of antiquity'. Robert Henderson (1911), an evangelist in Australia, concurred with Aspinall: 'Face to face with a new country and new conditions, I soon saw that, with the exception of a few centres of population and scattered villages, a mere handful of people were in possession of a vast Island-Continent, consisting of great flock-masters and their shepherds, of farmers and gold-diggers, who had taken over the hunting grounds of the Aborigines, and were driving them into the interior and decimating them. In vain you looked for venerable

cathedrals, baronial halls, old castles, famous battlefields, Druidical remains, or ancient history. Everything was new, and in the interior, wild and primitive. The only thing that could boast of antiquity was the black man, the native of the soil' (Henderson 1911: 149). However, Christopher Hodgson (1846: 174) whose interests were botanical and geological, did not share Aspinall's or Henderson's opinions, and considered that 'Australia to the geologist is a truly interesting and wonderful country; unfolding new mysteries every day, and leaving simple man to revel in the midst of wonder, uncertainty and amazement'. Among these geological interests are waterfalls.

The aesthetic appreciation of waterfalls and the spectacles they offer is a landscape taste that has existed in some cultures for over two thousand years (Hudson 1998: 959). Waterfalls are not ubiquitous and Hudson (1998: 959) has suggested that as tourism resources, along with other natural curiosities such as caves, geysers, and glaciers, they have been neglected in the tourism literature. This paper will focus on the evolution of tourism at one such waterfall in Victoria, Lal Lal Falls, one of two falls found on Lal Lal Creek, a tributary of the Moorabool River, and situated three kilometers east of Lal Lal township, and some 25 km from Ballarat.

### **Case Study: Lal Lal Falls**

The author (Clark 2002) has shown how Lal Lal Falls evolved through the various developmental stages identified by MacCannell (1976) and has situated the attraction's history and spatial structure into the context of Butler's (1980) and Gunn's (1994) models. However, what is missing from that study is any particular focus on the agents that generated the tourism activity and were responsible for the evolution of the attraction particularly to its 'framing and elevation stage'. Insights into tourism agency should emerge through reviewing and considering the early history of the site.

Europeans are thought to have first learned of the existence of the falls in August 1837 when Frederick d'Arcy, Government Surveyor, was working with his party on the upper reaches of the Leigh and Moorabool rivers, and was told of the falls by local Aborigines, presumably Wathawurrung people (Griffiths 1988:1). D'Arcy was among a party of squatters from the Geelong region<sup>1</sup> in August 1837 that was formed with the purpose of exploring the Buninyong district. They visited the Lal Lal Falls, only to find it was not running owing to the dryness of the season. George Russell, one of the participants, explained the context of the visit to the falls:

[In early spring of 1837 one of the government surveyors Frederick d'Arcy, who was sent to the Geelong district to survey the principal rivers and creeks and note remarkable objects] received information from the natives about a fine waterfall at the upper part of the Moorabool River, which the natives called Lal Lal. A party was made up in order to visit this waterfall and explore a little of the country round it ... By arrangements we all met at Mr Anderson's hut one evening, near Russell's Bridge, where we stopped for the night; and we started for Mr d'Arcy's camp.

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<sup>1</sup> The party included Dr Alexander Thomson, George Russell, David Fisher, Captain Hutton, Thomas Learmonth, and Henry Anderson and an Aboriginal guide possibly named 'Darriwill' (see Macqueen 2010: 111f).

We got on his dray-tracks, and after passing where Meredith is now situated arrived at the camp during the afternoon, and spent the night there. Mr d'Arcy having had an extra tent pitched for us. After an early breakfast we started for the falls, Mr d'Arcy having given his men orders to strike the tents, to put them and everything else on the dray, and proceed to Mount Buninyong, which was in sight of the camp, there to wait at the foot of the mount until we joined them.

After leaving camp we kept pretty close to the Moorabool river, following it up and passing through some rather thickly wooded and rangy country, reaching the falls about midday. But there was no waterfall. Owing to the dryness of the season the water had not commenced to run in the Moorabool, although it was late as the month of August. All that we saw was a steep precipitous rock, about eighty feet in height. I have since heard that the waterfall is worth seeing when the river is full (Brown 1935: 158).<sup>2</sup>

This discovery and visit in August 1837 by at least seven Europeans suggests that these seven may potentially serve as the agency of the spread of news about the waterfall's existence. The fact that it was not running when they visited, but they considered it worth seeing when the water was flowing, may have led to revisits by some of the individuals of this party, though there is no evidence for this. Qualifying the spread of information, however, is the local Ballarat newspaper editorial of 1857 (see below) that reports that the falls were not well known; so there appears to have been minimal word of mouth recommendation of its existence. Once the falls were incorporated into a pastoral lease, visitation appears to have been mediated by the lessee. The Lal Lal Falls formed part of Hugh Blakeney's and Charles Ayrey's Lal Lal Pastoral Run that they took up in early 1840. In 1843, Peter Inglis purchased the Lal Lal lease.<sup>3</sup> From 1846, Archibald Fiskin, Inglis' nephew, was given the management of Lal Lal, and eventually took ownership in 1854.

The falls were visited on 8 March 1840, by the Chief Protector of Aborigines, George Augustus Robinson, and Assistant Protector, Edward Stone Parker, public officers of the department of the Port Phillip Aboriginal Protectorate. Robinson and Parker had spent the previous night at Charles Ayrey's and Hugh Blackney's Lal Lal station. Robinson, in his journal, advised that Ayrey had told him about the falls during the evening and that he guided them to the waterfall. This confirms that Ayrey is the agency through which the falls became the focus of Robinson's and Parker's visitation.

Robinson's account of his visit to the falls provides some confirmation that the name Lal Lal is not a local name, as implied by Withers. Robinson recorded names for Lal Lal

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<sup>2</sup> Withers claimed that 'Before Mr Pettett took up the Dowling Forest run he was living at the Little River, and a native chief named Balliang offered to show him the country about Lal Lal. The chief in speaking of it distinguished between it and the Little River by describing the water as La-al La-al – the a long – and by gesturing indicating the water-fall now so well known, the name signifying falling water' (Withers 1870: 4). William Pettett was superintending at 'Dowling Forest' at Lake Learmonth for WJT Clarke from 1838. The d'Arcy version is sourced from one of the participants (George Russell); the source for Withers' account is unknown.

<sup>3</sup> According to Billis and Kenyon (1974), John Whitehall Stevens was lease holder from 1845-6; though there are no references to this in local histories.

Creek and names for both of the falls found on the creek. Robinson's journal account of his visit is as follows:

Sunday 8 March 1840: A.M. Went with Mr Airey to see the fall of the western branch of the Marrabul, which Mr Airey informed me of the evening previous, about half of a mile from Mr Airey's residence. This is the finest fall I have yet seen in the country. It falls a depth of 80 feet. The rock is basalt, the best formation I have seen in this province being pentagonal and distinctly marked. The sides of the ravine, as well as the head which forms the fall, are perpendicular; the S. side is concave, whilst the N. is short. The fall is quite abrupt. The channel along which the water from the surrounding country is brought to the fall is shallow, a mere hollow in the surface from which in wet season a considerable body of water discharges itself to the depth of 80 feet over the precipitous cliff which forms the head of the ravine. And then over a rapid a few hundred yards lower down. This fall in wet seasons must be magnificent. The water, from the dryness of the season, had ceased running at the time I visited it. A large hollow or bason a few yards from the base of the fall into which the water fell was even then full. Several stones was rolled from the top of the cliff, dashing with great force, the sound of which, for several seconds, made a great noise. From the falls downwards, this, the western branch of the Marrabul, had worked its way to a depth of several hundred feet and continued to spread wider and wider in its course downwards until it reaches a width of several hundred yards.

The native name for this fall is Wor.ing.gan.nin.yoke. Nan.den: the little fall. ... Mr Airy walked round the head of the falls to point on the banks fronting the falls which is the best point for a sketch. Pun.in.yong would then be seen in distance. Mr Airy said he would make the sketch for me and send it down (Clark 2000a:199).

Robinson had recorded Woringganninyoke as the name of the Lal Lal Falls, and Nanden as the name of the little fall, presumably a reference to the much smaller fall upstream. Lal Lal Creek was recorded as Yarkmyowing by Robinson. These names would seem to confirm that Lal Lal is a generic Wathawurrung name for waterfall.

Although Robinson does not discuss the cultural associations of the site, Parker alluded to the existence of an Aboriginal legend in an article published in the *Port Phillip Herald* after the March visit.<sup>4</sup> This article was republished in Braim's (1846) history of New South Wales. Parker wrote, 'Other traditions exist among them referring to the origin of certain natural objects. Thus they believe in the existence of another mythological being called Bonjil or Pundyil, who, however, is said to have been once a "black fellow", and a remarkable locality is indicated as his residence when on earth. This is the deep and basaltic glen or hollow, forming the fall of "Lallal" on the Marrabool, near Mr Airey's<sup>5</sup> Station. He is now represented as dwelling in the sky, and it is curious that they call the planet Jupiter "Pundyil", and say it is the light of his fire.

<sup>4</sup> Robinson listed *Port Phillip Gazette*. The *Port Phillip Herald* article was reprinted in the *Morning Chronicle* (Sydney) on 8 February 1845.

<sup>5</sup> According to Billis and Kenyon's (1974) register of pastoral holdings, Robinson and Parker confused Lieutenant John Moore Cole Airey, at 'Happy Valley' in 1839-53, with Charles Ayrey who was with Hugh Blakeney at 'Lal Lal' during 1840-41; however, Withers (1870:5) and Griffiths (1988: 5) identified Blakeney with George Airey, the brother of Lieut. Airey.

This Pundyl is said to have found a single kangaroo, emu, and other animals on earth: that he caught them, cut them up, and by some mysterious power, made each piece into a new kangaroo, &c., and that hence the country was filled with these animals (Braithwaite 1846 vol. 2: 444-445).

Robinson confirmed the connection with Bundjil when he visited the site a second time, on 7 August 1846, and this time the creek was flowing and water was falling. On this occasion Robinson did not stay at the Lal Lal station and he went to the falls without any guidance from local squatters, however, he was accompanied by a Djadjawurrung man named Merrigundidj who joined Robinson at the Mt Franklin protectorate station on 11 April 1846, and travelled with him from then until 8 August 1846, when he returned to the Loddon station. Robinson, Merrigundidj, and a border policeman named Patrick Farrell, went down the Murray River to Tyntynder station at Swan Hill and from there into South Australia where they visited the copper mines at Kapunda, the Native School in Adelaide, and returned to Port Phillip via Encounter Bay and Rivoli Bay and the Mount Rouse Protectorate station:

Visited the falls of Lal Lal, one which forms the gap large and the other part falls a height of [blank] width of [blank], was in all its glory worth seeing basaltic column rapid down another glen runs to it. I saw trees tall and numerous. Deep glen, I went half down to have view. ... Natives call it Punjil, so Merryonedeeet says, said [blank] belonged to it, was at Buninyong camp (Clark 2000b:108).

The name Bungal, a variant of Bundjil, is found locally in the name of the Bungal pastoral Run adjoining the Lal Lal station on the east, and also in Bungal Dam. This is also the second waterfall in Victoria, thought to have been named after Bundjil. The other is the Wannon Falls, known as Bung Bundjil, and the local clan was named 'Bung Bundjil gundidj' (Clark 1990; Clark and Heydon 2002). Bunjil was also associated with a third cave, one at Mt Schanck. Howitt (1845) and Bonwick (1863) both discuss this cave:

On this beach is the most remarkable natural cavern yet discovered in Australia Felix. ... Altogether it is a wonderful cave. There is also as singular a tradition about it. As Pungil, the god of the aborigines, say the natives, was one day taking a walk on the sea, suddenly there came on a storm; when coming to the rocky shore, he spoke to it, and immediately, at his word, the rocks rose up, and this cave was fashioned before him. Into it the god stepped, and sheltered until the tempest was over (Howitt 1845: 147-8).

James Bonwick (1863: 54), in discussing the Cape Schanck cave, also discussed Bundjil's residence at Lal Lal Falls:

At Cape Schanck, of Western Port, a cave is pointed out from which Pundyl or Bin-Beal used to take his walks beside the sea. He was accustomed when upon earth to frequent other caves, chasms, or dark places. Deep basaltic glens were favourite homes. We are well acquainted with one of these assumed divine residences situated in a romantic volcanic rent some fifteen miles from Ballarat, through which the river

passes after rolling down the Lal Lal falls. The planet Jupiter shines by the light of his camp fire in the heavens, whither he has now retired.

Parker's 1840 publication of the Aboriginal cultural associations surrounding Lal Lal Falls, and its republication in 1845 and 1846 should have ensured that information about the falls and its significance would be distributed wider than local squatters and their employees, and yet a survey of accounts of travellers to the district reveals that this does not appear to have occurred. There are 16 accounts from travellers who visited the Ballarat district in the 1850s and 1860s and yet of these only three (Clacy 1853; D'Ewes 1857; Snell 1988) discuss the falls and only two directly visited them (D'Ewes 1857; Snell 1988).<sup>6</sup>

Ellen Clacy (1853: 133), learned of the existence of the falls during an 1852 visit to the Ballarat goldfields, but failed to visit them.

The country round Ballarat is more in the North American style, and when the creek is full, it is a fine sight greatly resembling, I have heard, one of the smaller rivers in Canada; in fact, the scenery round Ballarat is said to approach more to Upper Canada than any in the colony. The rocks, although not high, are in places very bold and romantic, and in the wet season there are several water-falls in the neighbourhood (Clacy 1853: 133).

John D'Ewes visited the Lal Lal Falls in August 1853 during a three-month *locum tenens* appointment as Police Magistrate at Ballarat.<sup>7</sup> During this time he took the opportunity to make excursions into the surrounding countryside 'in search of picturesque scenery or sports, or the two combined' (D'Ewes 1857: 49). With reference to the falls, he wrote:

On the banks of a stream, was situated the pretty station of Lallal, belonging to a Mr. F...N,<sup>8</sup> a thriving and hospitable squatter; near this station was a celebrated waterfall, which, in point of picturesque beauty, for its size, surpassed any I ever met with. The width of the first fall was not above 100 feet, with a sheer perpendicular descent of the same extent. The granite formation on each side was exquisitely beautiful, and so varied and delicate in its shapes and tracery that it might have passed for the handywork of some skilful artificer, as indeed it was, and the greatest of all – Nature! From this fall a succession of similar cascades appeared in a long vista, with an intervening space of several hundred yards between each, as far as the eye could reach. The deep clear basin at the bottom of each fall was full of a peculiar description of eel, some of enormous size, and weighing as much as ten pounds. On my first visit to this place I managed to scramble down the rocks with some rough fishing tackle, for

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<sup>6</sup> These are: De Beauvoir 1870; Carter 1870; Clacy 1853; Dilke 1869; D'Ewes 1857; Frere 1870; Howitt 1855; Jobson 1862; Kelly 1859; Meredith 1861; Minturn 1858; Smiles 1880; Snell 1988; Wathen 1855; Welles 1859; Westwood 1865. The Snell journal reference remained unpublished until 1988.

<sup>7</sup> D'Ewes was appointed permanent police magistrate in Ballarat on 1 January 1854; he held the position until he was dismissed in November 1854.

<sup>8</sup> Archibald Fiskien, manager at Lal Lal for his uncle Peter Inglis, 1847-50; then licensee from 1850 onwards. The Lal Lal run, 18,313 acres, was first taken up by JW Stevens in 1845; Inglis took over the lease in October 1846.

the purpose of procuring a dish of the eels in question, and adventure attended with some danger on account of the snakes that infest this country ... (D'Ewes 1857: 56-7).

Engineer Edward Snell visited Lal Lal Falls on 12 November 1855, and recorded the following account in his journal:

We had some luncheon at the Corduroy Bridge Hotel (the last 5 miles by the bye was over a plank road,) and then we struck off into the bush, steering North East for Lal Lal falls. We made the Lal Lal Creek 2 miles above the falls owing to our not getting the exact compass bearing and then tracked the Creek down until we came to the falls. I made a sketch of them from the top and afterwards descended into the ravine where we sat down, had dinner, grog, and a smoke and I sketched the view on the opposite page. We then visited the Little Falls on a creek about a mile further on and after a smoke and more grog started for Egerton ... (Snell 1988: 360).

Snell arrived in Australia in 1849, and it is not possible to determine how he knew of the falls, perhaps he was told about them at the Corduroy Bridge Hotel, at what is now Clarendon, or he knew of them through Parker's or Braim's publications, nevertheless the directions he was given were somewhat vague and he and his party overshot them and had to travel down the creek to locate them.

The falls have been associated with prominent artists and photographers, including the German romantic colonial artist Eugen von Guerard who drew the falls in 1858, and the Daintree photograph reproduced in Smyth (1869), and the Richard Ledger photograph taken some time after 1870.<sup>9</sup> These are all examples of the influence of art on developing aesthetic tastes for landscape. Von Guerard's drawing 'Fall of the Lallal Creek' is based on scenes he had sketched during 1853 and 1854 when he was gold mining in the Ballarat district (Tipping 1982:10). Tipping (1982:10) claimed that von Guerard was attracted to places such as Lal Lal Falls because they 'relieved the monotony of the basalt plains' and 'symbolised the violent and eroded forces of nature that had created them'<sup>10</sup>. In the 1850s, the demand for black-and-white art was significant, and the Lal Lal Falls drawing is one of several landscapes that were reproduced by wood engraving. The *Illustrated Melbourne News* on 16 January 1858 reproduced the drawing from wood engraving. Von Guerard compiled a portfolio of sketches and newspaper cuttings, which included the Lal Lal Falls reproduction, and named it *Australien Reminisunzen*; it is now in the Mitchell Library in Sydney (Bruce 1980).

The second phase identified by MacCannell (1976) in the evolution of attractions is 'framing and elevation' which he argued results from an increase in visitation, when demand requires some form of management intervention, whereby the sight is displayed more prominently and framed off. In the case of Lal Lal Falls this phase began in 1865 and ended with the construction of the Lal Lal to Lal Lal Racecourse railway branch line in 1885. The reservation of the site in 1865 ensured that the falls

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<sup>9</sup> Other photographs may be found in the National Library of Australia – see [www.nla.gov.au](http://www.nla.gov.au).

<sup>10</sup> Other waterfalls sketched and painted by von Guerard include Strath Creek Falls, The Weatherboard Falls, Clyde Fall, Moorabool Falls, and Wannon Falls.



would not be damaged by incompatible land uses or allow them to encroach upon the nucleus and compromise the visual entrance to the falls. This period also correlates with Butler's 'involvement' stage, which is characterised by an increase in tourist visitation and the emergence of an incipient tourism industry developing around the destination.

In 1857, freehold land at the Lal Lal Falls became available as the government brought it up for auction. Section 8 of the surveyed section contained both the Moorabool and Lal Lal falls. *The Star*, a local Ballarat paper, in an editorial dated 19 September 1857 brought the sale to its readers' attention, but the opening line reveals that local awareness of the falls was not widespread.

Probably few of our readers are aware that within ten or twelve miles of the township of Ballarat, there are two fine waterfalls, one of which from its picturesque beauty and its great height would not be unworthy of attention even in the best parts of the Scottish Highlands. These falls, the Lal Lal and the Moorabool, are situated in a beautifully undulating and finely timbered country on the south-eastern base of Warrenheep, from and around which mount, the streams which form them take their rise.

The editor did not begrudge Archibald Fisker receiving a fair compensation for the various improvements he had made to the section being sold.

But, however, the question of how the area of the lot (537 acres) may be ultimately disposed, the Government should at once withdraw it from the present sale for the purpose of resurveying them, and of preserving to the public the beautiful waterfalls we have alluded to, as well as the extensive water frontages that by the present plan would in the event of a sale be forever alienated.

The following week *The Star* (26/9/1857) increased the pressure to set aside the Lal Lal Falls when it published this account of a visit to the waterfall:

A traveller sends us the following description of these beautiful falls: On coming forward to a view of the Lal Lal Falls, which from the flatness of the country is done all at once, the eye suddenly beholds a cascade of water rushing over a precipice of rock 110 feet perpendicular height, into a ravine, lined on both sides near the top with basaltic columns, identical with what are to be seen at the Giant's Causeway in Ireland, and at Staffa and Iona in Scotland; in every way shaped the same, being irregular polygons with from three to eight sides, set into each other with convex and concave joints and all standing perpendicular. From having seen these natural curiosities in the old country, which thousands visit annually from all parts of the world, it may be easily supposed that never having read of, or heard described the scenery of Lal Lal, that when I first saw these Pillars, I was struck with astonishment and wonder at the similarity; particularly when it is considered that the places are distant from each other 14,000 miles, I felt as if I had suddenly been brought in contact with old and familiar faces. But to return to your editorial remarks of 19<sup>th</sup> inst., I would beg leave to suggest, that when the Government do sell the adjacent lands, that they bind the purchasers to leave open roads through them to the Falls, so as the lovers of natural scenery may be able to ride, drive, or walk from Ballarat, Buninyong, Corduroy, and Mount Egerton

(from which places the Falls are about equi-distant), without let or hindrance from the fortunate possessors of that part which surrounds decidedly the finest scenery and the greatest natural curiosities in this part of the Colony of Victoria.

There is little doubt that the primary motivation in seeking the preservation of the Lal Lal Falls was its aesthetic value – the scenery of its landscape – and in this the moves to reserve them paralleled moves in North America to preserve wilderness in places such as Yosemite, Yellowstone, and Niagara Falls (Towner 1996: 160). *The Australian News for Home Readers* (25 July 1864) even went so far as to suggest the falls were a miniature Niagara:

These falls, which are situated in a wooded country near Ballaarat, form the prettiest water scene the locality can boast. The watercourse is suddenly broken by a precipitate fall of the earth, almost as perpendicular as a wall. The water leaps down a great number of feet, forming a miniature representation of Niagara. The falls are a favourite resort for picnic parties, the surrounding country presenting many picturesque points, and they are usually visited by strangers among the other “lions” of the Ballaarat district.

The Government withdrew the Lal Lal Falls section from public sale, and 200 acres (90 hectare) were permanently reserved as the ‘Lal Lal Park’ in 1865.<sup>11</sup> Its formal name is ‘Lal Lal Falls Scenic Reserve’. The purpose of scenic reserves is to preserve scenic features and lookouts of particular significance (Land Conservation Council 1980). An adjacent reserve known as the ‘Racecourse Reserve’, to the south of the Scenic Reserve, has been temporarily reserved as a possible car-park extension (Victorian Government Gazette 1969:1823). The Lal Lal railway station was constructed in 1862, and the *Ballarat Star* (26/4/1862) questioned its purpose, although it considered it ‘may prove however to be useful to picnic parties during the summer months’. Annual races were first held at the Lal Lal Racecourse Reserve in 1864.

## Conclusion

This paper is part of larger research project into the history of tourism in colonial Victoria, Australia, from 1834 -1870, and is concerned with a fundamental set of questions: how does a tourist site come in to being? How does a tourist gaze emerge in a ‘settler society’? How does an ‘era of discovery’ segue into ‘tourism’? And, how was the tourist map of Victoria created by settler colonists? An attempt has been made to contribute to these questions through revisiting an earlier case study into the history of tourism at Lal Lal Falls. An argument is emerging that the tourist gaze in colonial Victoria was essentially mediated by Old World paradigms such as the picturesque. These sensibilities were shaping the gaze of British colonists and travellers and the Victorian landscape was seen through Old World lens.

The question of how a tourist site is created from what was effectively a blank tourism landscape requires further study for, as this study of visitation at Lal Lal Falls has

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<sup>11</sup> Norman (1984:2) states the reserve was proclaimed in 1877 (Victorian Government Gazette 1877: 1652).

shown, it is too simplistic to attribute the development of tourism at a particular site to the agency of local landholders. The local squatters or pastoral lessees of Lal Lal Falls, although they were the agency for initial visitation, do not appear to have been the locus of causality of its evolution into a mature attraction, or what MacCannell has understood as the framing and elevation stage of his evolutionary model. This locus appears to have rested with the local community led by a local newspaper, *The Star*, which sought to ensure the attraction did not become private property in 1856 when the State Government was considering its sale. Its permanent reservation in 1865 as a scenic reserve ensured that it would become the focus of significant tourism. More research is required to determine the degree to which the processes behind the creation of tourism at Lal Lal Falls were consistent with the evolution of tourism at other significant natural places in Victoria, such as Hanging Rock, Tower Hill, Mount Macedon, and Buchan Caves. It may well be the case that although local landholders were not instrumental in the evolution of tourism at Lal Lal Falls, with other natural attractions they may have been at the forefront of their framing and elevation.

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# The Development of Responsible Tourism Practices in Mongolia through Social and Cultural Interactions

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## **Abstract**

People think of beautiful sceneries, soft bed in a hotel, warm and friendly local people during their holidays. Mongolia a vast land and rich in heritage has these requirements offered in the travel product. Travel guides talk how to get to Mongolia and what to do in Mongolia. No one has ever written of how tourists relate with the locals during the trip or holidays.

Being a Tourism and Hospitality lecturer who worked in Ulaanbaatar for more than a year, it has been a hot issue among us foreign educators whilst in Mongolia, its unstable tourists arrivals for the past 6 years. Socio cultural problems have been highlighted in this study in relation to the status of country's tourism. Crimes and unskilled manpower are among the most popular causes of the slow growth of tourism despite the fact that the country has abundance in wildlife and heritage. The study explores the role of Social Interactions of local community and the tourists in Mongolia and culture as a catalyst to develop responsible tourism practices.

Recommendations discussed are on how training programs should be implemented to equip the unskilled manpower. Security issues are best resolved by eradicating poverty through Millennium and Development Goals of UN and keeping an active peace and order units throughout the country.





(On top) Chinggis Khan monument in Ulaanbaatar Square is a famous tourist attraction.



The GER, a traditional Mongolian house made of wood with cloth in the exterior is another attraction of the country.







The costumes must meet the most different situations of life, whether, for example, somebody is riding on horseback over the steppe, whether he is sitting at home in his yurt (felt tent), or whether he is dancing at a national festival. The different conditions of climate, too, influence the kind of dresses worn; thus costumes have been developed that are intended for the different seasons of the year.



In summer the Mongols wear a light coat or frock, the "Törlök", in autumn and winter a wadded coat, the "Khovontei Döö", or a lambskin coat, the "Khurgan Dotortoi Döö", in winter a sheepskin dress reminding of a fur coat, the "Tsagaan Nökhi Döö". (Lonely Planet, Mongolia, 2011)

## Country Overview

Ulaanbaatar is the world's coldest capital city, this is Mongolia's capital. Situated in Central Asia a landlocked country between Russia and China that has a population of less than 3 million. The winter season runs for nine months reaching as low as  $-50^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The harsh weather condition affects the agriculture immensely. It is catastrophic for the people's survival since they mainly depend on agriculture as the means of living.

Winter is a tourist attraction with the promotional packages offered by Sky Resort in this time of the year. The nomadic tours is also among the highlights of a travel itinerary of the exotic destination.

As reported by the Mongolian statistical yearbook (2007), the unemployment rate was 2.8%. The unemployment rate among those less than 25 years old is almost double the average. This reflects the discrepancy between the skills of young graduates and the actual demand of the labor market. The poor showing the highest rate in unemployment are affected massively.

Tourists can go for horse riding, camel riding or visit the historical parks. Festivals such as Naadam (National Games) and Tsagan Sar (Lunar New Year) are famous events of the land when local people have grand celebrations.

Tourism activities are expected to create social impacts to the host community and to the tourists as well. Tourists are visitors with short stay in the destination. It is imperative that social interactions with the local people exist. The responsibility of the local community is to offer utmost hospitality and create a cordial image. A tourist who had good memories will come back and may bring a friend in her next visit. A tourist on the other hand should respect the local culture or share his culture to the locals. It is building communities away from home.



The historical heritage of Mongolia is the selling point of the destination to tourists. Chinggis Khan's legacy is attached to the country's popularity to the entire world.

Tourist arrivals flourished in the mid 2000 but from 2007 to 2009 it has decreased. (*Mongolia National Tourism Center data, Jan 2011*)

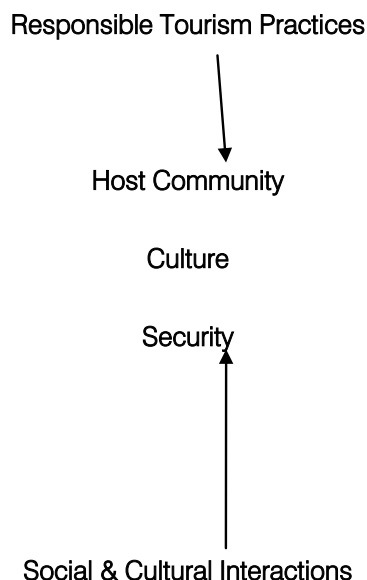
A tourist destination basically exists either because of its attractions, flora and fauna, infrastructure or its historical heritage. Mongolia in fact has all these but the host community plays a big role to make the tourists stay meaningful. Social interactions with multi culture is evident in every tourist destination.

As seen by the researcher in her thirteen (13) months of living in Ulaanbaatar, first is the local people's lifestyles and behavior as threats for the visits of the tourists. In conformance to what is stated in The Code of Ethics in Sustainable Tourism, a tourist shall be protected at all times in a place to stay in during his/her visit.

Within the principle of responsible tourism, this paper focuses on the aim of uplifting the social dignity of Mongolia to the eyes of the tourists. The safety issue in the city apparently shown by lack of policemen to maintain peace and order should be dealt with. If not resolved crime rates will continue to increase resulting to decreasing tourist arrivals.

Second, the lack of information, knowledge and poor communication of the service providers make it difficult to achieve success in tourism. The country's laid back way of living though a tourist attraction in itself has become detrimental to the "No Sense of Urgency" working attitude of the local people.

### Conceptual Framework



## Methodology

Primary data and secondary data have been used in the writing of this paper. A survey was conducted with foreign tourists and visitors to gauge how the tourism product and the suppliers blend with regards to meeting customer needs and satisfaction.

In addition observation by the researcher has been used since she had the chance to interact with the Mongolians in her more than a year stay in the country working as a lecturer. Local people's views through focus group have been useful for the qualitative analysis on the country's culture. Books, internet sources composed the secondary data.

## Mongolia's Tourism

Fig. 1 Tourists Arrival 2003-2010 (Mongolia Tourism Center Jan -11)

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
201,153	300,537	338,725	385,987	451,317	446,317
411,640					

**Figure 1 A process-based framework for value co-creation in an experience**

Ulaanbaatar, the capital is "an enormous city pulsating of commerce, heavy traffic, sinful nightlife and bohemian counter-culture, the Mongolian capital elicits as much shock as it does excitement ". (Lonely Planet, 2011)

Tourists coming from various regions of the world can enjoy the rural and urban adventures in Mongolia. Tourists can have parties in pubs until 3 am in the morning. In daytime museum and park visits are widely practiced. The adventurers go to the countryside for the wildlife.

The vast land is divided into Central, Northern, Eastern, Western and the popular Gobi desert. Steppes, hills and lakes are the common sceneries from Ulaanbaatar to Gobi-Altai. Roads mostly are paved but rugged which makes travel inconvenient. Taxis, buses and vans are available for long trips with reckless drivers who impatiently blow horn for a minute of stop of the cars ahead. Expensive cars such as Hummer and Range Rover can cross a traveler's path at one minute and the swerving with mumbling of drunkards at the next. Street fighting is normal in Mongolia among local men. Couples show off there marital disputes in public too.

Five star hotels to backpacker lodges are sprawling in the capital while the traditional houses in the Ger camps are found in the countryside. The Ger camp offers a modest place for sleeping with no modern toilet facilities. Situated in the wilderness the Ger gives a truly relaxing and peaceful holiday experience to travelers.





Horhog, (on top) the beef with the black stones cooked together with vegetables in a big pot. (Bottom) the traditional Mongolian barbeque.



Mongolian cuisine is mainly meat like mutton, beef and dairy products. In the countryside green vegetables with spiced meat which is a unique concept demonstrated in the method of their cooking. Horhog, a traditional dish which is mutton boiled in a big pot together with potatoes, Carrots and stones. The stones after cooking are used **for therapeutic purposes.**



The local cuisine, kushur and boots (dumpling).

In summer dairy products become staple food because animals provide milk during the time. During the long winter of nine months, meat takes over with the large amounts of fats to keep them warm. Alcohol drinking is at its height. In Ulaanbaatar, there is a wide array of cosmopolitan restaurants. Coffee shops, pizza and burger parlors are everywhere.





The local beverages in Mongolia, (on top) fresh milk from goats. (Bottom) the world famous vodka bearing the brand name of the hero, Chinggis Khan



## Culture

The history of Mongolia probably has never surpassed any country over the years. From the warriors who conquered nation who travelled the steppes, these warriors have faced the challenges of embracing civilizations unto the hero Chinggis Khan who made a nation in 1206, has carved a spot in the heart and minds of Mongolians.

Festivals and events in these modern times showcase the horse back riding skills, strength and agility in wrestling and archery. Clad in del, the traditional dress families celebrate the Lunar New Year with its hospitality to visitors by preparing local food and drinks.



The banners of soldiers during the Naadam festival in July. The festival is a showcase of the three popular sports namely wrestling, archery and horse back riding.

In the capital a conversation with young people seems endless when it comes to the way of life in the country. The everyday outfit may not speak for it but stories on the beautiful countryside, the clear lakes, the wildlife and the nomadic life still going strong until today. In fact the Westerners crave to experience the Ger life, to include drinking of horse milk and the famous Chinggis Khan vodka.

A Mongolian woman is given high respect traced from the ancient times when Queens help rule empire. Today the woman is privileged to decide on the selling of sheep, animals and in managing family cash reserves. It resulted to the increase of



parasites from the men who stays at home and drink vodka instead of earning for a living. A public holiday is highly observed to honor the women, the Woman's Day. It has been a joke that men have no public holiday as everyday is a free day for them.

Mongolian men are possessive about their women. Seeing the woman with a foreign man in the streets can agitate the local men. They will yell at the pair, mocking and insulting the local woman as if she is a prostitute.

Mongolia embraced democracy 20 years ago. It is one of the Asian countries which has geared towards globalization. Ulaanbaatar infrastructures are rapidly growing as the economy is improving due to mining reserves. Brand names like Burberry and Louis Vuitton is just an amazing addition to the growing modernization of the capital. The employment of foreign workers in banking, education and mining has gave the Impression that Mongolia is not only about grass and wildlife.



Mongolia towards globalization- signature shops like LV have ventured to the nomads land last 2009.

### Host Community

The country's local people are a part of the tourist destination. The local populace needs to understand the tourists' needs and expectations. That includes the behavior they need to show to the visitors for the duration of the stay. Through the clear objectives of the destination of hosting, travel and tour experience of the visitors will make it memorable.

According to Krippendorf, 1987, "for tourism to survive and prosper it needs to humanize travel and bring about greater harmony between hosts and visitors. He advocates a 'soft humane tourism' so those who are tourists and those who depend upon them can develop common goals. These goals are to bring the greatest possible benefit to all the participants, travelers and the host population and the tourist business, without causing intolerable ecological and social damage'. (cited in Strategic Management for Tourism Community, Bridging the gaps, 2004)

It should be communicated to the local community that through promoting responsible tourism it shall give them benefits economically and socially. Lack of knowledge of what the tourism concept is not a reason for a slow development of tourism in the destination. It should be emphasized that tourism programs fail without the support and cooperation of the local community. A well balanced program is more attractive when tourism needs and interests are reinforced by giving incentives to locals to emphasize that they are part of the success which gives them the feeling of belongingness.

Mongolians can be hospitable but for some who cannot speak English they would rather avoid conversations with foreigners. Most of the old people from 60 years old and above those living in the rural areas are fluent in Russian language. This makes it difficult for them to learn English. Most of them are proficient in writing the old alphabet, calligraphy. It is interesting to witness who they can write vertically rather than horizontally.

Vowels		Consonants				Numerals			
ᠠ	а а	ᠨ	н н	ᠱ	ш sh	ᠬ	х h	᠐	0
ᠡ	э е	ᠨᠭ	ng	ᠲ	т t	ᠬ	к k	᠑	1
ᠢ	и і	ᠪ	б б	ᠳ	д d	ᠴ	ц ts	᠒	2
ᠣ	о о	ᠯ	п p	ᠴ	ч ch	ᠰ	з dz	᠓	3
ᠤ	у u	ᠬ	х h	ᠵ	ж dzh	ᠬ	х h	᠔	4
ᠥ	ө ou	ᠭ	г g	ᠶ	й y	ᠵ	ж zr	᠕	5
ᠦ	ү oo	ᠮ	м m	ᠷ	р r	ᠬ	лh	᠖	6
ᠪ	еe	ᠯ	л l	ᠪ	в v	ᠬ	zh	᠗	7
		ᠰ	с s	ᠳ	ф f	ᠬ	ch	᠘	8
								᠙	9

Cyrillic, classical Mongolian Alphabet

### Security Issues

*Reports of violence against foreigners have increased in recent years. While Europeans are targets, Mongolian youth gangs expose the anti-Chinese and anti-Koreans sentiments by attacking the businesses owned by these Asians. Most incidents occur in the alleys, courtyard, ger district and beyond the well lit boulevards. (Lonely Planet, Mongolia. 2011)*

*Security can be defined as protecting a visitor from negative actions produced by another person. It would be very difficult if not impossible to guarantee 100% safety or security; the best that can be hoped for is to lower the level of the probability that something will happen. ( Jamal , 2009. p.468)*

The deployment of few if not absence of policemen has made it difficult to have peace and order in the city. If there is one policeman he is incapable of helping foreigners because basic English is not a skill for the law enforcers.

Along Peace Avenue, lies a stream of bag snatchers, pickpockets waiting for a prey in the busy crowded high way. There is no age requirement for these thieves. From the young street children to the middle age jobless men .They are quick in slipping in their hands to your pockets and bags. Backpacks are not advisable to be worn at the back since it only gives the thief full freedom to explore the bag.

If you are victimized it is a common practice to report to the nearest police station. The problem if you are a foreigner, the police with his limited knowledge on English will drive you away and tells you to call him if you see the thief again.

The author had her own experience of pick pocketing in Peace Avenue. After a month a woman called the school to relay the message that the flash drives which was one of the belongings stolen is for redemption. To claim the stolen stuff means you have to pay a fee to get it back.

Robbery is also common in the market and banks. The peak season for this crime is during summer, Naadam and the Lunar New Year celebrations. Tourists being the target should be wary in bringing passports, valuables and cash.

Alcoholism is a big problem in Ulaanbaatar. Drunkards are common in the streets 24 hours usually middle age men and the out of work which represents a high percentage in the unemployed. Justification is that having long winters vodka can be a sole partner to keep them warm. But drunks drink all year round. They are annoying and dangerous. They chase women and block the street with their empty bottles. Broken vodka bottles are visible as ornaments in alleys and parks.

*In general, you should be extremely cautious at these locations:*

- *Chinggis Khan International Airport in Ulaanbaatar: Organized groups frequently target tourists for robbery and pickpocketing at this airport.*
- *The State Department Store and the area around the Circus: Organized pickpocket gangs target tourists at the entries/exits/elevators of the Store and in surrounding areas, along Peace Avenue and down to the Circus.*
- *Naran Tuul Covered Market: Organized criminal groups target foreigners for robbery and pickpocketing.*

(Travel.State.Gov/crime, A service of the Bureau of Consular Affairs US Department of State, retrieved Aug 20,2011)

### **Tourists Social Interactions with Host Community**

Local people expressed their views and opinions on how do tourist interact with the locals given the history ,culture and the safety issues in the country. According to the focus group responses when asked what is the main reason for the instability growth of tourism in the Land of Chinggis Khan ,it is because HOSPITALITY and SERVICE culture is not felt by tourists .

*Social situations describe fully the interaction of people in routine ways in a specific setting. They process nine features goals, rules, roles, repertoire of elements, sequences of behavior, concepts, environmental settings, language, speech, skills and difficulties.( Murphy, cited in Encyclopedia of Tourism 2003 p. 541)*

The development of more infrastructure in Mongolia is rising rapidly with the construction of Sheraton Hotel and many other popular hotel chains. The plan of opening McDonalds has been in the can more than 10 years ago. These improvements are futile if the staff cannot give a sincere smile to the incoming guests. Neither can she be of service if she is short in English communication. Much less Mongolians by nature are slow movers, sense of urgency is what they likewise need to equip them for a service delivery expected by the tourists.

In the service industry such as tourism the time whereby the tourist or guest come in contact with the service staff is referred to as The Moment of Truth. Basically it is when an image of the host , or service provider is being made if positive results come but it is also the time when an image is broken when service delivered fails.

*"In order for a culture of customer service excellence to grow and thrive, management must have a burning desire for it to be that way and the energy to ensure that this desire spreads throughout the organization and remains there permanently. You must become a totally customer-focused organization. Everyone, from the top down, must believe that they work for the customer." (Peggy Morrow, 2000 . p.68)*

Mongolian Tourism agencies have come up with web based venues for Tourism forum among tourists, potential visitors and tour suppliers. With this development the efforts of the government in propagating responsible tourism practices are commendable. It is an invaluable contribution to introduce awareness to the people of different regions that Mongolia is up to giving tourist satisfaction and meeting their expectations from tour providers. But this is a small part of how service culture is developed. The host community has likewise to be educated on how to interact with tourists especially foreigners. A macro environment focus should be in the planning stage of the Mongolia Tourism Center to involve the local community of the country.

## **Responsible Tourism**

The objective of Responsible Tourism is to make better places to live in, and better places to visit. The 2002 Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism in Destinations defines Responsible Tourism as follows :**"Responsible Tourism** is tourism which minimizes negative economic, environmental and social impacts".

The result of this objective is derived from a well planned and implementation of strategies from a collaboration of travel organization, tourism suppliers, host community and the tourist

*"Responsible tourism is based on ethics and human rights—from protection of service workers and labor rights for mountain porters to programs against exploitation of women and children in tour-ism prostitution and campaigns against tourist trade in endangered species. It also means support for community-based travelers' pro-grams—home stays , guest cottages, ethno-museums, and educational programs that bring tourist dollars directly into communities." (Lets Develop Responsible Tourism in Mongolia as quoted from responsible travel handbook 2006)*

Community based programs in Mongolia are widely integrated in the tour packages such as the Nomad tours. Environmental concerns are well addressed in various internet circulated forums. The exotic tour packages are enticing tourists to visit Mongolia. The country of 4 million people has potentials as a tourism destination. But the limitations of attracting tourists lie on the fact that those who have visited had sad experiences to bad memories.

Most of the “moments of truth” were disappointing and frustrating in as far as service culture in Mongolia is concern. This is not limited to the hotels, restaurants, travel agencies which have a structure in mind of service but the basics have been missing. Complaints from tourists on itinerary not followed and tour guides coming in late. The whole community particularly is to be orientated on the desired social interactions with foreigners. According to some tourists, locals stare at them as if they are preys. Shortly they noticed some belongings were missing-they have been robbed. Having this in mind is definitely a negativity affecting the tourists mind set of the destination.

The government handles tourism related issues such as issuance of license for new hotels, restaurants and tour operators. Mongolian Tourism Authorities (MTA) is the main private sector umbrella organization and represents more than 80 of Mongolian tour operators. It monitors the performance of its member organizations through the design of surveys on tourists satisfaction, understanding the real need of tourists for future improvement.

*Destination experiences are shaped by attractions, amenities, accessibility, human resources, image and character and price.* (A practical Guide to Tourism Destination management, UNWTO , 2007). The historical attractions, the modern facilities are useless if the destination is unaware of these products and services. Human Resource refers to the skilled labor force but apparently the image and character of the local people is as important to market the destination. Friendly locals definitely get more tourists. Price is based on the ability of the tourists to purchase the travel product which foreign exchange rate is the basis.

Fig. 2. The top five problems encountered by tourist with the local community

Issues	Experiences
-Language barrier, unskilled manpower	English is not widely spoken, tour guides lack product knowledge, most of the tourism supplier has no sense of urgency
-Over pricing for taxi fares	Taxi drivers and other transport contractors quote unreasonable fares
-Massive traffic jam, poor road structure	narrow roads with more cars causing jam
-Security issues	presence of pickpockets day and night,  along Peace Ave. bag snatching is very visible
-Not service oriented people	absence of immediate attention for customers in queries in shops, hotels, banks

Fig. 3. Reasons of visit in Mongolia

Reasons	Percentage of tourists
Leisure	30%
Holidays	20%
Experience Nomad tours	50%

The survey showed that Mongolia has great, exotic sceneries which tourists are really amazed and fascinated. These attractions are the main motivators of tourist's visits. Although most of the tourist travel for leisure and holiday reasons, it must be noted that the image of Mongolia being a nomadic destination has the greatest representation in figure 3.

### **Social Problems affecting Mongolia's tourism**

Let us discuss the problems Mongolia tourism is facing which impact the social aspect:

- Lack of skilled people to deliver the service at international level.
- Lack of awareness of local community 's role in tourism
- Mongolia's poverty creates more crimes.

These problems affect the development of Responsible Tourism Practices as it is involving the main actors of the service delivery of the tourist destination, the host community and the service provider.

### **Lack of skilled people to deliver service at international level**

In as far as tourism programs are concerned Ulaanbaatar has doe not lack on colleges and universities in the best way they could deliver to train the students. English language on the other hand has not been imposed to be the sole medium of instructions in schools. According to the group of students interviewed as to what's is needed to boost the country as a tourist destination, "there is no marketing outside Mongolia to promote the travel destination".

Marketing is learned in school as it is a complex process not just knowing the product but how to communicate the product to potential people. If English is not fully developed in some schools , marketing communication will never be effective if ever there is such.

*"Tourism education has been provided since 1993 in National University of Mongolia. Today over 7000 students are studying in tourism at about 50 universities and colleges. Every year 600-800 students graduate with bachelor degree. ." (Let's Develop Responsible Tourism in Mongolia)*

Until this time graduates of the tourism /hospitality colleges who have high English proficiency are scarce. In Chinggjs Khan Hotel, it is a must for a staff of tourism and hospitality sectors to have high English proficiency. Tourism after all is an international based standard.

### **Lack of awareness of local community role in tourism**

Mongolia is a community based tourism which means local populace and the community

is a tourist attraction in itself. The success of tourism industry lies greatly on the human resources from both the public and the private sector. It must be viewed from the community that tourism gives economic benefits to them and to the country as a whole for them to work hand in hand with the national government. Welcoming behavior, hospitality, knowledge on what the country has to offer are simple things to manifest that the community is in line with the goals and objectives responsible tourism



development. This is not what's happening to Mongolia's community. The rudeness of most of the local people manifested in pushing tourists in a queue in shops is intolerable. Coughing in front of one's face has been a practice of the locals. This is only a few of the untoward incidents occurring in the local community.

Tourism concept in Mongolia lacks clear definition, the community has no understanding of how it works and what benefits it will give to them. The government and other private sector have the responsibility in carrying out the concept.

### **Mongolia's poverty creates more crimes.**

*Poverty is a recent reality in Mongolia. Until about 1990 there were virtually no poor people in rural areas. The government and rural collectives made sure that everyone was supplied with basic goods and access to a full range of public services. Poverty has been a direct consequence of the transition to a market economy in the 1990s, after the breakup of the Soviet Union and the collapse of Mongolia's centrally planned economy. Privatization of industry and state farms brought high levels of unemployment. Benefits and assistance dried up. Incomes shrank, inflation devoured purchasing power and people had to bear the cost of health and education services..(Rural Poverty of Mongolia <http://www.ruralpovertyportal.org/web/guest/country/home/tags/mongolia> )*

If you visit Ulaanbaatar you will see the tall buildings which one couldn't help but comment "Mongolia is not poor". Louis Vuitton boutique along with popular brands in the market has opened in the city. Expatriates have been hired as employees in few companies in mining, banks, schools and hotels. This is an indication that Mongolia has resources to give jobs and its economy has rapidly grown.

There is a big disparity from the rich and the poor. The poor are extremely poor and the rich are extremely rich so they say. The streets are full of thieves and out of school children where they manage to get resources for their survival.

*"Ulaanbaatar does not have a dedicated tourist police unit, nor do they have any centralized reporting system. You should report allegations of criminal activity to the police district responsible for the area where the crime took place. You may wish to consult with an attorney before you report a crime, since the local police can be uncooperative or aggressively question crime victims."(Travel.State.Gov-US Department of State)*

The government lacked the concentration on eradication of crimes clearly shown on few policemen roaming around the city. If you get to talk to a policeman make sure you speak Mongolian language as they will never speak English. In my years stay in Ulaanbaatar I have

seen 2 policemen so far only in the middle of Peace Ave. considering that this is a long busy highway. There were flyers sent to foreign employees to contact police office in the area with the contact numbers in cases of emergencies. We tried to call that office and hopelessly nobody speaks English.

*"Mongolia crime facts increases: in fraud 6.1 percent, death due to unfortunate occasion 6.4 percent, crime against child, family and social morality 10.9 percent, crime against national safety 12.0 percent, crime against human life and health(or physical well-being) 11.7 percent, crime against economic entity 14.0 percent, bodily aggravated crime 15.3 percent, crime against administrative rule 22.8 percent, robbery 24.7 percent, crime against population health 36.0 percent, negligent murder 64.3 percent, crime against political and other rights and freedom of individuals 66.7 percent, crime against*

environmental protection 3.1 times more. "(Mongolia Crime Facts, [www.mongolia-attractions.com/mongolia-crime-facts.html](http://www.mongolia-attractions.com/mongolia-crime-facts.html))

In the wake of the achieving MDG's education is given priority in the country as it is one way of alleviating poverty despite the fact that enrollment have increased in 2009, the country has failed to create job opportunities and distribute wealth equally. Economy had a growth of 9% due to mining sector.

*While the progress is notable, key findings show that targets such as poverty, gender equality and environment MDGs are slow progressing and or even in regressing trend. Despite annual economic growth (9%), mainly due to mineral resources, Mongolia has not yet managed to create job opportunities and distribute wealth equally. A better redistribution of revenues, especially to ensure safety nets for marginalized population is imperative to advance the MDG 1, poverty reduction. (Mongolia is reporting on its progress towards the Millennium Development Goals,2010,UNDP news)*

The UN has done a good job of funding and creating MDG for Mongolia to alleviate poverty nevertheless the country has slow progress on the programs implemented. It is still struggling to fight the perils of poverty. The locals mind set has more influence for progress to keep it going. The people should work real hard to improve their lives not just rely on the UN or the national government. It should be two way collaboration to move forward for the country's stability socially and economically.

#### **Recommendations:**

1. Develop a service orientated culture from every service organization's end.
2. Upgrade tourism training program for students and practitioners by using English as medium of instruction
3. Peace and order enforcers should be visible to tourists at all times.

#### **Service Oriented Culture.**

Every destination has its own culture which reflects the hospitality organization's culture. Employees should be molded to be customer centered rather than value financial performance above anything else. What guides the customer –contact employees in choosing their behavior towards a customer is a result of the service culture of an organization. Service is a failure when its slower than expected. Employees who lack product knowledge may have no concern for customers and worse they are rude to customers.

Since there is an office for Mongolia Tourism concerns, this office should plan on more trainings to improve service standards of those operating the business for tourists. Policies should be tracked down for updates on the trainings. Regulations on joining the business should have strict requirements such as license for tour guides. In addition it should be a must to have a diploma in tourism and hospitality.

#### **Upgrade tourism training programs**

Implementing that English be a medium of instruction in all training centers and schools can tremendously help the thriving Mongolians in dealing with foreign customers. This is not limited to tourism practitioners but to all sectors as the tourists

use the banks, market, shops and other facilities while in the destination. Per experience it has been an ordeal all the time to shop in Ulaanbaatar. You want a simple medicine for cough but the seller will talk to you in her local language. You might end up getting a medicine for stomachache.

This a concern for the education ministry to use English in school especially that Mongolia has envisioned to be on the global arena.

### **Deployment of Police**

Peace and order authorities are not visible in Ulaanbaatar being the capital of the Mongolia. Tourist centers must have at least a policeman to ensure safety while these visitors are roaming in the city. The street boys, middle age men drunkards are more visible than the policemen in the city. They have outnumbered the police authorities leaving the city a place of opportunity for pickpockets, violence and intimidation. Government should be serious in answering the safety issues of the land for everybody as a whole.

### **Conclusion**

Social interactions among tourists and local people of Mongolia can be best improved with the government agencies dealing with what the tourists and potential tourist/visitor are saying. Those who have experienced the unprofessional dealing, behavior of locals within the country can spread the word of mouth definitely creates more negative impact on those who have not visited Mongolia. Over the internet as a forum venue, a lot has been mentioned on the splendor of Mongolia's natural attractions. It is appropriate to apply the concept of implementation, monitoring and evaluating as keep action to ensure proposed practices are effective and efficient to international tourism standards

The scenic spots and the rich heritage would be put to waste only because precedents of crimes, rudeness of local people to tourist are being displayed and even highlighted. The undesirable image of the people overrules the beauty of its wildlife.

To make things work in as far as Responsible Tourism in Mongolia is concerned, best practices should not just focus on the beautification and preservation of the landscapes, monuments and Ger villages but orient them that tourism is giving a sincere smile because they are visitors not because for monetary opportunities that the tourist bring in. In this way Mongolia will be moving forward to one of the best tourists destinations in the service they offer along with the exotic nomadic places. Eventually will experience a prosperous tourism development overall which is sustainable.

### **Acknowledgement**

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# Adoption of Ecolabels by the Tourism Industry in Australia: Applying the Diffusion of Innovations Theory

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## **Abstract**

The interest in operating in a sustainable manner is one of the primary foci of tourism today. However, green certification has not been adopted as quickly as early commentators assumed it would. Tourism ecolabels are a case in point, being recognised as a potentially strong voluntary initiative, yet with a low adoption rate. This paper proposes that this issue can be examined by utilising Rogers' Diffusion of Innovations theory, enabling us to study what the factors are that influence the adoption.

**Key words:** Tourism Ecolabels, Certification, Sustainability, Innovation, Adoption

Globally there is an increasing trend to do business in a more responsible and sustainable way. Taking a market-based approach, tourism ecolabels (tourism specific eco certifications, awards, etc) aim to respond to environmental and social concerns without jeopardising the profit targets of the tourism industry. However, despite being 30 years in the marketplace and recognised as a potentially strong voluntary initiative, tourism ecolabels have had very limited commercial success. Only one percent of tour operators are certified globally, and the awareness among customers remains low (Dodds and Joppe, 2005). Thus there is a threat to the viability of tourism ecolabels and their associated environmental benefits.

A review of existing literature of tourism ecolabels reveals a similarly unsatisfactory situation. Published studies in Europe, Asia and other regions attempted to explain why tourism ecolabels have not been adopted as widely as earlier commentators expected they would be (Ayuso, 2007; Bakas, 2005; Bowman, 2011; Fairweather et al., 2005; Goodstein, 2006; Jensen et al., 2004; Medina, 2005; Reiser and Simmons, 2005; Rowe and Higham, 2007; Schott, 2006). These studies have yielded diversified aspects for better understandings of this issue; however there is a lack of a theoretical model to combine the main findings into a systematic and replicable framework. Font (2009) comments that most earlier published papers were “descriptive, self-promotional or politicized, and almost always atheoretical” (Font, 2009 p1).

Consequently, this paper forms part of a larger research project which aims to provide a more thorough understanding of tourism ecolabels, in particular, the factors that influence decision-making in respect of the adoption of ecolabels. Differing from previous research on tourism ecolabels, this study adopts the Diffusion of Innovations (DOI) Theory developed by Rogers (1962, 2003) and tests it in an Australian context. This working paper presents a conceptual framework that is based on DOI theory and adapted from earlier research in related to environmental innovation adoption.

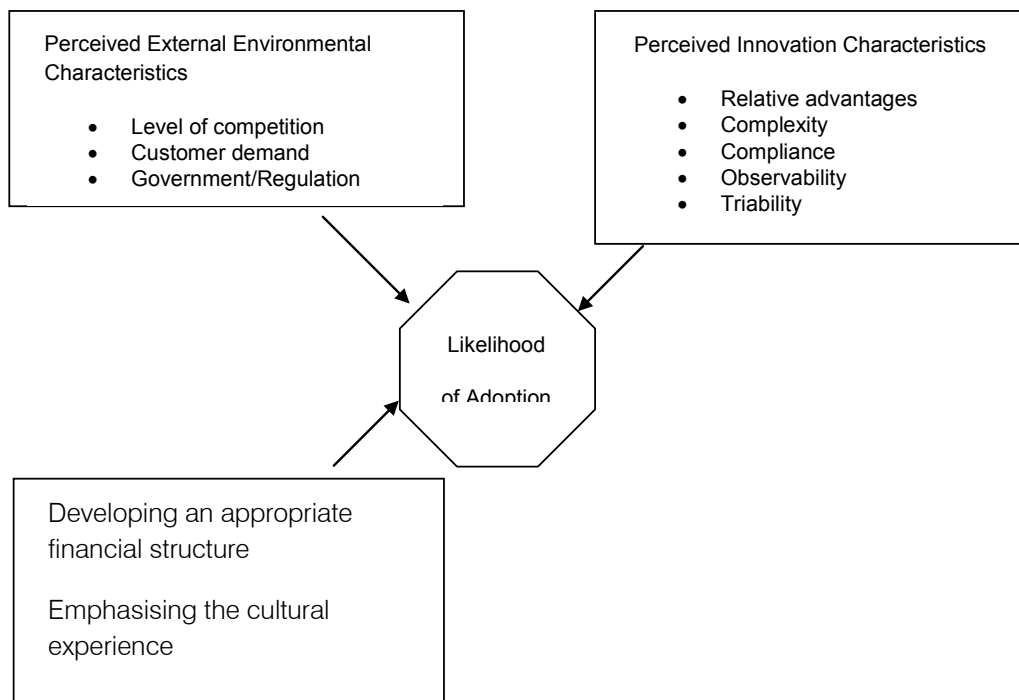
Rogers' DOI theory is a theory of how, why and at what rate an “idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new” spreads through cultures, organisations and individuals (Rogers, 2003 p12). It is irrelevant whether tourism ecolabels are ‘objectively’ new but rather their ‘perceived’ newness affects individuals or organisations’ reaction to them (Ham and Weiler, 2004; Rogers, 2003 p12). Tourism ecolabels are not novel concepts; however, considering their low adoption rate globally, tourism ecolabels are still ‘new’ to many tourism businesses. In addition, according to Hall (2009) and Hjalager’s (2010) classification of innovations in tourism, tourism ecolabels may be categorised as managerial innovations. They may enhance and redirect participated tourism business with new strategic vision besides pursuing profit-maximisation goals as well as transfer environmental and managerial knowledge to certified tourism companies.

In discussing future research directions for innovations in tourism, Hjalager (2010) calls for engaging research theories and frameworks from other more established areas. The contemporary derives from agricultural innovation studies, and has been since tested, applied and improved through thousands of empirical studies in various research fields (Le et al., 2006). Applications of DOI theory within tourism research include the diffusion and adoption of innovations such as computer based technologies and, more recently, environmentally sustainable practices adopted by the tourism industry. Published studies have examined factors that influence the adoption of clean technology, sustainable tourism resource management and environmentally friendly practices (Gonzalez and Leon, 2001; Le et al, 2006; Lawton and Weaver, 2009; Smerecnik and Andersen, 2011; Yaw, 2005). In particular, Le et al. (2006) developed an applicable conceptual framework based on the DOI theory to investigate the factors that influence the Likelihood of Adoption of Environmental Friendly Practices by the hotel industry in Vietnam. Ecolabels are similar in that they are identified as environmental and quality management tools (Black and Crabtree, 2007; Wight, 2001). Thus applying the DOI theory may help to understand the dynamics in their diffusion and adoption process.

Previous studies have applied Ecological Modernisation Theory (EMT) and Policy Concepts in research about ecolabels. Font (2009, P1) proposed that the development of tourism ecolabels is inspired by the EMT. EMT postulates that “contemporary societies can manage their environmental impacts through increased technological efficiency and market demand”. EMT may explain the diffusion of tourism ecolabels from an economic and cost-benefit perspective. However, it fails to exam tourism ecolabels within an organisational and external environmental context. Rivera (2002) and Bowman (2011) applied public Policy Concepts to discuss issues of tourism ecolabels in developing countries. Policy Concepts stress the importance of stakeholders and emphasise the influence of governmental regulations. Such a theoretical approach misses an important aspect of the adoption issue, namely, the characteristics of innovations. Perceived innovation characteristics are believed to be the most significant factors influencing adoption at the early adoption stage (Damanpour and Schneider, 2009; Le et al. 2006; Rogers, 2003). Therefore, DOI theory provides a suitable platform which embodies the main tenets of these two schools of thought. It is also particularly appropriate to innovations in their early adoption stage, given that Weaver (2009, p34) noted the take up of ecolabels by the tourism industry has been ‘miniscule’.

This study mainly consults the DOI theory in Rogers’ groundbreaking work (2003). It lays the theoretical base for a conceptual framework which may illuminate the decision making processes in regards to the adoption of tourism ecolabels. The study develops a conceptual framework which is adapted from Wejnert’s (2002) conceptual paper and Le et al. (2006)’s study. The framework includes three constructs, namely, perceived innovation characteristics, organisational characteristics and perceived external environmental characteristics (see Figure 1). These constructs are indicated by dimensions which are also shown in Figure 1. They are hypothesized to affect the likelihood of adoption.

**Figure 1: A conceptual framework to investigate the factors that influence decisions on adopting tourism ecolabels**



Source: adapted from Le et al., 2006; Wejnert, 2002; Rogers, 2003.

This study will adopt a mixed method approach to the research. Quantitative data will be collected by administering an electronic survey questionnaire to a sample of tourism providers in Australia. Results emanating from the quantitative analysis will be further explored through a series of in-depth interviews with tourism providers.

## Conclusions

As part of a larger project, this paper identifies that the low adoption rate of tourism ecolabels potentially jeopardises their own viability and their associated environmental benefits. Distinguishing itself from earlier studies, this study adopts the DOI theory which has been shown to be applicable in environmental innovation research in tourism. This study further develops a conceptual framework that may guide investigations and lead to a more thorough understanding of tourism ecolabels, in particular, the factors that promote or impede their adoption by the tourism industry in an Australian context. Findings may shed light on the future development and planning of tourism ecolabels as well as provide insights on how to improve environmental management.

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# Travelling with Food Intolerances: An Exploratory Study

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## **Abstract**

'Food intolerances' is a growing market, one which has been relatively untapped into by the Tourism and Hospitality industries. Although limited information is available on the number of people affected by such conditions, it is estimated to be approximately 10% of Australia's population alone. This study, which forms part of a Ph.D., will investigate the implications for those diagnosed with various types of 'food intolerances', including Fructose Malabsorption, Lactose Intolerance and Coeliac Disease when travelling. This will be done through using a qualitative approach. This paper provides an overview of some of the key themes identified in the literature which relates to the implications of food intolerances, allergies and Coeliac Disease. Based on the research findings, this study will provide recommendations on how the tourism and hospitality industries can cater and better promote themselves as meeting the needs of this continually increasing market.

**Key words:** Food Intolerances, Coeliac Disease, Food Allergies, Food Tourism

## **Introduction**

Over the last few years, 'food intolerances' have become a topical issue in society and research. With advances in technology like hydrogen breath testing they are now easier to diagnose and understand (Barrett, Irving, Shepherd, Muir and Gibson 2009). This PhD study aims to address a current research gap with regards to tourist's that

travel and suffer from 'food intolerances.' To date, no study has investigated the impact 'food intolerances' have on the consumers' decision making process when deciding where to travel. This research will address this by exploring the issues this growing market faces when travelling.

### **Definitions and Background**

It is important to firstly note the differences between 'food intolerances' and 'food allergies.' 'Food intolerances' are chemical reactions that some people have after eating or drinking certain foods and is not an immune response. It can be linked with asthma, chronic fatigue syndrome and irritable bowel syndrome (IBS). 'Food allergies' on the other hand are an immune response. Symptoms of 'food allergies' can include wheezing, stomach upsets and skin rashes. Some of the most common food allergens include nuts, shellfish, milk, egg and soy products. They can result in anaphylaxis or anaphylactic shocks, which is when an extreme allergic reaction occurs and can be life threatening (Better Health Channel Website 2011).

Coeliac disease on the other hand "is a medically diagnosed condition of intolerance to gluten in the diet. Gluten is the protein component of wheat, rye, barley and oats" (Shepherd Works Website 2011, 1). Those diagnosed with the condition, must follow a strict gluten-free diet, which in turn can reverse these abnormalities. It is estimated that 1 in every 100 Australians have the disease (Shepherd Works Website 2011). While obvious research exists on Coeliac Disease, little information is available regarding the amount of the Australian population affected by 'food intolerances'; such as fructose malabsorption. Taste (2011) predicts that it could be up to 10% which equates to more than a million people, or approximately one in 20. This represents a significant proportion of the Australian population and warrants further investigation. Similar trends have also been found in other countries in regards to 'food allergies'. For example, in the United States, more than 12 million consumers are reported to have a food allergy (Borchgrevink, Elsworth, Taylor and Christensen 2009) while, 70-90% of Asian, African or Mediterranean ethnic origins are said to be lactose intolerant. Worldwide, figures suggest that 45% of the population may be impacted by food sensitivity during some stage of their lives (Government of Canada, 2009).

These statistics demonstrate the need for further research to be completed. Although the development of legal legislations for food labelling has assisted consumers at the supermarket, the difficulty exists most when travelling, either domestically, or overseas. A study by Sverker, Hensing and Hallert (2005) identified that travelling was as a key dilemma affecting respondents who had being diagnosed with 'Coeliac Disease'. In particular they found that lived experiences, including travel, had significant impacts on their emotions, relationships and basic management of their daily lives. Feeling isolated and incompetent was a common feeling, with one respondent noting "We had to go to three cafes before I could eat anything. I really felt that!" (Sverker et al 2005, 175). In a similar study Borchgrevink et al (2009), argued that those who suffer from 'food intolerances' or 'allergies' do not have the privilege of being able to indulge in casually offered food prepared by others. This is especially significant when those who prepare the food may not be aware of the consequences of their patron's condition. To highlight

this, Borchgrevink et al (2009) found restaurant manager's knowledge of 'food allergies' and 'food intolerances' was minimal. Specifically they revealed that more than 60% of them had never heard of Coeliac Disease or gluten intolerance (Borchgrevink et al 2009). Sverker et al (2005) also identified the ignorance of staff to the hypersensitivity of their patrons to gluten.

### Destination Image and Food Tourism

As tourism and food have been noted to be key sources of economic development in rural regions (Hall, Mitchell and Sharples 2003), it is important to understand and explore the dilemmas which individuals with 'food intolerance's face when travelling. This will provide destinations with the necessary information so they may design their products to meet the needs of this ever increasing market. In fact, Hall et al (2003) suggest that organisations recognise the opportunities associated with such product development in food tourism. This is especially important when considering the continually changing global environment of which food intolerances and allergies are fast becoming a reality. With reference to the tourism and hospitality industry, these dilemmas have unfortunate consequence as it relies heavily on customers purchasing casually offered food at airports, accommodation facilities, attractions and sporting events. For example, Sverker et al (2005) found that when travelling for work, individuals who suffer from 'food intolerances' and 'allergies' often face difficulties because they are not familiar with local language spoken, and vice versa.

Food Tourism is defined "as an amalgam of natural features, culture, services, infrastructure, access, attitudes toward tourists and uniqueness" (du Rand and Health 2008, 2010). It is accepted that tourists will consume food when travelling. Therefore undertaking research in the area of 'food intolerances' with a focus on developing food tourism is a field which should be approached with urgency (du Rand and Health, 2008).

### Research Focus

With the 'food intolerance' market rapidly growing, and limited research having been completed in the area, an opportunity exists to contribute to the knowledge base of food tourism in this area. du Rand and Heath (2008) classify food tourism as an attraction and suggest it should form part of a destination marketing strategy. They also stress that "no destination can...afford to ignore the importance of food as either a key or...supportive attraction" (du Rand and Health 2008, 209). Sangmi and Ki-joon (2011) further argue the role of destination image in relation to food and note that several studies have highlighted the influence food has when encouraging tourists to visit a destination.

Mitchell and Hall (2003) note that research into food tourism is lacking, with little insight into the demographic characteristics of tourists who travel for food. As discussed, those diagnosed with a 'food intolerance' face challenges when selecting food while travelling. This study therefore, aims to consider the implications for consumers, and their impact on the tourism and hospitality industries. Based on the research findings,

this investigation will provide recommendations on how these industries can cater and better promote themselves as meeting the needs of this continually increasing market.

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# Survey questions measuring destination image – the good, the bad and the ugly

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## **Abstract**

Destination image is seen as one of the key factors in people's destination choice. Consequently, it is one of the most frequently measured constructs in tourism survey studies. Despite the fact that brand image is very clearly defined and conceptualised (Keller, 1993) and despite its importance to understanding destination choice and despite its frequency of inclusion in tourism survey studies there is little agreement on how destination image should be measured in order to generate valid empirical data.

Two key requirements for an empirical measure to generate valid data are (1) that the measure or survey question mirrors correctly the construct under study and (2) that the way the survey question is asked, including the answer options offered, leads to stable answers. Furthermore any measure should be predictively valid and time efficient.

We investigate the second of these two requirements. Specifically, the aim of the present study is to compare the performance of three alternative survey measures for destination image. Suh and Gartner (2004) refer to destination image studies as “a staple of destination market research” (p. 40) and conclude that the most commonly used measure to evaluate destination attributes is a multi-category Likert-type scale.

We investigate our research question by conducting an online experiment with 347 Australian respondents to three different destination image measures which differ in the answer options provided.

Before the online experiment was conducted an extensive qualitative study was undertaken to determine the most suitable attributes for inclusion in the survey. This step is critical because the inclusion of irrelevant attributes or attributes which are ambiguous and can thus be interpreted differently by different respondents can lead to



unstable and thus invalid responses which, in turn, undermine the validity of the final data (Dolnicar & Rossiter, 2008). The final items consisted of 7 destinations (e.g., Australia) and 13 attributes (e.g., expensive).

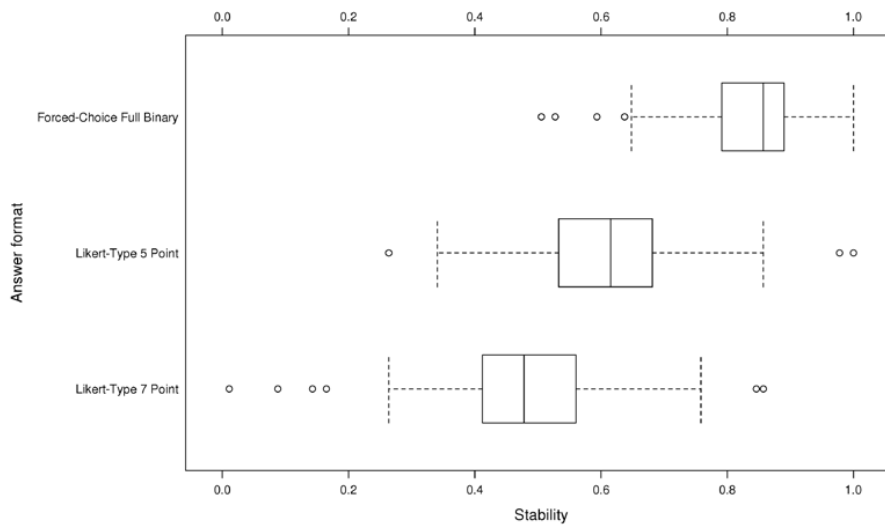
The experimental design ensured that a random subset of respondents was exposed to different formats. All respondents were asked to complete the same survey twice with a few weeks in between so respondents would not be able to remember their responses. The repeat measurement was required in order to be able to assess the stability of responses, where stability was defined by assuming that respondents should be able to exactly reproduce their response meaning that they would tick the exactly same response (for a detailed discussion of this measure see Dolnicar & Grün, 2007).

Furthermore respondents were asked what their favourite destination was. This information was used to determine concurrent validity of responses. Finally, the time it took each respondent to complete the surveys was recorded. This measure allowed determining whether any of the three answer formats enables respondents to complete the task quicker. In principle, shorter completion times are preferable because it is known that respondent fatigue negatively affects data quality (Johnson, Lehmann & Horne, 1990) and because shorter surveys are cheaper to field. So if data quality is equal across a range of answer formats, the quicker version would be preferable.

The following key findings emerge from this study:

- (1) The answer options provided in a destination image study affect participants' responses and thus the brand image information contained in the final data. Specifically, the binary format asking respondents to answer with a YES or a NO only leads to the highest level of stability. These results are illustrated in a boxplot in Figure 1. The exact stability level for the full binary format is 83%, for the five point scale 61% and for the seven point scale 48%. This means that if a seven point scale is used only half of the responses stay the same over two measurements. The differences between response formats are statistically significant (ANOVA p-value < 0.0001).

*Figure 1: Comparative stability results of alternative answer formats in the destination image measurement context*



No statistically significant difference can be detected for the ability of the three formats to predict the favourite destination. This analysis was conducted by fitting multinomial logit models separately for each answer format. This result is likely to be due to the fact that the brand image is not the only predictor of destination preference as well as the very strict dependent variable (only the single most preferred destination is predicted).

- (2) The binary answer option, asking respondents to state only agreement or disagreement, is the most time-efficient option. Specifically, the brand image survey component took 9.2 minutes to complete in the full binary format, 11.5 minutes using the five point scale and 12.6 minutes using the seven point scale. This difference is statistically significant (Kruskal Wallis Chi-squared test p-value < 0.0001).

These results have direct practical implications: it is critical that tourism researchers choose the destination image measure used in surveys very carefully to maximize both reliability and validity of results. Furthermore, results indicate that the standard way in which destination image is measured may not be the optimal one.

Future work should include a wider range of answer formats and include respondents from more countries to mimic more closely typical tourism surveys which tend to contain respondents from many different countries of origin.

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# Migration impacts on Australian inbound and outbound VFR and total tourism flows

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## Abstract

This paper contributes to the literature on the links between migration and visiting friends and relatives (VFR) tourism. It has been widely recognised that the two are closely linked, and that migration induces this type of tourism. In spite of this recognition, there has been minimal econometric evaluation of the importance of the link. The paper sheds light on two main aspects of the link: the strength of the link in statistical terms and the strength of the link between migration and other forms of tourism- is it, as might be expected, weaker than the link between migration and VFR tourism? The analysis shows that there is indeed a strong quantitative link between migration and VFR tourism. It also shows, however, that there is a strong link between other forms of tourism and migration. These links are in indeed almost as strong as the links between migration and VFR tourism. This finding was unexpected, and has implications for both policymaking and for perceptions of the migration-tourism relationship.

Whilst the growth of migrant travel is increasingly recognised, the drivers and dynamics of the phenomenon are less well understood. Changing migration patterns and changes in the factors that determine tourism flows, pose a continuous challenge to researchers in their analyses of the linkages between such movements.

The wide dispersal of diasporic communities has prompted travel activity by migrants between their new and old countries, creating a phenomenon which continues to expand in both scale and scope. The phenomena of permanent migration and tourism are interconnected, and the relationship operates in both directions (Williams and Hall, 2002). A variety of points of contact are evident between residents of a country of origin and those who have settled in another country. Many migrants within diasporic communities, for example, maintain strong emotional and social attachments with their previous homeland ( Nguyen, and King, 2002) as well as familial and friendship ties

(Basch et al, 1994). When settlers depart from their place of residence to establish themselves in a new country, tourism may be stimulated through subsequent visits by friends and relatives (VFR), and through return visits by the settlers to their previous country of residence or country of origin (Feng and Page, 2000). As visitation for purposes of tourism from countries of inward migration increases, this may in turn stimulate permanent migration activity (King, 1994; King and Gamage, 1994). It is the influence of migration on tourism that is the focus of this paper, with particular reference to the Australian experience.

A key objective of this study is to explore the key migration related determinants of tourism flows, using the latest available Australian data. As might be anticipated particular attention is given to VFR tourism, but non VFR tourism also merits analysis. The context of Australia is particularly relevant to the subject of this investigation because Australia has been a high receiver of migrants relative to total population and immigration has played a prominent role in the development of the nation, particularly in the post-war period. Australian governments of different political persuasions have had a longstanding interest in the concept of multiculturalism, a concept which recognizes the special contributions of migrants from different culture and source markets to national development. While early immigration policy espoused a preference for British or European immigrants (described as the "White Australia Policy" in the years after Federation), this strategy was progressively amended during the 1970s and 1980s to welcome migrant intakes from Asia. Beginning with the recession of the early 1990s and over the subsequent two decades, Australia's migrant intake has accelerated and diversified. Migrant intakes grew during the 1990s and reached an all time high through much of the early years of this century. Given the importance also given to tourism in national development (Tourism Research Australia 2010), it is not surprising that the relationship between the two can be identified as an interesting area to study.

The influence of migration on tourism is manifest in a variety of ways, both for Australia and elsewhere (Dwyer et al, 1993). However, whilst the existence of migration and tourism relationships is recognised, their comparative patterns and strengths have not previously been studied on a consistent basis over time.

The analysis shows that there is indeed a strong quantitative link between migration and VFR tourism. It also shows that there is a strong link between other forms of tourism and migration. These links are in indeed almost as strong as the links between migration and VFR tourism. This finding was unexpected, and has implications for both policymaking and for perceptions of the migration-tourism relationship.

The paper is structured as follows: First, the importance of VFR tourism is highlighted, both in size and value, exposing some false assumptions that have resulted in a relative neglect of this market segment by tourism researchers. Second, the paper will highlight some relevant statistics regarding migration flows and stocks in Australia as well as inbound and outbound tourism flows. Since the VFR market is important in Australia, as also are migration stocks and flows, the need to examine the interrelations between the two is evident. This section provides the basic data to estimate the responsiveness of

tourism flows to migration numbers and provides a quantitative perspective for the VFR component. While there has been limited

research on migration and its impact on VFR tourism, there appears to be even less analysis of migration and other tourism motivations. While the link between migration and VFR tourism is obvious, the connections with other forms of tourism are less so. Some links may be readily identified, notably between educational tourism and migration. However *a priori* the strength of these links is unclear. Third, the paper undertakes quantitative estimation of the significance of the tourism-migration interrelationship in Australia by providing econometric estimates of the impacts of migration on tourism flows, using the latest visitor and population and migration data. In particular, the influence of migration on VFR tourism, as well as non VFR and total tourism is examined for both inbound and outbound markets. In the final section, the importance of the results is discussed with suggestions for further research.

The results of the present study should be of interest to policy makers in the tourism and migration fields, to peak industry bodies and to stakeholders such as airlines and tour operators. An understanding of social networks, cultural traits, ethnic origins and ties is essential for understanding VFR travel. This has made it difficult to track and explain fluctuating trends. Differences may also be evident between the experiences and behaviours of migrant groups who have settled at different times. To date there has been little empirical investigation of whether the current relationships evident between migration and tourism, resemble those which applied to earlier European arrivals.

The elasticity findings highlighted in this paper go some way towards explaining the influence of economic variables on tourism flows by providing the key migration related determinants of tourism flows, together with qualitative and quantitative estimates of their significance. Overall, this study should enhance understanding of the long-term implications of migration for international tourism.

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# Tourist Pathways in Cities: Providing insights into tourists spatial behaviour

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## Abstract

Cities are shaped by flows of people, money and goods. Amongst the people who move through cities are tourists. The types of activities and spaces within cities that satisfy a tourist's needs are often concentrated into distinctive geographic areas – precincts – and the tourist's experience is most commonly one of moving between these precincts in search of the city's highlights. While the movement of tourists through cities is observable, it is complex and not well understood. Understanding tourists' spatial behaviour can greatly assist those engaged in the management and planning of urban destinations. To address this issue, since 2007 researchers in the Urban Tourism Program at the University of Technology Sydney have been examining tourists' spatial behaviour using GPS technology, in tandem with other methods that assist with 'interpreting' the spatial activity. Studies have been conducted in Sydney, Canberra, London and Melbourne. This paper provides insights into how tourists view and use the city, highlighting differences in their general patterns and range of movement between these cities.

## Method

In each city tourists were recruited at their accommodation and asked to wear or carry a GPS device that would record their location, time, speed, distance and direction for a day. They were instructed to go about their activities as they normally would, ignoring that they were wearing a device. At the end of the day each participant was interviewed while viewing their trail, which had been downloaded onto a laptop and overlaid onto a Google Earth map. They were asked to then explain their pattern of behaviour, in particular highlighting any difficulties they encountered while moving about the city. Some basic demographic information about the participants was also gathered at this



time. The studies illustrate the extent to which spatial behaviour is influenced by topography, the location of attractions, transport services, and the availability of information.

## **Results**

### **Sydney**

Tourists generally move around Sydney's core or "spine". They look at the Opera House, the Harbour Bridge, head into the CBD via the main shopping area, George Street, and come back down the adjacent Pitt Street. Their trails suggest that Sydney has a successive arrangement. That means the links between different areas are fragmented, with limited ways to move between them. Successive arrangement results in people becoming stuck in a core and finding it difficult to penetrate beyond the main areas. It is inward looking and limits perceived opportunities for experiencing a greater variety of urban spaces. This type of spatial system tends to generate repetitive movements and the Sydney trails indicate a high degree of repetitiveness, with participants returning to the same places and using the same routes. So tourists are missing out of a lot of what the city has to offer.

### **Melbourne**

Overall, tourists' spatial behaviour in Melbourne represents "simultaneous" arrangement. That involves a sequence of lively spaces connected to each other. It provides people with many choices in terms of sight and movement and is characterized by a system that enables the tourist to cover different parts of the city. Simultaneous arrangement encourages the tourist to freely move from one space to another, facilitating exploration and "by-chance-encounters". Characteristic of this arrangement are mixed use zones, spatially integrated networks and mixed transport modes. Melbourne, with its laneways, free city circle tram and tourist shuttle bus, appears to offer the tourist an integrated system for making their way around the city. The city's focus on creative art and enlivening small places (micro spaces) may also facilitate "by-chance-encounters" for tourists. It enables them to easily and enjoyably make their way from one space to another.

### **Canberra**

The geographic focus of many visits in Canberra is the Parliamentary zone on the southern shores of Lake Burley Griffin. In spite of numerous attractive cycle ways around the whole lake area, tourists only used paths to access sites such as the Canberra Visitors Centre and the National Museum of Australia. Our research indicates an emphasis on the use of private vehicles and a disinclination to experience Canberra by cycle or foot. Canberra has a number of cycle paths around the city and between major attractions, but few tourists used these paths for either cycling or walking. There is little apparent inclination to connect with Canberra beyond its "national capital" image.

## **London**

Tourists' spatial behaviour around London also represents "simultaneous" arrangement. Major attractions are dispersed around the city, acting as anchor points to draw people to different parts of the city. Our studies in Sydney, Melbourne and London show that tourists are prepared to walk between 10 and 30 kilometres a day. The studies also indicate the importance of planning and designing streetscapes that offer respite, distinctiveness and sociability. Walking the city enables tourists to become connected, which enhances the experience of being in the city. According to Lynch in "Community Strengthening through Urban Sociability", connectedness is achieved in cities that allow maximum scope for activity for people of all ages and backgrounds. It is organised so that its form and functions are easily understood and provides access to resources, services and information when needed. Tracking tourists reveals important information which can assist authorities to realise such goals.

## **Conclusion**

As an emerging application of available technologies in a tourism context, the knowledge generated from this study provides a basis for the future development of alternative, reliable and cost-effective methods for gathering data on the spatial behaviour of urban tourists, as well as a comparison with other data collection methodologies such as travel diaries. Though using such modern equipment provides a clear view, it does not negate the need to collect supporting information and feedback via other methods to help interpret the trails. These methods include debriefing interviews and questionnaires.

The information has diagnostic value in that it can inform destination managers in relation to evaluating the adequacy of current services and facilities, such as signage, transport and visitor information services. More broadly, it can reveal how visitors form itineraries and how they use and experience the city. This contributes to a better understanding of the city's appeal to visitors and how effectively it is functioning as a tourist destination.

# Tourism Stakeholder Awareness of Climate Change and Energy Scarcity Scenarios for Protected Areas: A Case Study of the Glaciers, Westland National Park, New Zealand

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## **Abstract**

Amid dramatic land-use change since the mid nineteenth century, Protected Areas (PAs) have grown exponentially, both in terms of geographic coverage and their natural and social significance. The demands on parks and protected areas now extend from their original conceptions as repositories of scenic grandeur and recreational parklands – emerging in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century as both last bastions of ecological integrity and tools for economic development. With such expanding roles, the PA concept is widely accepted and promoted. But can PAs continue to be all things to all people – especially in the face of important global developments?

New Zealand's Westland National Park is one of 14 national parks, and part of a wider protected area system that covers approximately 30 per cent of the country's terrestrial area. Among the Park's core attractions are two sub-tropical glaciers, which extend from just below the peaks of the Southern Alps (2700m) towards the coast, terminating at a height of only a few hundred metres above sea-level. The unique situation of these glaciers, combined with a high level of accessibility in the past, has contributed to their popularity, with approximately 600,000 tourists visiting annually. Unsurprisingly, a considerable tourism industry has grown in the nearby townships of Fox Glacier and Franz Josef, both of which offer accommodation, restaurants, various forms of glacier guiding, and a small number of sub-attractions. During peak season, it is estimated that the population of both townships swells by as much as 1000%, straining the local infrastructure and creating strong seasonal employment effects. The towns' distance from generating markets, and their economic dependence on tourism (and on the glaciers in particular), make the region especially vulnerable to two phenomena of interest in this paper: i) changes in climatic conditions and the physical extent of the glacier; and ii) future limits on the availability of cheap fuel.

### *The significance of climate*

The main feature of Westland's mild climate is its high precipitation, reaching approximately 6000 mm per annum in Franz Josef. The topography is impressive with a densely forested coastal strip rising to glaciated mountains which peak at almost 4000m. The glaciers of Westland National Park are the remnants of the Little Ice Age, during which period the glaciers would have been much more substantial than they are today. Like others around the world, the Westland glaciers have been receding for several hundred years (UNESCO, 2007), although they have also moved forward for short periods within the last decade (explained by anomalous southwest airflow and high precipitation, consistent with El Nino events (Hooker, 1995)). The short-term growth or decline of the glaciers is highly sensitive to changes in the atmospheric circulation, in particular precipitation and temperature (Anderson & Mackintosh, 2006). Hence, while predicted changes in rainfall on the West Coast may lead to increased snowfall in the glaciers' nevés, raising temperatures will eventually result in a retreat of the glaciers to high altitudes. A 'shrinking' of the glaciers to an extent that constrains both access and visibility has significant implications on the visitor industry and the destination in a broader sense (Becken & Hendriks, 2010).

### *Energy scarcity*

The growth of parks and protected areas since the early 1960s has mirrored the growth in tourism, and has a paradoxical link with energy consumption. At the global scale, parks and protected areas represent opportunities for escape for millions of urban-dwelling people willing to travel thousands of kilometres in order to experience nature. The Glaciers of Westland National Park, like many PA destinations, are spatially distant from the markets they attract, involve high levels of energy in terms of visitor activities (eg., scenic flights), and are dependent on a fossil-fuelled transportation network (largely comprising private vehicles) to move people to and from the destination, and to service the tourism industry. A recent oil price simulation study (Becken & Lennox, 2011) showed that international tourists are particularly affected by oil price increases, both as a result of worsening economic conditions in their home countries and higher travel costs. The West Coast's dependence on international visitors and its remoteness suggest that tourism to the Glacier region might be especially impacted by changes in the availability of fuel and the wider tourism industry's response to higher oil prices (e.g. Becken et al., 2010).

### *Methods*

Drawing on a new integrative framework linking Protected Areas to the local complexities of tourism, conservation, community and landscape meaning, against a backdrop of global change (Becken et al., forthcoming), this paper reports on a study of tourism stakeholders at the Glaciers, Westland National Park, New Zealand and their awareness of future climate change and energy scarcity scenarios. Qualitative interviews with 24 respondents, including key informants from conservation, tourism business and infrastructure sectors provided information on stakeholders' perceptions of climate change (including climate variability, increased risk of extreme weather

events, and longer term changes of the glacier) and energy security. Interviews were tape-recorded and analysed using qualitative techniques.

### *Findings*

The weather is an integral part of tourism operations in Westland National Park, and stakeholders expend considerable effort and resources managing their activities around conditions and providing relevant information to tourists. Heavy rain and the consequential risk of flooding are the major concerns, although visibility and wind have also been reported as constraining factors, for example by scenic flight operators. Tourism operators are not fully aware of the fact that climate projections predict higher levels of wind and precipitation on the West Coast, and questions of increasing marginality of business viability have yet to be systematically explored.

In contrast, it appeared that tourism in Franz Josef and Fox Glacier functions around a spirit of pioneerism and a willingness to operate in the face of adversity. Accordingly, interviewees were not overly concerned about natural disasters resulting from extreme weather events, even though flooding and landslides occur frequently and an active flood protection programme is in place to protect the Franz Josef township from major flood threat. The fact that Westland National Park lies on the Great Alpine Fault with an overdue earthquake adds to the almost fatalistic (“I don’t lose sleep over it”) attitude of stakeholders. At the same time, the proximity of, and exposure to natural hazards, in combination with the community’s small but cohesive character, appears to have resulted in significant involvement in civil defence and emergency management systems.

The continued retreat of the glaciers is apparent to tourism stakeholders in Westland National Park; however, it appears to be a background concern rather than an immediate issue that requires attention. A clear focus for park management and guiding operator respondents was the maintenance of (safe) access to the attractions despite changes in conditions. Some interviewees pointed out that diversification is occurring – including the establishment of a hot spa pool attraction in the Franz Josef township, and greater branding emphasis on the kiwi as a local species of significance. However, just as the glaciers are becoming less accessible for tourism, the kiwi is a threatened species that already requires significant resources for its on-going survival.

As with longer term climate change, questions around energy security, peak oil and fuel prices resonate with tourism stakeholders. While definitely a concern in terms of tourist flows and arrivals and also an important issue in relation to living costs of local residents, the issue did not appear to constitute a major factor in people’s future thinking. In fact, interviewees appeared to extrapolate from the last few years and argued that “we have managed before and we will manage in the future”, not realising the broader (global) implications of a peaking of conventional oil supplies.

### *Conclusion*

While both climate change and energy security may present serious challenges for tourism in Westland National Park in the foreseeable future, our data indicate that many

stakeholders are yet to engage with these issues. The inherent risks and demands of the environment, coupled with high levels of resilience in the past, have meant that stakeholders typically make continual but relatively small adaptations in the course of maintaining the status quo, rather than planning to address the global forces that may threaten the sustainability of future tourism enterprise at the Glaciers.

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# The Golden Age of Hysteria, Nervousness and Travelling for Wellbeing

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## Abstract

Preliminary analysis of wellbeing travel research in Victoria, Australia, has confirmed upper middle to upper class women are the primary participants in wellbeing travel. The motive for wellbeing travel participation included restoration and mental health - to escape from their increasingly busy and stressful daily lives. Women's consumption of wellbeing is not only a feature of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The upper class woman of 19<sup>th</sup> century also sought treatment of stress attributed to the impacts of 'over civilisation'. This was often diagnosed as 'hysteria', a cultural phenomenon sustaining the fragility of the upper class women. This paper considers 19<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> century women as primary patrons of wellbeing within the public sphere. In particular, it considers wellbeing travel participation as issues of class, gender and wellbeing as a social practice. Data was collected from one focus group of wellbeing consumers and twelve interviews with industry concerning wellbeing travel in Victoria.

**Key words:** Wellbeing, Wellbeing Travel, Hysteria, Over Civilisation, Gendered Wellbeing

## Introduction

*The 19<sup>th</sup> Century woman*

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century a medical health reform emerged (Carpenter, 2009; Crawford, 2000) in modern western countries. Upper class women's wellbeing and mental health was a public concern (Ussher, 1991) with numerous activities centred upon diagnosis and treatment, (Carpenter, 2001). Women's invalidism (Ehrenreich and English, 2011) transpired as a symptom of perceived over civilisation (Briggs, 2000) a discourse originating from George Beard's work on 'American Nervousness' which was caused by 'modern civilisation...steam-power, the periodical press, the telegraph, the sciences,



and the mental activity of women' (Beard cited in Weiner, 1956, p.4). Life was too overwhelming for the 19<sup>th</sup> century upper class woman.

Doctors, gynaecologists and other such specialists emerged unwrapping a discourse upon which 'comfortable living, combined with worry, was making white women of the middle and upper classes soft and decadent' (Briggs, 2000, p.247). It was suggested that as a consequence, women were not capable of engaging with activities such as education or politics. Ehrenreich and English (2011, p. 17) comment, 'The boredom and confinement of affluent women fostered a morbid cult of hypochondria - "female invalidism"...sickness pervaded upper and upper middle class female culture'.

Women's invalidism further evolved into the medically diagnosed disease *hysteria*; a disease with a substantial and apparent incomplete list of symptoms which was again diagnosed typically in the upper class woman (Briggs, 2000). S.Weir Mitchell (cited in Briggs, 2000, p.254), characterized the majority of his hysterical patients as 'women of the upper classes, where the disease is caused by unhappy love affairs...and the daily fret and wearisomeness of lives'. The disease impacted upon the women's ability to reproduce (considered the women's most important social role of the era) and simultaneously, the inability to reproduce was a symptom of hysteria and what was termed 'incomplete feminisation' (White, 2002).

For some time gender researchers have considered hysteria, rather than a medically diagnosed disease, as a cultural phenomenon (Briggs, 2000; Ehrenreich and English, 2011) which allowed society to ensure women did not partake in any unacceptable social roles. The perceived sick upper class woman became busy with restoration and self care. Some forms of treatment were medical and included 'bleeding, extended bed rest and for women, surgery to remove the ovaries' (Briggs, 2000,p.247). Additionally treatments involved women's participation in what we now term wellbeing travel, 'Health spas and female specialists sprang up everywhere and became part of the regular circuit of fashionable women' (Ehrenreich and English, 2011, p.17).

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century a culture of wellbeing participation existed that encompassed issues of class and gender. Surprisingly preliminary results regarding women and wellbeing travel in Victoria resonate with this model of the 19<sup>th</sup> century woman.

## **Method**

Preliminary analysis of a study exploring wellbeing travel in Victoria, revealed class and gender as prominent themes in the participation of wellbeing travel. The data collected was qualitative including eleven in depth interviews with wellbeing service providers and travel agents in Victoria regarding their destination and customers. Of the wellbeing destinations, two were spa resorts; two small business lifestyle retreats; one health retreat and two large lifestyle resorts. Additionally, a sample of eight 'wellbeing consumers' formed one focus group which discussed the meaning and need for wellbeing improvement in Australia and wellbeing travel participation. Data was transcribed, coded into NVivo and simultaneously analysed with the qualitative thematic analysis method (Braun and Clarke, 2006) and within a social constructionist framework. For the purpose of anonymity the names of participants were changed.

## Results and Discussion

### *The 21<sup>st</sup> century woman.*

Similar to the 19<sup>th</sup> century women who visited spa's and health specialists to relieve mental health issues, woman today also actively seek solutions to improve wellbeing. Travelling for wellbeing (spa's and retreats) is one such activity which is reported to have increased in the past few years, in Australia and internationally (Kaur Klur, 2009). Thematic analysis of the data which explored why wellbeing travel has increased, established a stress theme due to a perceived over stimulation from contemporary society. Participation in wellbeing travel was considered one method to counteract this impact of over civilisation:

...day to day life is much busier too and the stressors that these people go through. They are just wanting time out, so the location without the city and all the noises and going alone - is just beautiful.

I think stress is becoming, well it is the next biggest killer. Everyone's lives are very much busier and I don't think we fully understand the effects of stress internally.

One of the concerns I have about what goes on in the city and in life in general, is that everything is done, there is a lot of noise, a lot of activity, a lot of stimulation with the shops and music ...go buy this and do this, do that, and if you don't your not apart of the system.

These interview excerpts, from three wellbeing travel, destinations outlined conditions of over stimulation similar to the theme of 'over civilisation' established with 19<sup>th</sup> century women. According to the destinations interviewed and the focus group, the wellbeing travel destination offers a sanctuary from civilisation, where decisions are minimal and restoration of mental health from over civilisation can occur:

When people come here all they have to bring is yoga gear and whatever they are going to wear on the weekend, and they don't have to think about where they are going to eat, what they are going to do.

All six wellbeing destinations interviewed confirmed that at least 80% of their customers were women, either alone, with girlfriends or husbands who generally did not participate in wellbeing activities. When asked who wouldn't participate in wellbeing travel, the wellbeing consumer focus group spoke about gender:

Renee: Men wouldn't travel. There too busy making money and they perceive themselves as 'I'm all right'.

Betty: Exactly my husband would think 'well why'?

Ginny: If it aint broke don't fix it!

Therefore, the focus group associated practicing wellbeing and wellbeing travel as an activity that women were most likely to participate. Drawing from their own relationships, they considered their husbands in opposition to wellbeing travel and unconcerned

about their wellbeing. The third theme to emerge from the preliminary analysis was 'class'. Five of the six destinations reported their customers were between upper middle to upper class. Although they did report customers of lower incomes, they explained that they had saved up over time for a once in a life time experience. The focus group, the majority of which consisted of middle income participants, also spoke of the expensive nature of wellbeing travel as one reason the general population could not visit a wellbeing travel destination.

Connecting the themes together, analysis has determined middle to upper class women of the 21<sup>st</sup> century are the key participants in wellbeing travel, seeking sanctuary from their busy and stressful lives. It is because these themes are comparable to the 19<sup>th</sup> century women's experience of wellbeing participation, one could argue the 19<sup>th</sup> century discourse of gendered wellbeing is somewhat perpetuated in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. It can be suggested, it is not that women are necessarily sicker than men, but it is the social practice of wellbeing that is perpetuated. At any point in history our knowledge and actions regarding health and wellbeing are, 1) a social construction reflecting dominant interests of society; and 2) is therefore practiced and sustained by individuals (Conrad & Schneider, 2010). As discussed above, the hysteria discourse offered a method of social control by the intense medicalisation of any signal of women's unrest (White, 2002). Therefore, knowledge of health reflected the dominant interests of society at that time (White, 2002). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, social control of women exists in different forms (a topic too substantial to cover in this paper) however feminist health sociologists still argue that the medical area continues to be patriarchal where men are continually considered, strong and healthy and women are not (White, 2002, p.131):

When defined as medical problems, which can only be resolved with medical solutions, women lose control of fundamental aspect of their experience – fertility, sexuality, menopause and ageing.

The individual practicing health and wellbeing also experiences social benefits. Briggs (2000) contends that the invalid trend of the 19<sup>th</sup> century was a cultural movement amongst upper class women, it was trendy for her to visit spas and seek health specialists. Crawford (2000) argues that currently an external representation of good health, is a signal of freedom and good citizenship. Therefore, partaking in wellbeing activities can be a signal of one's position in society or social class (Crawford, 2000; 2006).

Social trends, such as the increase in wellbeing travel, can be examined within the social context from which it emerged. That is, this paper suggests in order to explore the social practice of wellbeing in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, past discourses of wellbeing should also be considered. Further research is necessary to thoroughly explore the themes of women and wellbeing participation which have emerged from this preliminary analysis.

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# Excellence Legacy: Fringe Festival Awards and Accolades

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## Abstract

In the events literature researchers have considered the economic and socio-cultural impact of festivals (see, for example, Chhabra, Sills & Cabbage, 2003; Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis & Mules, 2000; Moscardo, 2007; Small, 2007). Such tangible and intangible legacies of special events can range from increased local employment, improved infrastructure via new or renovated sports stadia and other venues, urban regeneration, and, increased promotion of health benefits and involvement in healthy activities via high profile sporting events (Dwyer, et al., 2000; Garcia, 2004). Similarly, research into arts festivals in particular, have focused on the same issues as studies in other festivals types namely, the demand, supply and impact of festivals. Quinn (2005) determined that arts festivals contribute substantially to the local economy because of increased visitation to the city and surrounds during the period of the festival, with the added potential for the animation of communities and improvement of quality of life. In addition, the existence of such arts festivals helps to increase revenue flows and increased arts activity in the region, with associated improved venue infrastructure. However, to date few authors have considered the legacy of such special events as fringe festivals (see for example. Quinn, 2006). This is a surprising omission given the important role played by such events in the culture of society and the need to ensure that festivals supported by government spend taxpayers' money in a way that supports the wider community.

**Key words:** Fringe, Festival, Awards, Legacy

A fringe festival has been described as "an opt-in multi-arts festival, involving independent and managed artists creating high and low arts performances, supported by a strong non-profit fringe organisation via marketing and box office activities" (Frew & Ali-Knight, 2010, p.10). Such a definition highlights the significant role played by fringe organizations in supporting artists and highlights the important role of these organizations in strengthening and developing the creative industries in their respective

cities, regions and countries. One of the ways that fringe organizations can support the artists is to establish a range of fringe awards to recognise excellence in the various fringe genres such as comedy, drama, cabaret, dance, music, puppetry, etc. Such rewards then provide a means for the recipients to promote their work and can have a positive knock-on effect for the individual artists, writers and producers. In addition, this juried aspect of the un-juried fringe festival may appeal to some audience members as it removes the uncertainty regarding the quality of future performances.

In 2011 at least 25 awards were associated with the Edinburgh Fringe (Edinburgh Festival Fringe, 2011) and at least 8 awards were associated with the Adelaide Fringe (Adelaide Festival Fringe, 2011). Each award featured different criteria and some of them relied on companies and performers applying individually for the award while others had no entry process and were selected by independent judges. However, in all awards excellence, innovation and/or originality were sought and recognised. This working paper considers these fringe awards and the associated short and medium term legacies of such initiatives at two fringe festivals, namely the Edinburgh Festival Fringe and the Adelaide Fringe Festival. These fringe festivals represent the world's largest and second largest arts festivals respectively, and, are both non-juried, open access combined arts festivals. Both fringe festival organisations have supported high profile awards for many years and the paper reflects on the legacy of such judgments in a non-juried environment and the impacts that they have on the award recipients and their audience.

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# Mobile Ethnography as a new research tool for customer-driven destination management – A case study of applied service design in St. Anton/Austria

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## Abstract

While the value of a strategic design process is widely known and applied to products, its application to services can be still considered as rather new. Tourism as a service industry strongly relies on positive customer experiences particularly since the marketing focus slowly shifts from communication to individually-perceived service quality due to the transparency through social media. Therefore, destinations and their service providers have to constantly manage the customer experience of their guests. The EU funded research project "Service Design in Tourism" analyzes the applicability of mobile ethnography in tourism. Mobile ethnography is a research approach to identify, evaluate and document the customer journey through a smartphone application. The data can be analyzed to reveal both positive and negative touchpoints of a whole destination. The paper reports on the findings of one of seven pilot regions which apply mobile ethnography in St. Anton in Austria.

**Key words:** Service Design, Tourism Destinations, Alpine Tourism, Mobile Ethnography, MyServiceFellow, St. Anton am Arlberg

## Introduction

Tourism as a service industry has to focus on the customers experience prior, during and after their stay in a destination. Tourism products have to be booked and usually paid for in advance without having the possibility of really testing the product beforehand. Social networks and booking platforms are therefore gaining importance



as these enable customers to get some first-hand experience about the services they are about to purchase. Therefore the perceived quality becomes an important factor not only for the customer's satisfaction, but also for the process of decision making (Getz & Carlsen 2000, Morrison, Rimmington & Williams 1999, Smallbone, North & Vickers 1999, Stickdorn 2009). The intentional design of services through the eyes of customers is becoming a fundamental issue in the competition for customer's satisfaction and positive evaluations on rating platforms. Service Design provides an innovative approach to analyze, systematically innovate and improve service processes. Recently, service design is increasingly becoming an integral part of tourism education and research (Stickdorn & Zehrer 2010). However, in the tourism practice service design has been implemented mainly in bigger companies like hotel chains or in the airline business. However, tourism in Europe is dominated by small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). 94% of all European tourism companies employ less than six employees (Buhalis & Cooper 1998, EC 2003, Pechlaner, Raich, Zehrer & Peters 2004). Those small-structured service providers challenge several competitive disadvantages, such as the power for innovation or diversification, limited access to financial resources or poor economies of scale and scope. By following a service-oriented structure however, small-sized tourism enterprises can face those weaknesses and work on a consistent improvement of the perceived service quality and offering authentic tourism products (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons 2001, Lynn, Lytle & Bobek 2000, Lytle & Timmerman 2006, Zehrer 2009).

### **Mobile ethnography**

The easy-applicable mobile ethnography software tool called "myServiceFellow" supports destinations and their service providers to analyze their service quality from a genuine customer-centered perspective. By applying mobile ethnography within a service design process enables organizations to view their service process through the customer's eyes, including the service ecosystem in which certain services are embedded, e.g. social media, competitive offerings, service environment, etc..

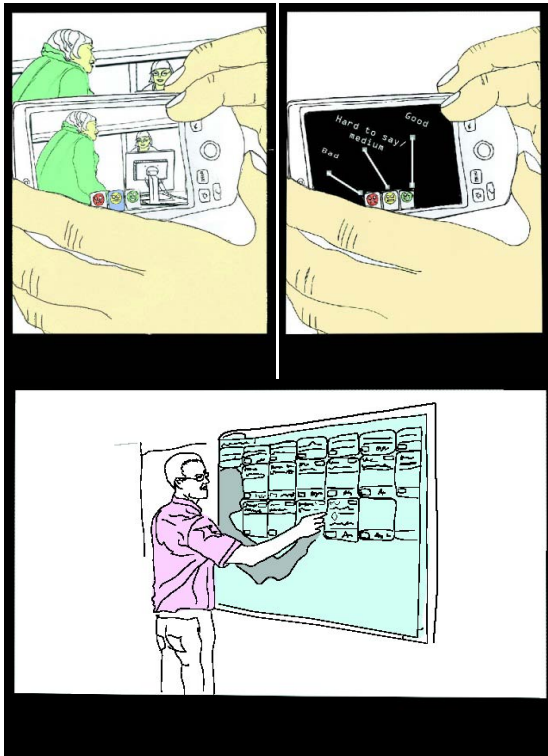


Fig.1: Concept sketches of the mobile ethnography in use (courtesy of Reetta Kerola).

As exemplified in figure 1, selected guests can download the mobile ethnography application “myServiceFellow” to their smartphones (i.e. Android, iPhone, iPod Touch, etc.) and map their whole customer journey including the pre-service period, such as information and booking procedures, on-site destination experiences, such as certain services or individually-perceived amazing moments, as well as the post-service period, such as social media or corporate communication. Thus, mobile ethnography reveals a holistic and customer-centered perspective on the whole service chain within a destination. This approach contrasts other quantitative but also classic qualitative research approaches through its open approach, which intentionally does not predetermine any certain questions or categories. It is the guests who decide what a touchpoint is during their individual customer journey and it is them who evaluate and document those by adding text messages, pictures, videos or audio files besides meta data such as date, time and GPS position (Stickdorn & Zehrer 2010, Stickdorn, Grabmüller, Zehrer & Siller 2010, Stickdorn & Zehrer 2009).

### The research project

The project “Service Design in Tourism” is funded by the European Union under the CIP Competitiveness and Innovation Framework Programme. Besides the Management Center Innsbruck as the lead partner, eight other European institutions (AHO University/Norway, Innovation Norway/Norway, Making Waves/Norway, Linköping University/Sweden, Hotel School Den Haag/Netherlands, Savonia University of applied sciences/Finland, SKEMA Business School/France, Tourismus Zukunft/Germany) are

working together to conduct pilot projects in seven destinations by applying mobile ethnography on destinations and their service providers. The project aims to reveal genuine customer insights into the whole customer journey of a tourist using the approach of mobile ethnography and following the basic principles of service design thinking: user-centered, co-creative, sequencing, evidencing and holistic (Stickdorn & Schneider 2010). The proposed research question is “To what extent does mobile ethnography facilitates a holistic analysis of the touchpoints of a customer journey?” and the research design follows a simplified and adapted model of the Customer Journey Canvas (Stickdorn & Schneider 2010).

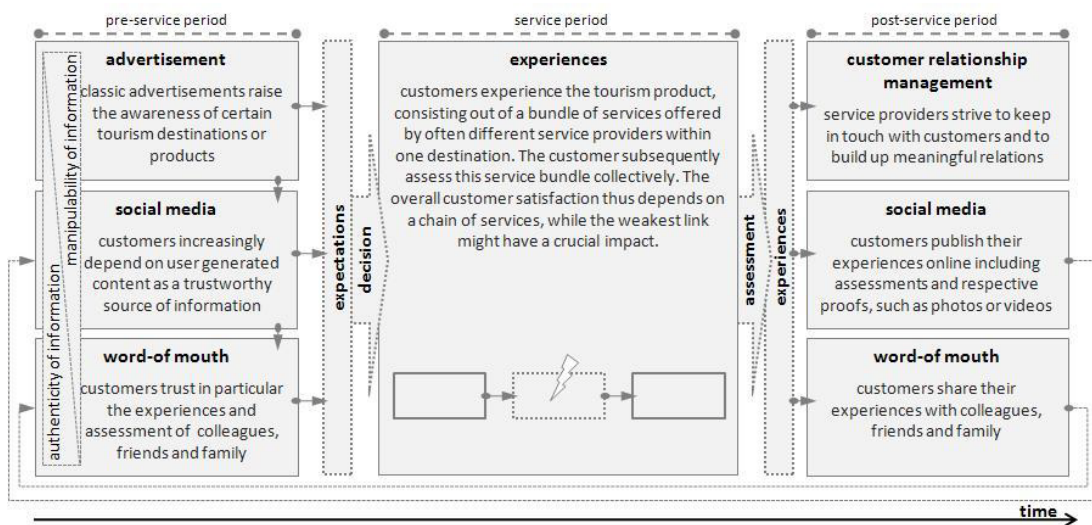


Fig.2: Simplified model of the Customer Journey Canvas (Stickdorn & Schneider 2010).

Following this model, guests are invited to participate in the research project while planning or after booking their holiday via the destination website and social media. Interested customers are asked to download the app “myServiceFellow” from Android market place or AppStore and document their individual customer journey throughout pre-service, service and post-service period. During the final days in the destination, a personal interview is conducted with each participant to discuss their individual customer journey and thus gain in-depth information to the data uploaded. Besides, participants complete a standardized customer survey about the usage of the tool and demographic data. All information is then progressed and analyzed with the back-end software “ServiceFollow”.

### The case St. Anton in Austria

The department of Tourism Business Studies of the Management Center Innsbruck conducts a pilot study in the ski destination of St. Anton in Austria. This classical alpine region has positioned itself as one of the leading winter sports destination in the Austrian Alps and is also member of “Best of the Alps” – a European collaboration of twelve world-famous tourist destinations in the Alps. The tourism region comprises of the four villages of St. Anton am Arlberg, Pettneu am Arlberg, Flirsch and Strengen and in total accounts for 1,4 million annual overnight and 0,3 million arrivals. St. Anton has

developed from a farming-dominated region to a strong winter sports destination where the winter season accounts for 84% of all overnights. It is ranked number 6 of all 34 Tyrolean tourism destinations in winter. The guest structure is rather international with a high number of German (36%), British (17%), Dutch (10%), Austrian (9%), Danish (4%), Swedish and Swiss guests (3% each). The touristic infrastructure includes 13,400 guest beds, a ski resort with 280 km of prepared runs and another 180 km of deep snow runs, 85 lifts and a transport capacity of 123,600 people per hour. The cable-car company "Arlberger Bergbahn" has been one of the main drivers for innovation and investment and has invested € 145 million since 1999 in lifts, restaurants, piste and snow machines. Ski sports like downhill skiing, off-piste skiing, freestyle skiing, cross country skiing and snowboarding are still the dominant activities in winter. Even though après-ski and wellness (swimming, sauna, massages), shopping and other sports like ice-skating and tobogganing form important elements of the touristic winter product. (MacGibbon 2000, Tyrolean Government 2011)

### **The pilot project**

The aim of the pilot project in St. Anton as part of the larger research initiative "Service Design in Tourism" is to provide the destination of St. Anton with an in-depth analysis of their guest's satisfaction during the whole customer journey (pre-service, service and post-service period) through the application of mobile ethnography. As being a qualitative research method the targeted sample size is 50 guests, who spend their holiday in the region between mid December 2011 and end of February 2012. Data will be gathered with the research app "myServiceFellow" and analyzed with the web-based research software "ServiceFollow". It is hoped that in particular the geo positioning through GPS data reveals clusters of critical touchpoints within the destination. The paper on hand is a working paper and at the time of the presentation in February 2012, first findings will be presented.

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## **Creating a new “Golden Age” for domestic travel in Australia: A generational perspective.**

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## **1. Introduction**

Domestic tourism is the backbone of the Australian tourism industry (Tourism Australia, 2007) and represents a significant proportion of tourism in most countries (Hall, 2007). Given the importance of this market, of concern is the recent decline in domestic visitation in Australia and growth in outbound international travel (Tourism Australia, 2007). This trend suggests there has been a generational shift in domestic travel motivations since the "golden age" boom in domestic holidays post-World War II (White, 2005). This study explores the potential reasons for this trend, and ways to reignite consumer motivation for domestic travel. In particular, the study investigates current consumer value perceptions, attitudes and intentions towards domestic holidays in Australia from a generational perspective. The generational cohorts known as the Baby Boomers (born 1946 to 1964), Generation X (born 1965 to 1976) and Generation Y (born 1977 to 1994) are the focus of this study. These cohorts have been the topic of most academic studies, represent the largest adult consumer groups in Australia at present and are having a major influence on worldwide consumer trends. Generational comparisons between these cohorts aim to uncover similarities and differences in their travel motivations and intentions in order to generate academic and practical insights for domestic tourism marketing. These insights are particularly relevant to the Australian tourism industry.

## **2. Methods**

Australians who are members of the Baby Boomer, Generation X and Generation Y cohorts were recruited, via a marketing listing company, to complete a quantitative online survey. Questionnaire items were adapted from existing scales and measured using a 7-point Likert level of agreement scale, consistent with the recommendations of Malhotra (2010). A pilot study (N=50) was conducted. Factor analysis, on both the pilot study and final study data (refer to Appendix 1), showed results within acceptable ranges, consistent with Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black's (1995) recommendations. Age and gender quota sampling were imposed on the full study sample, ensuring all ages were represented and there was not a gender bias to the sample.



### 3. Results

The results are based on 627 responses, including: 353 responses from members of the Baby Boomer cohort; 121 responses from members of Generation X; and 153 responses from members of Generation Y. The demographic profile of the overall sample, as well as for each cohort, reflects all income and education levels as well as family and employment statuses were represented. Table 1 shows that across all cohorts, respondents perceived domestic holidays to offer emotional (EV) and novelty (NV) value, as well as price-value (PV) and quality-value (QV) trade-offs. All cohorts also expressed a positive attitude and intention towards holidays in Australia. Comparison of generational cohorts, however, indicates some significant differences. Baby Boomer and Generation X respondents perceived that domestic holidays offered significantly more EV and NV,  $F_{EV}(2, 629) = 22.24, p < .01$ ;  $F_{NV}(2, 629) = 9.63, p < .01$ , and had a significantly more positive attitude (AT) and intention (IN) towards domestic holidays compared to Generation Y respondents,  $F_{AT}(2, 629) = 17.37, p < .01$ ;  $F_{EV}(2, 629) = 7.61, p < .01$ . Although there was no significant difference between the generational cohorts in terms of perceived QV associated with a domestic holiday ( $F_{QV}(2, 629) = .16, p = .85$ ) Generation X and Generation Y respondents perceived that domestic holidays offered significant better PV compared to Baby Boomer respondents,  $F_{PV}(2, 629) = 6.42, p < .01$ .

**Table 1. Generational Comparisons of Perceived Value, Attitude and Intention Towards a Domestic Holiday**

	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Test statistic	Significant Differences at 0.05 level
<i>Emotional value (EV)</i>			
Baby Boomer	6.18 (1.03)	F (2, 629) = 22.24,  p = <.01	Baby Boomer and Generation X cohorts significantly stronger than Generation Y cohort.
Generation X	5.98 (0.99)		
Generation Y	5.47 (1.33)		
<i>Novelty value (NV)</i>			
Baby Boomer	5.71 (1.19)	F (2, 629) = 9.63,  p = <.01	Baby Boomer and Generation X cohorts significantly stronger than Generation Y cohort.
Generation X	5.65 (1.01)		
Generation Y	5.22 (1.23)		

<b><i>Price/value (PV)</i></b>			
Baby Boomer	4.45 (1.71)	F (2, 629) = 6.42, p = <.01	Generation X and Generation Y cohorts significantly stronger than Baby Boomer cohort.
Generation X	4.86 (1.33)		
Generation Y	4.92 (1.26)		
<b><i>Quality/value (QV)</i></b>			
Baby Boomer	5.03 (1.32)	F (2, 629) = .16, p = .85	No significant difference between the generational cohorts.
Generation X	5.11 (1.15)		
Generation Y	5.06 (1.12)		
<b><i>Attitude (AT)</i></b>			
Baby Boomer	6.06 (1.10)	F (2, 629) = 17.37, p = <.01	Baby Boomer and Generation X cohorts significantly stronger than Generation Y cohort.
Generation X	5.88 (1.10)		
Generation Y	5.41 (1.28)		
<b><i>Intention (IN)</i></b>			
Baby Boomer	5.81 (1.33)	F (2, 629) = 7.61, p = <.01	Baby Boomer and Generation X cohorts significantly stronger than Generation Y cohort.
Generation X	5.71 (1.26)		
Generation Y	5.30 (1.39)		

#### 4. Discussion and Conclusion

This study shows that Australian Baby Boomer, Generation X and Generation Y consumers are positively predisposed to travel domestically. Yet, the decline in domestic visitation suggests that, although Australian consumers have positive associations with domestic holidays, this product is not competing effectively with other consumer options, most notably tangible products (Tourism Australia, 2007). Comparisons of Baby Boomer, Generation X and Generation Y cohorts reveal significant differences between these consumer groups, challenging a generic approach to understanding the Australian consumer travel marketplace. It is, therefore, proposed that to create a new “golden age” of domestic travel, marketers must consider generational cohort membership. Building stronger associations between domestic holidays and achieving positive emotional and novelty outcomes is particularly important for Generation Y consumers. Likewise, improving value for money associations among Baby Boomer consumers is needed. Future tourism research should extend the findings of this study, further conceptualising generational perceptions of value, thereby, revealing underlying reasons for generational differences in value perceptions, attitude and intention. Tapping into the nostalgia of each generational cohort and exploring its relationship to how each cohort perceives value may also lead to further insights into the generational mindset. In summary, this study suggests that the future for domestic tourism looks promising. Adopting a generational perspective to unleash this potential may prove advantageous.

Appendix 1.

Factor Analysis Results of Survey Items

Construct	FL	VE	CA
<b>Perceived emotional value</b>		84.83%	.95
Taking a holiday in Australia is enjoyable.	.94		
Taking a holiday in Australia is exciting.	.96		
Taking a holiday in Australia makes me feel good.	.97		
Taking a holiday in Australia gives me pleasure.	.96		
Taking a holiday in Australia gives me a sense of accomplishment.	.76		
<b>Perceived novelty value</b>		74.47%	.91
Taking a holiday in Australia is something different.	.85		
Taking a holiday in Australia is unique.	.82		
Taking a holiday in Australia increases my knowledge.	.90		
Taking a holiday in Australia offers variety.	.89		
Taking a holiday in Australia is something I can talk about when I get home.	.85		
<b>Perceived price</b>		90.14%	.96
Holidays in Australia are reasonably priced.	.95		
Holidays in Australia offer value for money.	.97		
Holidays in Australia are a good experience for the price.	.94		
Holidays in Australia are economical.	.95		
<b>Perceived quality</b>		84.76%	.94
Holidays in Australia offer consistent quality.	.88		

Holidays in Australia are well done.	.95		
Holidays in Australia offer an acceptable standard of quality.	.92		
Holidays in Australia are well organised.	.93		
<b>Attitude</b>		93.32%	.96
Holidays in Australia are good.	.96		
I like holidays in Australia.	.98		
I have a favourable attitude towards holidays in Australia.	.96		
<b>Intention</b>		79.16%	.87
I would recommend a holiday in Australia to others.	.80		
I intend to go on a holiday in Australia in the near future.	.94		
I am likely to go on a holiday in Australia in the next 12 months.	.92		

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Note. FL – Factor loading; VE – Variance explained; CA – Cronbach's alpha.

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# From backpacking to volunteer tourism: Exploring the changing role of adventure

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## **Abstract**

This paper highlights the similarities and overlap between backpackers and volunteer tourists. Backpackers are interested in a more adventurous form of travel than that provided by mass tourism. They identify themselves in contrast to mass tourists and pride themselves in traveling off the beaten track and having more authentic experiences. However, as backpacking has become increasingly commercialized and sanitized, the associated sense of adventure has diminished. In their quest for a more adventurous travel experience, backpackers instead turn to alternative forms of tourism, for example, volunteer tourism. This leads to the question: is volunteer tourism to Generation Y what backpacking was to previous generations? This paper reviews the motivations of backpackers and volunteer tourists and explores Generation Y's shift from backpacking and adventure to volunteer tourism and altruism.

**Key words:** Backpackers, Volunteer Tourists, Motivation, Adventure

## **Introduction**

The majority of backpackers and volunteer tourists were born in the 1980's and 1990's and can therefore be referred to as Generation Y. They are the children of baby boomers – many of whom were early backpackers themselves – and have grown up in a consumer culture (Jennings et al., 2010). Backpacking has become increasingly commercialized in recent years (Speitzhofer, 1998) and increasing numbers of Generation Y appear to be instead turning to volunteer tourism as they search for a more authentic and adventurous travel experience. It is estimated that globally there are around 1.6 million volunteer tourists per year (Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008).

There is no longer a clear distinction between backpackers and volunteer tourists. As backpackers, volunteer tourists “try to get rid of the burden of mass tourists and in the role of volunteers they differentiate themselves from conventional backpackers”

(Mustonen, 2007, p. 111). Many backpackers choose to undertake a period of volunteering during their overseas trip and many volunteer tourists also backpack before, after or even during their volunteering experience (Laythorpe, 2010).

### **Backpackers**

Backpackers are generally defined as travelers who are young, stay in budget accommodation, emphasize meeting other travelers, travel independently, have a flexible itinerary, are on a longer rather than brief trip, and focus on informal and participatory tourist activities (Pearce, 1990). Travel allows backpackers to experience new things (Cohen, 2004; O'Reilly, 2006), to learn about other cultures and to meet new people (Cohen, 2004; Pearce, 1990; Riley, 1988). Backpackers often travel as a means of escape or time out from the real world (Pearce, 1990; Riley, 1988). Backpacking forces young people to solve their own problems (Cohen, 2004) and thereby become more independent. For these reasons, backpacking is often associated with ideas of self-development (Desforges, 1998) and identity formation (O'Reilly, 2006).

### **Volunteer tourists**

Wearing (2001, p. 240) defines volunteer tourists as those who "volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that may involve the aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments, or research into aspects of society or environment". Like backpackers, volunteer tourists are not a homogeneous group and the volunteer activities they undertake and destinations in which they volunteer vary.

Volunteer tourists are motivated by a desire to travel (Chen & Chen, 2011; Sin, 2009), to have adventures (Laythorpe, 2010), to meet new people (Broad, 2003; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Wearing, 2001), to learn about other cultures (Chen & Chen, 2011; Rehberg, 2005), and to have a more authentic experience (Brown, 2005; Chen & Chen, 2011). Altruistic motivations are often cited as one of volunteer tourists' main motivating factors, including the desire to help (Chen & Chen, 2011), to give back (Brown, 2005), to contribute (Sin, 2009), and to achieve "something positive for others" (Rehberg, 2005, p. 109). Volunteer tourists are also motivated by perceived personal benefits (Laythorpe, 2010) similar to those experienced by backpackers, for example, "discovering or transcending personal limits" (Rehberg, 2005, p. 119), study and/or educational purposes (Sin, 2009), or to acquire skills and/or professional experience (Broad, 2003; Rehberg, 2005).

### **From adventure to altruism?**

Backpacking is often associated with adventure (Elsrud, 2001) but as backpacking has become part of the mainstream tourism industry, the associated sense of adventure has diminished. Generation Y instead appear to be exploring other potential travel opportunities, for example, volunteer tourism. This leads to the question: is volunteer tourism to Generation Y what backpacking was to previous generations? Backpackers and volunteer tourists are often motivated by similar desires and wants (Ooi & Laing, 2010). The common difference is perhaps that while backpackers travel predominantly



in order to benefit themselves, volunteer tourists are traditionally perceived as being motivated by more selfless or altruistic factors. Has the altruism of volunteer tourism therefore replaced the adventure of backpacking?

Altruism can be defined as the "tendency to see the needs of others as more important than one's own and to therefore be willing to sacrifice for others" (Johnson, 2000, p. 11). However, altruistic and more self-serving motivations are not mutually exclusive, for example, backpackers are motivated by the desire to learn about other cultures and volunteering can be viewed as one way for travelers to meet and engage with locals (Matthews, 2008, p. 102). Volunteer tourism can also "be seen as a novel way for backpackers to increase 'cultural capital'" (Ooi & Laing, 2010, p. 200).

Backpacking and volunteer tourism were both developed as alternatives to mass tourism. However, as they became more popular, the potential for profit also increased and ultimately both have evolved to become increasingly commercialized. Tomazos and Butler (2009, p. 196) state that over the last twenty years volunteer tourism has shifted "from an individual altruistic endeavor to a more commercial form of conventional tourism". Companies such as i-to-i cater almost exclusively for volunteer tourists and promote volunteer tourism as enabling travelers to "become part of the local community and have the kind of authentic cultural experiences that backpackers and package tourists aren't even dream about" (i-to-i, 2011). This emphasis on having an authentic experience appears to be prioritized over more altruistic motivations.

## **Conclusion**

In this paper I review the literature focusing on the motivations of backpackers and volunteer tourists. As backpacking has become more commercialized and sanitized, young travelers have begun to look elsewhere for adventure, and alternative experiences such as volunteer tourism have thus evolved to meet this need. Further research is required to explore the roles of both adventure and altruism in motivating contemporary backpacker-volunteers.

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# Can volunteer tourism be more than just the successful commodification of altruism?

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## **Abstract**

This paper examines how the commodification of altruism has resulted in the growth of volunteer tourism providing a feel-good product at a premium price. Volunteer tourism has a great deal to contribute to individual identity in urban industrial society, but this is potentially being overshadowed by a market economy which commodifies leisure and produces it for a mass market with an emphasis on profit. This leads us to examine how the conformity of mass tourism could potentially be destroying or restricting individual traveler identity, thereby devaluing the experience of volunteer tourism. We suggest tourism operators could provide a more balanced approach by moving beyond purely commercial operations and instead exploring the altruism of volunteer tourism and the potential associated benefits for both volunteers and the host community.

**Key words:** Volunteer Tourism, Altruism, Commodification, Identity

## **Introduction**

Volunteer tourism involves tourists volunteering "in an organized way to undertake holidays that may involve the aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments, or research into aspects of society or environment" (Wearing, 2001, p. 240). Like other forms of alternative tourism, volunteer tourism was initially developed in contrast to mass tourism. However, in the past two decades volunteer tourism has grown exponentially and there is now a highly commercialized and, we would argue, highly commodified sub-section of volunteer tourism.

## **Commodification**

Commodities can be defined as:

Any good or service produced in order to sell or otherwise exchange it for something else in the market system... nothing is inherently a commodity; a commodity exists only through its position in relation to markets and the process of exchange. (Johnson, 2000, p. 51)

Commodification is therefore the action or process of transforming a good or service into a commodity (Oxford English Dictionary, 1989).

This concept of commodification stems from the first volume of Marx's seminal work *Das Kapital* or *Capital*, published in 1867. Marx (1952) proposed that commodities have two values: use value and exchange value. Use value relates to utility while exchange value relates to how much something is worth to exchange in a market setting. Cloke and Perkins (2002, p. 526) state that commodification occurs when there is "an inversion of exchange value over use value. Objects become commodities when they take on an exchange value over and above their use values and are [therefore] able to be traded".

Within the tourism literature commodification is most commonly referred to in discussions relating to the commodification of host culture as a result of tourism (for example Greenwood, 1989; Pigliasco, 2010; Ryan & Aicken, 2005; Shepherd, 2002). Other tourism examples include the commodification of the natural environment in ecotourism (Cousins, Evans, & Sadler, 2009; King & Stewart, 1996), the commodification of adventure in backpacking (Cloke & Perkins, 2002), and the commodification of the poor in poverty tourism (Selinger, 2009). Commodification is closely associated with ideas of authenticity (Cohen, 1988; Shepherd, 2002); as something becomes more commercialized and hence more commodified it almost inevitably becomes less authentic.

## **Altruism and volunteer tourism**

Altruism can be defined as the "tendency to see the needs of others as more important than one's own and to therefore be willing to sacrifice for others" (Johnson, 2000, p. 11). Volunteer tourism is traditionally viewed as a more ethical form of tourism and there is often an assumption that volunteers are motivated – at least partly – by altruistic or philanthropic factors (Brown, 2005; Rehberg, 2005; Sin, 2009).

Volunteer tourism in contemporary neo-liberalist society holds a precarious position; its intrinsic value to volunteers and host communities lies in its altruistic intentions while at the same time it has the potential to be exploited as merely a commodified product. While volunteer tourists may traditionally have been primarily motivated by altruistic tendencies, we propose that commercialization has essentially led to the commodification of altruism within volunteer tourism. The uneasy juxtaposition of intended good and commodification for profit raises a range of issues, particularly

around the production of volunteer tourism for a mass market and the consequential impact on quality for both volunteers and host communities.

Marginson (1988, pp. 106-108) argues that:

The individual and the commodity form continue to generate each other. But the free market and discourse today is provided by, and is the producer of, a new and powerful abstraction of the individual commodity coupling: a new abstraction that has its roots in the colonization of more and more spheres of social life by the commodity form.

For example, volunteering to work in an orphanage provides labor and resources to the organizations running the orphanage, a sense of good will to the volunteer and human contact to the orphans. The continual turnover of volunteers can create attachment and abandonment issues for the children in the orphanage (Richter & Norman, 2010) but without the foreign volunteers many of these orphanages would struggle to even exist. There are strong positive emotions associated with this type of tourism and it is therefore able to be branded and marketed. In many cases satisfying the wants of the volunteer tourists has become more important than meeting the needs of the host community whom the volunteer tourists are supposedly there to help (Baillie Smith & Laurie, 2011).

### **Conclusion**

There has been some previous research on the commodification of volunteer tourism (Baillie Smith & Laurie, 2011; Coren & Gray, in press; Gray & Campbell, 2007) but there appears to have been no research to date that focuses specifically on the commodification of altruism within volunteer tourism. Research has however been published on the commodification of altruism in other contexts including Fair Trade (Brown, 2008) and organ donation (Scheper-Hughes, 2002). We have examined this literature and explored ideas around the commodification of altruism to establish what research may be required to further the development of volunteer tourism.

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# Personal growth through volunteer tourism

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## Abstract

The act of re-entering the home country after a period of time abroad can be difficult for travellers. This paper explores the re-entry processes of volunteer tourists. In the six months after their return they are able to articulate physical, behavioural and situational changes which have resulted from their time volunteering in a developing country. This paper concludes that volunteer tourism has the potential to foster personal growth and change for the individual.

**Key words:** Acculturation, Cultural Contact, Experience, Re-entry, Volunteer Tourism

## Background

Re-entry ([N. J. Adler, 1981](#); [Brabant, Palmer, & Gramling, 1990](#); [Callahan, 2010](#); [Martin & Harrel, 2004](#); [Mitchell, 2006](#); [Rohrlich & Martin, 1991](#); [Smith, 2002](#); [Uehara, 1986](#)) has become a fashionable topic to study among researchers in the last three decades. Also known as “reverse culture shock” ([Gaw, 2000](#); [Harris & Moran, 1996](#); [Samovar, Porter, & Stefani, 1998](#)) and “cross-cultural readjustment” ([Rogers & Ward, 1993](#); [Searle & Ward, 1990](#); [Colleen Ward & Kennedy, 1993](#); [C. Ward & Kennedy, 2001](#); [Colleen Ward & Searle, 1991](#)), Adler ([1981, p. 343](#)) was one of the first to study the effects of cultural readjustment.

Cross-cultural *readjustment* is the transition from a foreign culture back into one’s home culture. It is the experience of facing previously familiar surroundings after living in a different environment after a significant period of time.

Adler followed the journey of 200 employees and found that ‘re-entry to the original culture was found to be a more difficult transition than was the move to the foreign culture’ ([p. 341](#)). The result of such shock is ‘when sojourners leave home, they often carry with them a static, mental and emotional snapshot of home; on some level, they expect home to stand still [and therefore,] they can be unprepared, then, for the changes that have occurred at home during their absence-changes that no longer match their image of home’ ([Mitchell, 2006, p. 5](#)).

This study follows 14 volunteer tourists who volunteered for a period of six to ten weeks in Costa Rica, Mexico or Vanuatu in the areas of education, conservation, construction and also in orphanages. This was part of organised Youth Challenge Australia (YCA) projects which took place in the Australian summer holidays 2010 - 2011. The participants were interviewed three times: two weeks prior to departure; one week after return and; six months after return. The interviews were semi-structured with all questions asking the participants to 'tell me [how you feel] about...'. This gave them greater flexibility to discuss the range of topics from their perspectives.

### Key Results

Re-entry experience is based largely on the in-country living style of the individual ([Citron, 1996](#)). Often volunteer tourists live by and value the cultural practices of the host country (cf. [Matthews, 2008](#); [McIntosh & Zahra, 2007](#)) which can lead to negative re-entry experiences like difficulty in readjusting. The 14 volunteer tourists in this study adopted quite different living styles and therefore their experiences varied upon return. For example, Paula<sup>1</sup> lived by her home country norms in Mexico. Therefore, the re-entry shock she experienced was minimal. She did however find aspects of her life challenging in re-entry. There were several things she was unaccustomed to and she experienced a relationship break-up and value shift. Her time in Mexico also had a positive outcome.

I already feel that one of the impacts is that I'm less inclined to leave things for tomorrow, like I feel like I'm actually more, like even if I feel like I don't want to do it right now, I don't really want to sit there and read through all these jobs descriptions and stuff, I feel like I should do it right now and not leave it till tomorrow and I think that's definitely a change that comes from me being in Mexico and having to just suck it up and do things. (Final Interview)

Paula did not express any longing to return to Mexico, to travel or volunteer again in the near future.

On the other hand, Simon<sup>2</sup> lived in Vanuatu like a local ni-Vanuatu. He picked up Bislama (the local language) very quickly and spent much of the time interacting with the local people. He felt very motivated to change his life immediately upon return and moved to Sydney as a result. However, this move did not last long and he soon found himself hitchhiking up to Cairns and then back in Melbourne planning for his next trip to China. Six months after return he explained that he didn't want to get stuck in one place. Instead he was working towards new travel and possibly volunteer goals sparked by his volunteer experience.

I guess I'm just up in the air waiting for the next thing, I just know I don't want to settle down again and get stuck. So now I'm like "now I have to find the other thing apart from after this one and go and do that" and you know, not "oh shit, that I have a six month lease" or "oh shit I have a yearlong lease" or "I can't quit this job cause I signed a full time contract". It's like ridiculous.

(Final Interview)

## Concluding Thoughts

While not generalisable the results of this study add to the body of knowledge of cross-cultural studies in tourism. Adler ([1975](#)) argued that a cross-cultural encounter fosters growth, self-development and learning as well as some of the negative feelings of isolation or helplessness and it should be termed the 'transition experience'. Paula's journey shows that transition can occur in re-entry without a particularly strong cross-cultural encounter in Mexico while Simon's transition resulted from profound encounters in Vanuatu. Practically then, these results show that volunteer tourism can assist in youth development and growth and positive transformation.

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<sup>1</sup> Paula (a pseudonym) is a 22 year old Law student living in Sydney, Australia. She describes herself as both Indian and Australian born to Fijian Indian parents in Australia. Paula was brought up in the Hindu faith but is not overly religious. She is well travelled having visited family several times in India and Fiji but has never spent significant time abroad by herself.

<sup>2</sup> Simon (a pseudonym) is an 18 year old Caucasian Australian from Melbourne. He was born to a Lesbian couple who split while he was very young and is still in close contact with his mothers and father. As a result of his family life, he moved around a lot as a child but spent most of his time with his birth mother.

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# Travel Information Search Behaviour of Digital Natives

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## **Abstract**

Visitor information centres (VICs), call centres, brochures and websites are established ways in which tourism destinations communicate with potential and actual visitors and provide information about their destination (Pearce, 2004; Mistilis & D'Ambra, 2008; Ballantyne, Hughes & Ritchie, 2009). However, new information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as social media and GPS technology are changing how destination marketing organizations (DMOs) must operate effectively in order to satisfy visitor information needs. They also change visitor expectations in terms of what information should be available and in what ways.

**Key words:** Digital Natives, Travel Information Search, Technology Use, Visitor Information Centres, Travel Planning, Destination Marketing

## **Introduction and Background**

Visitor information centres (VICs), call centres, brochures and websites are established ways in which tourism destinations communicate with potential and actual visitors and provide information about their destination (Pearce, 2004; Mistilis & D'Ambra, 2008; Ballantyne, Hughes & Ritchie, 2009). However, new information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as social media and GPS technology are changing how destination marketing organizations (DMOs) must operate effectively in order to satisfy visitor information needs. They also change visitor expectations in terms of what information should be available and in what ways.

It is generally assumed that such ICT-induced changes in travel search behaviours are especially prominent among digital natives because of their heavy technology use and great technology affinity. Digital natives, or those who have been born roughly after 1980, are different than previous generations but not just in fashion, taste, or slang. These individuals have grown up with digital technologies woven into their everyday life through the use of computers, video games, music players and other technology tools. Rapid dissemination of digital technology throughout their lives has changed them fundamentally in the way they think, receive information, and perform (Prensky, 2001). It has been stated that digital natives learn differently, they are active experiential learners and multi-taskers. They mingle, learn, and play online and are thus dependent on their communication technologies and usually receive input from a number of sources concurrently (Gasser & Simun, 2010, Bennett, Maton & Kervin, 2008). Many, once they start using a mobile phone, become dependent on their mobile phone and would feel lost without it (Aoki & Downes, 2003). The Internet is their first stop when searching for information and is not just a tool for research but a means for tapping into and connecting with a variety of communities.

Digital natives are also different in the way they travel (Benckendorff, Moscardo & Pendergast, 2009). Gasser and Simun (2010) describe how ICTs penetrate all aspects of digital natives' travel experiences from the very extensive information search processes supported by digital media and the connecting and documenting of experiences during the trip to the continuation of the travel experiences upon return home through reviewing and remixing/editing of what was experienced.

Despite the growing research on digital natives and the specific interest in understanding their travel behaviours, little empirical research currently exists looking at the way digital natives plan trips and search for travel information as well as the manner in which they negotiate technology use during travel. Therefore, the research presented in this paper addressed questions related to use and perceptions of information sources by digital natives and the role technology plays in facilitating their trips.

## **Methodology**

Qualitative research using focus groups was selected as the research methodology to obtain thick descriptions of the how and why of technology use by digital natives in the context of travel planning and actual travel. A total 21 individuals were recruited who were between the age of 15 and 32. These individuals were recruited through a snowballing method starting with personal contacts of the researchers. All had either domestic or international travel experience. Three focus groups were formed and conducted over a week in October 2011. Food was provided for the participants during the discussion groups to provide a casual and relaxed atmosphere that corresponds to the culture of digital natives. The focus groups were moderated and each lasted approximately 90 minutes. The discussion groups were audio and video recorded. Each participant was given a \$30 gift card for their participation.

## **Results**

The digital natives who participated in the focus groups clearly distinguish between their own and their parents' travel behaviours. They describe their parents as engaging in more planning and relying more on traditional information sources (maps, brochures, magazines) and distribution channels such as travel agents. They further describe their parents as traditional tourists who will visit major sites when travelling. In contrast, they depict their own travel as a quest for unique experiences. They see themselves as explorers who go with the flow. Their life is structured and they had to go on structured trips with their parents. Now they want freedom when on vacation. They plan key things but then "fill in the rest" when at the destination. They also consider themselves to be more experienced travellers than their parents, especially with respect to international travel. They portray themselves as adventurous travellers, even staying overnight with unknown friends of friends – something their parents would never do.

Their exploratory behaviour does not mean they do not plan; rather, they engage in very extensive research online to make sure they are not missing out on anything. However, they do not book in advance unless they think this will provide them with a better deal or will prevent them from not being able to have an experience they wanted to have due to limited supply, e.g. in the case of concerts that might sell out. They certainly do not limit themselves to electronic information sources. Travel agents are still used by several of them, mostly to get quotes for comparison purposes to make sure they are getting the best price on flights and accommodation. Their quest for unique experiences fuels a need for specialized and localized information that they often seek from friends or friends of friends who live at a destination. Localized knowledge is also sought when at the destination by talking to hotel concierges or local residents and fellow travellers. Guide books such as Lonelyplanet play a role in international travel.

Interestingly, while VICs were not mentioned in the conversations about information sources, when prompted to reflect on them, the focus group participants perceived them as valuable if they facilitate personalized interactions with knowledgeable individuals and provide previews of experiences through big map displays. The digital natives do not find brochure racks very useful and will not go out of their way to find a VIC.

The focus groups further investigated the digital natives' relationship with and dependence on certain technologies and how this influenced their information search before and during their trip as well as their communication patterns. The results revealed that digital natives are very much aware of their heavy technology use but are also very critical of it and sometimes use travel as a way to break free from their technology-mediated lives.

## **Conclusion**

Digital natives are the new generation of travellers and DMOs will have to adjust their information offerings in order to cater to the specific needs of this group. The findings suggest that online information sources are critical but do not replace traditional sources of travel information; thus, DMOs will have to maintain multiple connection points and manage diverse conversations with this growing group of travel consumers.



Digital natives are information-hungry and demand localized insights rather than generic marketing blurb. Further, they love their gadgets but also value personal connections. From a theoretical perspective, the results inform our understanding of technological dependence and how it is negotiated in the context of travel. The research also suggests that the influence of ICTs in travel is complex and does not lead to a simple replacement of traditional sources. It will be important to track how digital natives' travel information search and decision-making processes change as they advance their travel careers.

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# An Exploration of Tourist Wayfinding in Sydney

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## **Abstract**

Destination marketing organisations such as Destination NSW are often involved in the provision of visitor information services. Destination NSW is heavily involved in providing pre-travel visitor information services to assist visitors in planning their trip and booking activities, accommodation, tours and side-trips. It works in partnership with other government agencies to deliver information to visitors post arrival as well. Recognising Sydney's key role as a gateway city to NSW and other parts of Australia, Destination NSW facilitated a review of visitor information service provision across the numerous industry and government stakeholders involved in Visitor Information Servicing (VIS) in Sydney. Exemplary practices VIS from around the world were examined and a strategy developed to lift the competitiveness of Sydney.

## **EXTENDED ABSTRACT**

Destination marketing organisations such as Destination NSW are often involved in the provision of visitor information services. Destination NSW is heavily involved in providing pre-travel visitor information services to assist visitors in planning their trip and booking activities, accommodation, tours and side-trips. It works in partnership with other government agencies to deliver information to visitors post arrival as well. Recognising Sydney's key role as a gateway city to NSW and other parts of Australia, Destination NSW facilitated a review of visitor information service provision across the numerous industry and government stakeholders involved in Visitor Information Servicing (VIS) in Sydney. Exemplary practices VIS from around the world were examined and a strategy developed to lift the competitiveness of Sydney.

Throughout the process of the review and continuing into the implementation phase of the strategy, research was gathered and an evidence-based approach was adopted. An important part of this approach was in forming partnerships with the education sector, particularly for primary research. The project drew upon collaborative research that explored the motivations, needs and actual travel behaviours of visitors to Sydney and trialled techniques using Global Positioning System (GPS) tracking technologies to explore the paths that visitors take through the city (Edwards, Griffin, Hayllar, Dickson, & Schweinsberg, 2009). However it was considered necessary to specifically explore the wayfinding behaviours of visitors and identify areas of difficulty for visitors to Sydney. This paper reports on the outcomes of that research.

For tourists, the optimal way to experience a foreign city is to explore it on foot, which both enables a physical connection to the city and allows time to absorb details of the urban environment. Easily finding a variety of routes that possess different attributes can enhance visitors' experiences and broaden their engagement with the city. However, to have those opportunities visitors must be able to easily navigate a city either by following visual cues or by using effective wayfinding systems, including signage and maps. While there is substantial body of literature relating to wayfinding in general (e.g. Lynch, 1960; Golledge, 1999; Allen, 1999; Collucia & Louse, 2004; Hund & Minarik, 2009; Nothegger, Winter & Raubal, 2009), few studies have been conducted in relation to tourists specifically (e.g. Samarasekara, Fukahori & Kubota, 2011) and even fewer with an urban tourism focus, for example Findlay and Southwell (2011) examined wayfinding in the context of forest recreation sites.

To develop a better understanding of tourist wayfinding in Sydney and thereby contribute to Destination NSW's review of VIS, this study sought to:

- Examine how tourists currently make their way around Sydney, including identifying major routes taken and tools used to assist wayfinding;
- Examine tourists' use of public transport and identify any significant issues that constrain or otherwise influence their usage, e.g. understanding of routes and ticketing systems
- Identify significant landmarks that assist with wayfinding around Sydney; and
- Determine whether, from a tourist's perspective, Sydney's visitor information centres (VICs) are currently in appropriate locations.

To achieve these objectives 41 interviews were conducted with 60 tourists in Sydney between 19<sup>th</sup> April and 6<sup>th</sup> May 2011. Tourists were recruited and semi-structured interviews were conducted at the Sydney Visitor Information Centre (SVIC) at The Rocks. Eighty-one percent of those interviewed were international visitors, originating from a total of fifteen different countries. The majority (61%) were on their first visit to Sydney, although two-thirds of the travelling parties (individuals + groups) interviewed had been in Sydney for at least two days.

Key findings relating to the wayfinding behaviour of visitors to Sydney included:

- Most had done some research on the internet prior to arrival. However many reported that, post arrival, they had simply wandered and stumbled upon things with their map as their main guide. A few had accessed Apps and the internet whilst wandering around.
- Paper maps acquired at accommodation establishments were the most common wayfinding tools used. Mobile phone apps were rarely used by international tourists due to the cost of global roaming, while the guidance systems on GPS devices become unreliable when amongst tall buildings as the satellite signal gets lost.
- Routes tend to be chosen by referring to a map before setting out for the day, with familiar routes then used over and over again during the course of a visit. Often a more ‘interesting’ or scenic route is chosen when heading out and a more direct route is used when returning to accommodation at the end of the day.
- Walking was the preferred method of getting around, as it afforded more control and was cheaper than alternatives. In contrast, visitors felt uneasy about using buses because they could be taken to an unfamiliar place and not know how to get back.
- Visitors stick to main roads, even when wandering. Sydney’s laneways and smaller streets lack cues that might induce people to wander down them. There were comments about the lack of laneway culture and generally there was little to suggest that the fine grain of the city has much to offer tourists, even though visitors expressed a desire to explore beyond the main streets.
- Visitors made much use of landmarks to aid orientation and route finding. The Opera House, Sydney Tower and the Harbour Bridge were the most common landmarks used by visitors, followed by the Queen Victoria Building, Hyde Park and The Art Gallery of NSW. High-rise buildings like the UTS tower or Sydney Tower were used to demark a particular area of town that visitors needed to get to.

The study also identified a number of key problems associated with wayfinding, information and transport services in Sydney, including:

- Current visitor information centres (VICs) were poorly located and difficult to find. Preferred locations were Circular Quay (main orientation point) and transport hubs (e.g. Central Station).
- While generally regarded as satisfactory, there were some specific problems identified with signage, e.g. getting to The Rocks after walking off the Harbour Bridge.
- Public transport was generally seen as expensive, slow and confusing in relation to routes and ticketing systems. These problems were particularly

applicable to buses. There was, however, a desire amongst some visitors to be able to use public transport in order to explore the beyond the city centre.

- Visitors felt ill-informed about precincts beyond the city centre, and it was not easy to find information about these places. This discouraged exploration beyond the centre as people did not want to waste time wandering to an area they knew little about and risk finding nothing of interest there. It was generally felt that Sydney sells itself on its icons, not its neighbourhoods or cultures. Maps need to be extended to give information about places other than the centre.

Generally, the study produced some useful insights into tourists' wayfinding behaviour and current problems encountered. These findings have subsequently informed the review of VIS in Sydney. It should be noted, however, that the study has some limitations of scope and scale. It was a qualitative study which enabled an in-depth investigation of the matters at hand, but with a small and not necessarily representative sample. The requirement to conduct lengthy interviews meant that the participants needed to be reasonably proficient in English. Hence there may be additional issues associated with non-English speaking tourists. The qualitative nature of the study also meant that it was able to reveal a range of views but not necessarily measure the strength of those views amongst visitors as a population.

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# The Linkages between Tourism and Handicraft into Value Chain Analysis for Rural Poverty Alleviation: Case Study of Setiu Wetland, Malaysia

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## **Abstract**

The concept of tourism value chain analysis is applied to identify opportunities which could extend the potential to involve communities in different business activities, with a specific focus on strengthening linkages with the local economy and local people within it. This paper will present the handicraft value chain analysis, as one of the sub-chains assessed in the tourism value chain from an on-going PhD study involving Pro-Poor Tourism and rural poverty alleviation of Setiu Wetland and this paper thus explores the linkages between tourism and handicraft in the area's tourism economy. The research shows that handicraft is one of the main sources of income at household level besides fishing as the main income; however subsistence agriculture and other rural activities are needed to sustain villagers' livelihoods. Through an analysis of their position in the chain, opportunities have been identified in order to improve the economic benefit for the craft producers.

**Key words:** Handicraft, Value Chain Analysis, Tourism, Rural Poverty Alleviation

## **INTRODUCTION**

As many of other developing countries, tourism is one of the key drivers of Malaysia's socioeconomic development (WTO, 2008). Tourism represents a strong economic opportunity for Malaysia (Nair, Mohamad, & Hamzah, 2009). Hence, tourism allows the establishment of many linkages with the local handicraft producers and sellers. Handicraft production is increasingly considered a rural nonfarm livelihood activity for many people in Malaysia which has an abundance of craft communities being known for a specialized craft, such as Weaving, Wood Carving, *Batik*, *Songket*, Kite-Making, Boat-Making and so on (ECERDC, 2009). The craft sector in general finds itself at a crossroad with a number of economic sectors, which serve as an opportunity for marginalized craft making communities. In the culturally-rich area of Setiu Wetland, the handicraft industry has long been an important although subsidiary economic activity supporting agricultural endeavours.

## **THEORETICAL CONTEXT**

Value chain analysis – the process of input supply, production, trade and consumption of a product – needs to be clearly explained in this research in order to understand the workings of economic organization (Bolwig, Ponte, du Toit, Riisgaard, & Halberg, 2008:9; Kaplinsky & Morris, 2002). Tourism value chain analysis and intervention is an emerging approach to poverty alleviation through tourism. It's not new in the tourism world either, where it has been adapted to follow the service-delivery and tourist-spending chain in tourism businesses and destinations respectively (Faal & Mitchell, 2006). However, it has only recently been adopted by development organizations as a sound way to measure and increase the linkage of tourism activities for the poor. This approach is showing potential. The value chain analysis has brought forward a map of flows on how crafts from Setiu Wetland progress through several stages before reaching their end-user/customer. As the value chain is currently in its early stages of development, this approach has been chosen to identify new pathways for development that work in the advantage of handicraft's producer group. Since tourism is not a simple industry, its value chain is not straightforward either. Craft sector interlinks twice with tourism in the value chain: as part of the tourist shopping and as part of the experience (Jonathan Mitchell & Phuc, 2007). According to ODI (2009), the craft chain is a major beneficiary of tourists' out-of-pocket spending, which is generally more pro-poor than the large ticket items, such as hotels and transportation.

## **METHODOLOGY**

The research methods used for this study are a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, complemented with secondary research beforehand and after the fieldwork. The quantitative data consist of a consumer survey (tourist questionnaire) and producer survey (head of household questionnaire). On the other hand, the qualitative data consist of several semi-structured interviews with a number of professional bodies and private sector.

## **DATA COLLECTION**

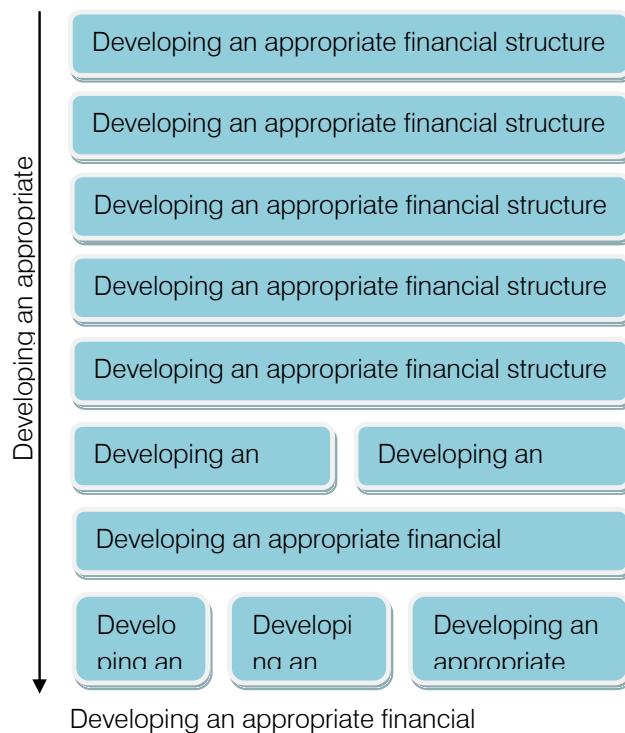
To measure how the craft artisans from a poor background participate at the value chain it is necessary to get the overall picture of the value chain of crafts. Value chain analysis emphasis the 'how' and 'where' rural poor can integrate into global economic processes and how these processes can be understood in order to make them more 'pro-poor' (ODI, 2009:46). Figure 1 summaries the general value chain analysis for handicraft in Setiu Wetland for better understanding of the activities in which competitive advantage can be derived by identifying the sequence of value-generating activities (ECERDC, 2009).

It is important to define the value chain to view the breakdown items and reconfigure or further improve each activity with the end goal of higher cost efficiency and better competitive advantages. On the other hand, by looking into each of the handicraft activities, the potential that the product has in its respective industry and the possibility to expand into a larger scope of business model to exploit other opportunities could be determined. Rural handicraft industries in Setiu are often a secondary source of



income, and often practiced as a side activity to agriculture. Over 50% of craft spending by the tourist reaches the poor, because crafts are traditionally made by local minority women, often sold by producers or small traders, and draw heavily on local raw materials (Mengkuang and Nipah, old newspaper and soap). Setiu Wetland is one of the popular sources for Malaysian handicrafts. Mengkuang and Nipah weaving are the most popular handicraft enterprise pursued in Setiu, which accounts for more than 90% of the total amount of handicraft producers in Setiu.

#### Developing an appropriate financial structure



## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overall, handicraft emerges as a very significant item of tourist expenditure for poor and sufficient households. The proportion of spend that accrues to these households is relatively high for two reasons: the nature of the products, which rely heavily on local materials and traditional skills; and the type of outlets, which are generally small family-owned. Some of the handicraft producers depend a great deal on middlemen which to sell their product, as well as they directly sell their products to the retailers and tourists. The overall handicraft industry in Setiu Wetland is perceived to be a home-based entrepreneur-driven industry with little sales growth although the producers or artisans are very positive in outlook. However, many small craft producers lack the lucrative markets that can boost their sales considerably and sustain their livelihood. Weaving is identified as the most popular handicraft enterprise in Setiu and categories as

'expanding' handicraft segmentation (ECERDC, 2009) because of common use items, domestic demand is high, catching up trade, easy to learn craft and low capital to set-up, faster return on investment, and availability of workers who are easy to source and train.

## **CONCLUSION**

There are two prevailing streams of thought when it comes to poverty alleviation through tourism. The first is to create new products or approaches which have greater benefits for the poor. Such approaches include community-based tourism enterprises, rural tourism, cultural tourism, etc. Although this approach may create significant benefits for the poor involved, it is mostly relegated to small-scale niches and is over-intensive in terms of outside funding and expertise (J Mitchell & Ashley, 2007). Together with an understanding of rural livelihoods and local nonfarm environments these theories can contribute to identifying opportunities for enterprising individuals. In addition, the link between tourism and the craft sector has been explained to show how the craft sector relates to tourism and how tourism therefore can play a role in enhancing the opportunities for local artisans.

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# Cultural Cushion Perspective Revisited: The Moderating Role of Perceived Cultural Distance on Interactional Fairness and Tourist Satisfaction

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## **Abstract**

Cultural cushion refers to the mitigating influence of the inter-cultural aspects of experience on the overall perceptions and evaluations of the experience (Hartman, Meyer, & Scribner, 2009). Limited studies to date have empirically test this hypothesis in a quantitative manner. The current study addresses this gap by conducting a survey with 488 tourists in Hong Kong. The findings reveal a moderating effect of perceived cultural distance on the relationship between interactional fairness and tourist satisfaction. In particular, the relationship is weaker when perceived cultural distance is large rather than small, lending support to the 'Cultural Cushion' hypothesis. The current study has significant contributions to tourism literature in that the findings shed lights on the positive aspect of cultural distance in the intercultural interactions between tourists and service providers.

**Key words:** cultural cushion, interactional fairness, tourist satisfaction

## **Introduction**

Cultural cushion refers to the mitigating influence of the inter-cultural aspects of experience on the overall perceptions and evaluations of the experience (Hartman, Meyer, & Scribner, 2009). Although the 'Cultural Cushion' effect has received attention in tourism literature, no study to date has empirically test this hypothesis in a quantitative manner. The current study addresses this gap by conducting a survey with 488 tourists in Hong Kong. The findings reveal a moderating effect of perceived cultural

distance on the relationship between interactional fairness and tourist satisfaction. In particular, the relationship is weaker when perceived cultural distance is large rather than low, lending support to the 'Cultural Cushion' hypothesis. The current study has significant contributions to tourism literature in that the findings shed lights on the positive aspect of cultural distance in the intercultural interactions between tourists and service providers.

### **Literature Review**

Service fairness is an important aspect based on which customers make evaluations. Interactional justice refers to the quality of the interpersonal treatment received by an individual ([Folger & Cropanzano, 1998, p. xxiii](#)). Fairness Theory ([Folger & Cropanzano, 1998](#)) asserts that negative perceptions of unfairness may be result from factors pertaining procedural, interactional and distributive justice due to the influence of accountability. Blodgett et al. ([1997](#)) demonstrate that interpersonal justice is most powerful among the three dimensions of perceived justice in predicting consumers' repatronage and word-of-mouth intentions after a service failure. Prior studies have demonstrated that interactional fairness directly or indirectly influence customer satisfaction (Kwortnik & Han, 2011; Namkung & Jang, 2009). Nevertheless, such relationship may be contingent on other factors such as cultural distance.

In the tourism literature, cultural factors have been investigated in terms of the impacts on destination choice, tourist satisfaction and a host's acceptance of tourists (Crotts, 2004; Ng, Lee, & Soutar, 2007; Reisinger & Turner, 2002a, 2002b; Thyne, Lawson, & Todd, 2006). However, the number of such empirical studies is limited (Ng, et al., 2007). Hartman, et al. (2009) propose that when encountering a failure in a foreign country tourists may not consider the act a true failure. Rather, tourists may attribute the failure to dissimilarities in cultural norms and standards. In other words, the greater the cultural distance, the less demanding and the more tolerant tourists tended to be in terms of service evaluation (Weiermair, 2000). To address such attenuating an effect of culture on customers' negative experiences, the concept of a cultural cushion was developed. Cultural cushion refers to the mitigating influence of the inter-cultural aspects of experience on the overall perceptions and evaluations of the experience (Hartman, et al., 2009).

Similar perspective has been found in the marketing literature. [Stauss & Mang](#) (1999) found that negative critical incidents prevail in intra-cultural encounters more so than in inter-cultural encounters. Customers develop expectations based on their own cultural standards, while service providers have their own standards in providing service. Whenever there is a gap between customers' culturally biased expectations and actual performance, service failure then occurs. When facing a service failure, for example rude service (i.e., low interactional fairness), customers from distant cultures and those from similar cultures react differently in terms of their perceptions and evaluations of the failure.

Customers from close cultures may believe that the service providers should be well-acquainted with their expectations. Hence, customers will view the failure more

seriously and become more dissatisfied with the service providers. In contrast, customers from distant cultures may attribute the service failure to a mismatch of cultural standards of which service providers may not be aware. Customers may be more likely to attribute the failure to their high expectation rather than the objective service performance received. Hence, those customers will be more forgiving towards the service failure. Based on the above review, it is hypothesized that:

**H1: The relationship between interactional fairness and tourist satisfaction is moderated by perceived cultural distance of the tourists such that:**

**The relationship is weaker when perceived cultural distance is high rather than low.**

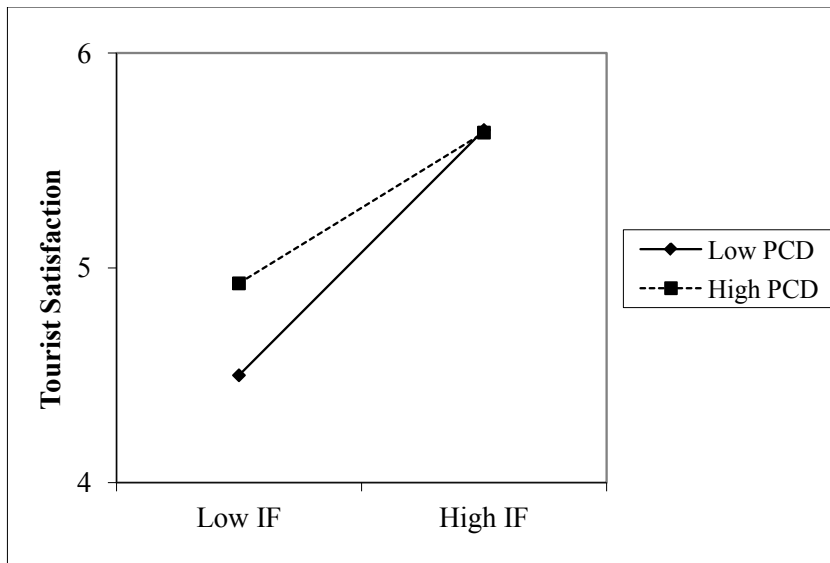
### **Methodology**

Questionnaire survey was conducted with 488 tourists in Hong Kong, of which 248 are Chinese tourists and 240 are Caucasian tourists. Convenient sampling was adopted due to lack of sampling frame. The demographics of the sample (e.g., gender, age, origins etc.) are quite consistent with the data provided by Hong Kong Tourism Board. Existing scales were adapted to measure the constructs in the study (Argyle & Henderson, 1984; Churchill Jr & Surprenant, 1982; Clemmer & Schneider, 1996).

### **Findings**

Results of the moderated regression show that there is a significant interaction effect between interactional fairness and perceived cultural distance ( $B = -0.11$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). Particularly, the positive relationship is weakened when perceived cultural distance is high. The interaction pattern is plotted in Figure 1. The figure shows that tourist satisfaction virtually does not differ when interactional fairness is high. By contrast, when interactional fairness is low, tourists who perceived high cultural distance are more satisfied than those perceived low. This result supports our hypothesis and also lends support to the 'Cultural Cushion' effect.

**Figure 1. Interaction between Interactional Fairness and Perceived Cultural Distance**



(Note: IF: interactional fairness; PCD: perceived cultural distance)

### Conclusion

The study verifies the 'Cultural Cushion' perspective by demonstrating that perceived cultural distance exerts a moderating effect on the relationship between interactional fairness and tourist satisfaction. This is a pioneer attempt in this area of research and contributes to extant literature regarding the positive impacts of cultural factors on tourist experiences and evaluations. Practically, Service providers should attach more importance to tourists from a close culture as they are more aware of the service standards and more sensitive and vulnerable to unfair services. Future research may incorporate other moderators in the model (e.g., prior relationship quality).

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# Online Neo-tribes: Exploring Recreational Vehicle Users in the USA and Australia

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## **Abstract**

This research analysed the similarities and differences in how the Recreational Vehicle (RVing) experience is marketed by USA and Australian RVing clubs and advocacy groups. Research suggests that RVing is a lifestyle, motivated by a desire to experience freedom and that RVers tend to form communities where members would help each other out (Hardy and Gretzel, 2011). This is a market which is experiencing high levels of growth both in and the USA (Curtin, 2005; Lebski, 2009).

Comparisons between North American and Australian RVers have been made to a limited extent (e.g. Onyx and Leonard, 2005), but their social behaviours and motivations can be conceptualised in terms of neo-tribes, defined as relatively homogeneous individuals held together in relatively stable mainstream groups (Robards and Bennett, 2011). The RV world relies heavily on the internet and is particularly active in social networking (Gretzel et al., 2005) and RV websites can be seen as public manifestations of neo-tribal culture. They represent communications that reveal the social world of the neo-tribe, including the way the members organise themselves, and their relationship with the surrounding world. Our research investigated the websites of RV clubs and RV advocacy groups to learn more about the social structures of RVers.

## **Introduction**

This research analysed the similarities and differences in how the Recreational Vehicle (RVing) experience is marketed by USA and Australian RVing clubs and advocacy groups. Research suggests that RVing is a lifestyle, motivated by a desire to experience freedom and that RVers tend to form communities where members would

help each other out (Hardy and Gretzel, 2011). This is a market which is experiencing high levels of growth both in and the USA (Curtin, 2005; Lebski, 2009).

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## **Methods**

Web pages have been subjected to a great deal of content analysis since the early 1990s (McMillan, 2000). We examined the websites of two of the largest clubs in both the US and Australia: the Good Sam Club and the Escapees Club in the US; and the Campervan and Motorhome Club of Australia (CMCA) and the Australasian Touring Caravan, Motorhome and Camping Club (ATCMCC) in Australia. Second, the websites of RVing industry advocacy groups were assessed: GoRVing in the US, and GoSeeAustralia in Australia.

Our analysis included words in the texts and in hyperlinks and also the visual rhetoric of the websites. Using the methodology of Grovers and Go (2005) we paid particular attention to whether or not tourists were present in the images.

## **Findings**

The research indicated that RVing clubs and advocacy websites market the RVing experience in both similar and differing ways. They are similar in that both the Australian and USA club websites sell the RVing club experience as one which offers the benefits of memberships in a neo-tribe. These benefits, which are promoted to differing degrees, include fellowship, lifestyle and scenes which are distinct from those of the broader non-RVing community.

The website analysis indicated that RV club membership in the US and Australian clubs is marketed as an activity which is essential to tribal identity as it gives the individual a sense of belonging. It is also an activity which can be engaged with on a full-time or part time basis, thus allowing for fluidity of membership: individuals may use RVing and the clubs as an escape from their daily work and family lives, or use the club to facilitate a full time recreational pursuit. Thus the club's attractiveness lies not only in its ability to facilitate fellowship, but also in its ability to facilitate the act of RVing.

This research has uncovered significant differences in the way in which RVing is promoted by RV clubs and advocacy websites in the two countries. The American

clubs and advocacy websites placed far greater emphasis on involvement, fellowship and social activities, and are inclusive in their approach, inviting all to join, regardless of ownership or RV type. The RV clubs sell a complete lifestyle, offering retirement homes, mail redirections, special interest groups, club based RV parks, Visa cards and even pharmaceutical discount schemes. Planning and the RVing scene is important, however this is given less emphasis than experience, shared lifestyles, fellowship and affordability.

In Australia the RVing clubs are more exclusive by placing clear (material) boundaries on membership by requiring RV ownership. They place more emphasis on the performative aspects of tribal membership, such as trip planning and member benefits, while less attention is given to the emotional benefits, such as a sense of belonging, collective bonds and being surrounded by people leading similar lifestyles.

Further research is now needed to ascertain whether the way in which RVing is depicted by the clubs and advocacy sites reflects a real difference in RVing across countries.

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# Political Intervention in a National Tourism Event: The Politics of Homecoming Scotland

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## Abstract

The aim of this paper is to provide insight and analysis into the politics of a government tourism initiative within the geographic context of Scotland. It highlights the catalytic role of key government agencies in channelling investment, energies, events and marketing effort into a nationally focused tourism theme: Homecoming Scotland 2009 (HS09). The paper delves below the public relations veneer of many such activities to uncover the political debates and controversies that may have detracted from the successes of the initiative.

**Key words:** Events, Politics, Scotland

## Background

The devolved Government for Scotland was formed in 1999, and is responsible for most of the day-to-day concerns of the people of Scotland, including tourism. In 2007, the Scottish National Party (SNP) was voted into power for the first time (without an overall majority), but in 2011 they were re-elected with an overall majority. One of the SNP's early announcements was its support for a tourism destination marketing initiative called Homecoming Scotland 2009, an idea that was first formed under the previous Labour administration. Although HS09 was a Scottish Government initiative, its day-to-day management was devolved to EventScotland, the national events agency, working with VisitScotland, the national tourism agency.

The main aim of HS09 was to encourage events designed to attract visitors of Scottish birth, descent or affinity to Scotland. Central to HS09 was the leveraging of incoming tourist demand through Scottish links with the Scottish diaspora, estimated at 28m-40m (Eirich and McLaren, 2008). HS09 was a ten-month programme of more than 400 events, with heavily persuasive messages used to entice the Scottish Diaspora, by

using words, such as: *reconnect, homeland, native shores, come home*. Although it was developed as a tourism marketing event, it also represented an example of political intervention, which implemented a nation-wide campaign of co-ordinating, promoting and encouraging partnerships. HS09 had a budget of £5.5m, but the real figure was closer to £8.5m (Morrison & Hay, 2010).

### **Homecoming's Marketing Communication Strategy**

Scotland possesses a wealth of attributes, which are regarded as being inalienably Scottish. These are generally not substitutable; and inspire a significant degree of consumer loyalty and motivation to visit. As such, Scotland can be regarded as a niche destination with competitive advantage and enduring retention of unique appeal, strongly positioning it as a tourist destination for the diaspora target market. Given the aim of HS09, it is not surprising that its marketing campaign content drew heavily on the traditional images of Scotland, and crafted messages evocative of 'returning home to Scotland' (Scottish Government, 2007a). Central to the strategy was the simple, focused slogan 'Homecoming Scotland', cutting through the 'noise' of messages bombarding consumers from competing destinations (Ryan, 2005).

In Scotland, the merit of tourism destination marketing based on traditional images has long been debated. Some brand experts insist that Scotland's brand equity retains resilience, power and positive imagery in the wider world, such as, Worthington (cited in Kemp, 2009: 8) who said: *'Scotland has to maintain and protect the quality of its iconic images – and not allow things to slip or become pure tartan tat'*. Kemp disagrees: *'In Scotland there has been much navel-gazing about the kiltfest that has been HS09 (with many questioning its validity and portrayal of modern Scotland'*. Thus, opinion is split, 'to icon or not to icon'. Furthermore, Hall (2005) advises that it becomes important to look outside tourism for explanations, which is why the issue of politics, events and tourism needs addressed.

### **Politics of Events & Tourism in Scotland**

*'Tourism is highly politicized as, in practice, tourism policies are often vehicles of national political ambitions by countries seeking to harness the economic and political benefits of a buoyant tourism industry'* (Page and Connell, 2006; 297)

It can be generalised that the development of tourism in any specific country is a function of the individual government's predisposition towards this type of economic activity, and the extent to which it impacts significantly on a country's society, culture and economy (Hall, 2005). However, within Scotland it is more complex. The primary aim of the SNP is to take Scotland forward to independence, and they plan a referendum on the issue in 2014, the same year as the next Homecoming event. Thus HS09 overtly nationalistic in nature, played perfectly into the political ideology and agenda of the day. There was dissonance within the other political parties and HS09 became highly politicized, seen by some Scottish politicians as a SNP vehicle to persuade the populace of the value of independence. This influenced the degree of political harmony across the political parties. For example, the former Scottish Labour Party leader accused the SNP as being *'more interested in publicizing themselves and*

*Scottish identity in Scotland than in promoting Scotland as a destination to those who live elsewhere. It was never meant to be an internal publicity campaign for Scottishness'* (cited in Hutcheon, 2009). In contrast, the SNP's Tourism Minister's perspective of HS09 was that: *'This year-long celebration will benefit our country in terms of additional tourism, which will contribute to our economy. But it's also an outstanding opportunity to reconnect with the Scottish Diaspora around the world and provide impetus for them to visit their homeland'* (Scottish Government, 2007b). This brings into scrutiny a government's role in serving the collective interests of the population and not the narrow self-interests of their political manifesto (Hall, 2005). Undoubtedly, for the SNP, HS09 held considerable appeal because of its high nationalistic profile both within Scotland for Scots, and for those Scots living outside Scotland with an affinity to their 'homeland'. Additional political (SNP) attractions of HS09 were the potential to generate highly visible economic results in a short period. However, by the start of HS09, a number of individual members of the Scottish Parliament (but not the political parties) were publicly divided over support for HS09. Perhaps the reason for the lack of comments from the main political parties was the degree of support they provided over the years. For example, the Liberal Democrats first announced the initiative in 2003 when they shared power with Labour, and they both supported the event in its planning stages, while the SNP provided ring-fenced funding for its implementation. Evidence of this disquiet of HS09 took the form of:

- Concern within VisitScotland about whether HS09 could meet its stated aims. Scottish Ministers provided additional funds amid fears that HS09 was being ignored by the public (Scottish Government, 2009).
- A TV advert of famous Scots singing Caledonia was not initially intended to be shown outside the UK and Ireland, but this provoked a rapid rethink by Scottish Ministers as HS09 was also aimed at overseas visitors.
- A HS09 poster showing a crowd of stereotypical, white kilted Scots had to be redrawn as it was devoid of any of Scotland's ethnic minorities; this went against the Scottish Government anti-racist campaign.
- Delays to completion of a £21m national Robert Burns Museum meant that tourists did not have this particular motivation to visit the area (McCracken, 2008).
- The company managing the Clan Gathering event went into liquidation (Audit Scotland, 2010).

## Conclusions

In terms of conclusions, according to Lederer (2009), HS09:

- will greatly assist with the planning of future major events and national initiatives;



- provided a catalyst for lasting and positive engagement with Scotland's Diaspora around the world;
- generated the most comprehensive database of Scots interest groups around the world; and
- added value to Scotland on the global stage as a place to visit, study, invest or live.

Perhaps the lasting benefit of HS09 is that it has established EventScotland as a major player in event organisation, funding and promotion. HS09 also showed that Scotland could develop additional capacity in event tourism, but how many of the events associated with HS09 are sustainable? Given the willingness on the part of both the private and public sectors to co-operate in the organisation of an international event such as HS09, it did show that Scotland could play on the world stage. Whether this ability to play on the world stage is then hijacked for overtly political purposes, remains unclear.

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# Abandon hope: the importance of remaining critical

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## **Abstract**

Pritchard *et al.* (2011) have recently written an important contribution to critical tourism studies which proposes a “hopeful tourism” perspective. Engaging critically, we argue this new paradigm is problematic for its abandonment of key principles of the critical theory paradigm.

## **Introduction**

Pritchard *et al.* (2011) have recently written an important contribution to critical tourism studies which proposes a “hopeful tourism” perspective. This paper is written in the spirit of dialogue championed by bell hooks (1994, p. 130) which allows us to confront our intellectual differences, discuss diverging views and thereby create greater solidarity in our shared humanist project for a better world. In this article, Pritchard *et al.* offer us a mission statement for “hopeful tourism” which they describe as “...a values-led humanist approach based on partnership, reciprocity and ethics, which aims for co-created learning, and which recognises the power of sacred and indigenous knowledge and passionate scholarship” (2011, p. 929). Reading this work critically, we have found this new paradigm problematic for its abandonment of key principles of the critical theory paradigm.

### **“Hopeful tourism” project in critical tourism scholarship**

The fundamental issue to confront is can critical tourism scholars agree with the agenda being established by Pritchard *et al.* as a basis on which to proceed in building the critical tourism movement? A key weakness of the article is its failure to engage with the diversity of strands of critical theory which we would argue is essential. The sensitivity of bridging the diverse strands of critical scholarship is evident in Kincheloe and McLaren's (2005) contribution to “rethinking critical theory”. While acknowledging the diversity and disputes among critical traditions, they do outline the essentials of critical work describing it as “as a form of social or cultural criticism” with a set of “certain basic assumptions” (2005, p. 304).

Pritchard *et al.*'s articulation of hopeful tourism has little in common with Kincheloe and McLaren's outline of these basic assumptions; concepts such as power, capitalism, privilege, oppression, class and race get few mentions in their article. Instead, words like hope, hopeful and transformations predominate. These words are also presented primarily in terms of tourism researchers' need to identify their work as more personally and professionally fulfilling; there is little recognition of how voices from communities that are harmed and exploited by tourism forces have played a role in the development of the critical tourism scholarship.

### **Solidarity, resistance and revolution**

Is there value in introducing a new term, “hopeful tourism”, to the already overcrowded tourism lexicon? Is it that the terminology of “critical” theory is too negative, which motivates the authors to adopt the more warm and positive language of “hope”? We would not deny the utility of hope in our endeavours to co-create a new, more just and sustainable world in our current context of grave peril. But in adopting the language of hope and moving away from the language of critical theory they subtly eschew the overtly political principles that both underpin critical theory and connect research to the injustices experienced by communities.

Furthermore, we would argue Pritchard *et al.*'s three key principles of “partnership, respect and reciprocity” (2011, p. 942) should be stacked up against three alternatives: solidarity, resistance and revolution, which are terms that feature in critical studies. The first list is very tame and limited in the struggle against the violent assertion of power and privilege in which we find ourselves. As Ines Talamantez of the University of California stated: “If the impulse is for respect and sharing, then come stand with us in our struggles...” (cited in Bell, 1997, p. 53). Pritchard *et al.*'s key principles may position researchers at a distance from the experiences of the oppressed. Only being situated within the struggle can we know the many faces of oppression and intuit how to combat them.

Importantly, Pritchard *et al.* write of hope in teaching tourism to tourism students. These students are largely in positions of privilege, filling positions of privilege in a tourism industry catering to tourists in positions of privilege. The authors show a lack of critical reflection as hooks wrote of hope and love in teaching students of colour in the public school system (1994). hooks presented a pedagogy of love and hope to give these

students the support and confidence to thereby go out and respond to the systems of oppression they face (hooks, 1994).

Using this pedagogy with students of privilege may fail to challenge them to engage with those oppressed by the forces of tourism and it is likely to set mild agendas which do little to contribute to the vital transformations we need in these challenging times. This parallels the reformist/public relations efforts set by corporate social responsibility agendas in tourism which divert energy and attention from the radical changes that are required to transform the tourism system away from support of oppression and exploitation in its many forms (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2008).

### **“Walking in the shoes” of the oppressed**

There is no theoretical exercise in this that precedes actual experience of solidarity, resistance and revolution. True change will only come when those in positions of privilege, such as tourism academics and tourism students, are pressed to “walk in the shoes” of the oppressed. Such a path leads to transformation from distant observer fully embedded in the self-other dichotomy to empathetic co-experiencer of pain and oppression which should raise emotions of indignation, resistance and solidarity. This stands in stark contrast to the love and hope described by Pritchard *et al.* which may divert us from the vital work needed if these are invoked before indignation and just rage fan a passion for just action.

We note also that hooks acknowledges the role of Paolo Freire in influencing her own “conscientization” and pedagogy; she stated “Freire’s work affirmed my right as a subject in resistance to define my reality” (1994, p. 53). We would ask Pritchard and her co-authors where is the thinking of Paolo Freire in their overview and his language of the pedagogy of the oppressed, conscientization, a pedagogy of indignation and resistance? hooks describes how Freire modelled the way a “privileged critical thinker approaches sharing knowledge and resources with those who are in need” (hooks, 1994, p. 53). Freire claimed “to me fighting for the currency of a dream, of the utopia of criticalness, and of hope constitutes fighting to refuse the negation of dreams and hope, a struggle founded in just rage and in effective political- ethical action” (2004, p. 102).

We acknowledge that we may find ourselves in a proverbial “chicken and egg” conundrum, i.e. should hope precede indignation or vice versa. The reflections of Fischman and McLaren are worth turning to here:

We lack optimism but that does not make us pessimists, because we have hope. Capital feeds false hope but it cannot displace hope altogether. There is hope as long as we have capacity insurgency, that is, as long as we have the knowledge that we *can* act when the opportunity arises, and that we *will* act. Without hope, there cannot be resistance. Hope is not coterminous with life but can be generated only when we recognize our capacity and acknowledge our determination to make our own history (2005, p. 355).

Hope is obviously essential, but hope is also relative. Is the hope for a better research community held by someone who has been exposed to critical theory in a privileged university the same, or even in dialogue, with the hope of members of communities who face persistent exploitation, silencing, and harm? How could it even be possible – even ethical – for someone to claim to have a network of researchers that are unified by some sense of hope that links them to the hope of oppressed peoples?

### **Praxis and action**

Critical tourism studies may have met the disciplinary milestones set out by Pritchard *et al.* (2011) but one has to ask where are the cutting edge critical tourism results that show transformation in the world:

- We require research agendas that interrogate tourism's role in oppression; such critiques still typically come from non-governmental organizations rather than academia (such as Equations and Tourism Concern).
- We need research that looks at tourism's role in supporting market hegemony which perpetuates the impoverishment of the many to the advantage of the few (Giroux, 2008).
- Critical tourism researchers must stand shoulder-to-shoulder with those on the frontlines/faultlines of global injustice and inequity. Without these bonds of solidarity and collaboration, we find ourselves in danger of talking for others or even talking only amongst ourselves disconnected from the people suffering tourism's negative impacts.
- How often does critical tourism research lead to meaningful change in the lives of people who are disadvantaged, marginalized, dispossessed and even disappeared by a rampaging tourism force?

### **Conclusion**

We will close by challenging all critical tourism scholars to make sure they situate their work in the wider context in which we live. Our times are marked by grave threats as the few assert the right to take the remaining finite resources leaving the majority to struggle with hunger, dispossession and oppression. While we write this we have the hopeful examples of the "Arab Spring" and the occupation of Wall Street juxtaposed against the threats of another impending global financial crisis, mass movement of asylum-seekers and global warming. Tourism is implicated in these events and we must not underestimate tourism's real significance as this is the failure of mainstream tourism scholarship that critical tourism scholarship should continuously challenge. Only by constant contextualization in the wider struggle for human dignity and well-being can we ensure that we demand that tourism fulfil its promise and bear its responsibilities in generating a better world for all, not just the well-off.

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# Indigenous Social Tourism in a Neoliberal State: An Exploratory Study of Aboriginal Hostels Limited

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## **Abstract**

In this paper we offer an exploratory case study analysis of Aboriginal Hostels Limited (AHL) which we analyse as a case of both social tourism and services provisioning for Indigenous Australians as tourists. Indigenous Australians require the services of AHL hostels because many of them must travel away from their home communities because of a lack of basic services. AHL is vital because it provides culturally appropriate accommodation services to Indigenous Australians facilitating access to education, employment and training, aged care, shelter from homelessness, medical treatment, and substance abuse rehabilitation. Without AHL, Indigenous Australians might find it difficult to undertake such travel.

Contextualising our study in literature on social tourism and Indigenous Australian disadvantage, we conducted a content analysis of a publication containing stories from AHL clients, employees and managers called *100 Success Stories* (2007). This highlights the benefits AHL offers Indigenous Australians and indicates the full possibilities of tourism.

**Key words:** Social Tourism, Indigenous Australian Tourism, Indigenous Australian Disadvantage, Social Capital, Social Exclusion.

## ***Introduction***



This article emerges from a critical theoretical positioning with an interest to make visible the marginalised aspects of tourism. During the era of neoliberalism analyses of tourism have been narrowed to tourism's corporate and commercial aspects- tourism as an industry- to the detriment of understandings of tourism as a social force (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006) and a contributor to public welfare (Hall and Brown, 2010). A case study of Aboriginal Hostels Limited (AHL) offers a rare case of government-sponsored social tourism in what is one of the world's more neoliberal states, Australia. It is additionally a rare case of an Indigenous hospitality and tourism service catering to Indigenous Australians as clientele. Overlooked in tourism studies so far because of the non-commercial nature of the services offered by AHL and the Indigenous Australian clients it serves, we offer an exploratory study of one of the margins of contemporary tourism. Before analysing the case study of AHL, we will offer a theoretical foundation through a brief overview of the social tourism literature, an outline of Indigenous Australian disadvantage and an exposition suggesting that Indigenous Australians as clients of hospitality and tourism services is absent from the Indigenous tourism literature. We suggest this has value in uncovering potentialities and promise in tourism that challenges our thinking of what we might expect of tourism in the future.

### ***Social tourism***

Social tourism is in an unusual position of being well practiced in certain regions for a long time, but is not well known, well understood or well studied until perhaps very recently (Minnaert et al., 2012, p. 18). Social tourism can be described as the promotion of "access to travel and leisure opportunities for all" (International Social Tourism Organisation, n.d.). In particular, social tourism advocates the provision of tourism opportunities for the "economically weak or otherwise disadvantaged elements of society" (Hunzinger cited in Murphy, 1985, p. 23). Current initiatives focused on improving access to holiday opportunities for the disadvantaged specifically focus on supporting access for the disabled, families caring for disabled members, the aged, single parents and those on low incomes. There is another significant strand in social tourism which is focused on improving the access and benefits of hosting tourists to all segments of the host community and thereby ensuring greater equity for these stakeholders in tourism. These form two major categories of social tourism which Minnaert et al. (2011) designate as "host-related" and "visitor-related" social tourism. The precepts of modern social tourism were being laid early in the twentieth century when the principle of paid leave for workers became adopted. For example, as early as the 1930s, French trade unions were promoting social tourism for the well-being of the workers (Ouvry-Vial cited in Richards, 1996, p. 157). Switzerland created the Swiss Travel Saving Fund (REKA) in 1939 to assist low-income workers with funding for holidays (Teuscher, 1983). Western European countries such as Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal and the Scandinavian countries have subsidised transport, maintained "social resorts" and funded youth camps. A distinctive form of social tourism was developed in the socialist countries of Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union to promote solidarity within this bloc of nations (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006, p. 1200). Even the United States, one of the main proponents of neoliberalism, has developed social tourism schemes such as the youth camps. But a key difference between social tourism provisioning by socialist and social democratic states found on

mainland Europe and more neoliberal states such as the US and the UK is that the former supports public funding for social tourism initiatives while the latter seldom countenances public funding and instead relies on charitable or other non-government sources (Minnaert et al., 2009, p. 317).

As this brief historical overview suggests, the rationale for social tourism is multi-faceted according to the changing circumstances and diverse societies in which it arises; as Murphy (1985, p. 23) stated social tourism has different meanings in different contexts. As Minnaert et al. (2012, pp. 127-8) suggest, there are two basic justifications for social tourism which emerges from this diversity: a social rationale based on conceptualisations of a social right to tourism, social welfare and well-being and social inclusion; and an economic rationale arguing that spending on social tourism generates economic benefits and reduces government costs in ameliorating problems subsequently. Many analysts of social tourism have utilised such concepts as social capital, social rights, social welfare and social inclusion in recent analyses and we also find them relevant to this study of AHL. Social capital can be defined as: "the reciprocal relationships, shared values and trust, which helps keep societies together and enable collective action" (McClure cited in Hunter, 2000, p. v); and "...those stocks of social trust, norms and networks that people can draw upon to solve problems... the more extensive these networks are, the more likely that members of a community will benefit for mutual benefit" (Hunter, 2000, p. 4).

### *Indigenous Disadvantage*

To contextualise the benefits of AHL services to Indigenous Australian clients, it is important to understand the nature of Indigenous Australian disadvantage in contemporary Australia. Australia is a developed country with a high living standard, good quality of life and long life expectancy. It therefore came as a surprise when in 2004 the Fred Hollows Foundation, a NGO medical aid group working in developing countries, issued a press release which claimed that key health standards for Indigenous Australians were below some of the world's poorest countries. Mike Lynskey, the Foundation's CEO, stated:

In Australia we have hundreds of dollars per capita, yet we have indigenous people in Australia suffering health problems every bit as bad, if not worse, than some of the countries that we work in. It's an indictment on the way we organise our society that we allow this tragedy to persist (*Sydney Morning Herald*, 2004).

It is widely agreed that little has changed subsequently and we will outline more detailed data to contextualise Indigenous Australian circumstances.

As at 30 June 2010 the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) projections from the 2006 census suggested an Indigenous population of 562,681 people in Australia. About one-quarter of Indigenous people live in areas classified as "remote" or "very remote" in relation to having very little or very restricted access to goods and services and opportunities for social interaction, in comparison only 2% of non-Indigenous people live in "remote" or "very remote" areas. Overall, the Indigenous population is much younger than the non-Indigenous and about 37% of the Indigenous population being under 15 years of age compared to 19% for the non-Indigenous; whereas only

3% are over 65 years of age compared to 13% for the non-Indigenous population (ABS, 2009). This suggests that a large percentage of the Indigenous population is in the demographic where education and employment are vital.

In 2008 there was a gap of almost 20 years in age for deaths of Indigenous people compared to non-Indigenous people for both males and females. The pattern of deaths for Indigenous people is also different from non-Indigenous. Age specific rates were higher across all age groups but the 35-44 group were particularly higher (ABS, 2009). Major causes of death are: cardiovascular disease, injuries (accidents and self harm), respiratory diseases, diabetes-related illnesses and cancers. Infant mortality rates are about three times higher for Indigenous babies than non-Indigenous babies under one year of age (ABS, 2009). It is important to understand that the factors leading to these health issues are in part the trans-generational effects of colonisation and dispossession.

Historically, Indigenous Australians had better health prior to invasion in 1788 in comparison to Europeans, and had control in all aspects of their lives such as medicine, social relationships, ceremonies, land management, law and food (Howitt, 2001). Diseases introduced with the invasion caused great loss of life among the Indigenous populations creating a disruption in the fabric of Indigenous societies. In addition to the impact of disease, the invasion created: a devaluation of the Indigenous culture, ceremonies and traditional life; separation of families; and general loss of control. The dispossession of land, community, language and culture has a clear relationship to the social inequalities which Indigenous people are faced with today (Altman, 2000).

Other influences that may cause Indigenous economic disadvantage are:

- exclusion from mainstream provisions of the welfare state (Altman, 2001);
- structural factors reflecting Indigenous family formation, demographic transitions, and high population growth (Altman, 2001);
- locational factors reflecting the distribution of the Indigenous population disproportionately remote from economic opportunity (Altman, 2001; Hughes and Hughes, 2010);
- cultural factors reflecting a diversity of Indigenous priorities that in varying degrees diverge from predominant Australian capitalist values (Altman, 2001); and
- the preconceptions and prejudices of non-Indigenous Australian society (Altman, 2001; Biddle, 2009).

Health disadvantages have their roots in historical events but the ongoing perpetuation of disadvantages is due to contemporary structural and social dynamics and has been termed as the "social determinants" of health. Therefore, the health of individuals and communities can be determined by the conditions of employment, housing, access to services, access to home country, racism, substance abuse and more (Marmot et al., 2008).

In 2008 The Council of Australian Governments (COAG) set specific targets for *Closing the Gap* in Indigenous disadvantage. COAG recognised that achieving this would require a sustained commitment from all levels of government to work together and with Indigenous people, with focus on seven action areas: early childhood,

schooling, health, economic participation, healthy homes, safe communities, governance and leadership. With this increased attention, Indigenous reform is a standing item on all COAG meetings and specific targets have been agreed to assist in “closing the gap” (COAG, 2008).

The *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators Report* suggested that programs that are making a real difference are community-based. There is evidence indicating that the improved results are based on “mutually respectful relationships, long term investment, and solutions that are developed by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and tailored to the needs and aspirations of individual communities” (Dr Tom Calma, Co-Chair Reconciliation Australia, 25 August 2011).

Addressing Indigenous Australian disadvantage is now a key priority in Australian government circles and a variety of initiatives are underway to accomplish this. This study explores AHL’s role in addressing some of the social determinants of health, such as enabling Indigenous Australians to access education and employment.

### ***Indigenous Tourism in Australia: Indigenous Australians as consumers of tourism and hospitality services***

Indigenous Australian disadvantage also provides a useful context to understand Indigenous Australian involvement in contemporary tourism as it emerged from a particular historical and political context. It was only as recently as 1967 that Indigenous Australians were extended the same rights as other Australians which ultimately led to their receiving fair wages for their labour, allowed free movement off missions and halted the forced removal of children (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Justice Commission, 1997). Officially, the suggestion to explore tourism as a promising source for Indigenous community development was articulated in the 1991 *Report of the Inquiry into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody* (RCIADIC) where it was seen as a promising source of self-esteem and economic opportunity (ATSIC and ONT, 1997). Following this suggestion by RCIADIC, great effort went into developing a national framework for Indigenous tourism resulting in the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Tourism Industry Strategy (NATSITIS) (ATSIC and ONT, 1997, p. 4). It is important to note this broad social vision which underpinned the development of Indigenous Australian tourism.

*The National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Tourism Strategy* (NATSITIS) emphasises the involvement of Indigenous Australian peoples as key in the defining of Indigenous Australian tourism. NATSITIS employs a wide definition of Indigenous tourism “...to include all forms of participation by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people in tourism:

- as employers
- as employees
- as investors
- as joint venture partners
- providing Indigenous cultural tourism products
- providing mainstream tourism products” (ATSIC and ONT, 1997, p. 4).

This definition is significant because it is underpinned by the Indigenist paradigm of self-determination and empowerment which contrasts squarely with most other definitions of Indigenous/Indigenous Australian tourism. However, what we find in all

definitions, including NATSITIS', is the complete absence of any recognition of Indigenous peoples/Indigenous Australians as consumers of tourism services. Peters and Higgins-Desbiolles suggest this absence may be explained by:

- The narrow, commercial focus of the contemporary tourism industry under neoliberalism
- The all pervasive whiteness of contemporary Australian society;
- A lack of Indigenous Australian researchers contributing to Indigenous Australian tourism analysis (in press).

Peters and Higgins-Desbiolles (in press) suggest Indigenous tourism can be identified as the phenomenon of travel and tourism experienced by Indigenous peoples and have identified this topic as a research gap that needs to be addressed. This case study of AHL will assist in addressing this gap by highlighting AHL's importance in offering social tourism provisioning for Indigenous Australians. It will also explore the needs and experiences of Indigenous Australians as clients of AHL and identify how it may contribute to the policy agenda of *Closing the Gap* on Indigenous disadvantage.

#### ***Aboriginal Hostels Limited: Government as a provider of social tourism services to alleviate Indigenous Australian disadvantage***

Aboriginal Hostels Limited (AHL) is a Commonwealth government-owned company providing subsidised, temporary accommodation services to Indigenous Australians since 1973. In categorising social tourism initiatives, Diekmann and McCabe (2011) suggest we should identify the funding source, facilities and target groups which are three foundational elements of social tourism. For the social tourism provider AHL, the three elements are: funding source is the Australian Commonwealth Government; the facilities provided are hostels and ancillary services; and the target group is Indigenous Australians.

AHL sits within the Commonwealth government's Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs portfolio. AHL operates its own hostels and supports community organisations to operate theirs and has policy responsibilities to the National Indigenous Reform Agreement (AHL, n.d.). In 2010-11, AHL provided around 482,000 nights of accommodation to Indigenous clients throughout Australia. AHL offers a full range of services to clients comparable to commercial accommodation facilities such as meals and laundry services. However, AHL is publically funded and staff of AHL are Australian public servants (AHL, n.d.), which underscores AHL as a social tourism provider.

Unlike mainstream tourism accommodation, AHL hostels meet specific needs including providing accommodation to assist Indigenous Australians in accessing secondary and tertiary education, employment and training, aged care, shelter from homelessness, medical treatment including renal care, and substance abuse rehabilitation. These are services that Indigenous Australians often need to leave their communities to access and this is why AHL was created. In supporting these opportunities, AHL contributes to addressing Indigenous Australian disadvantage articulated in all seven of COAG's building blocks for *closing the gap*: healthy homes, safe communities, health, early childhood, schooling, economic participation and governance and leadership (AHL, n.d.; COAG, 2008).

The AHL vision statement underlines its value as a social tourism provider that provides culturally appropriate services for Indigenous Australians. It states:

Better lives, better futures... Aboriginal Hostels Limited provides safe, comfortable, culturally appropriate and affordable accommodation for Indigenous Australians who must live away from home to access services and economic opportunity. (AHL, n.d.)

AHL's service guarantee promises:

- culturally appropriate, comfortable, safe and affordable accommodation in a clean environment
- healthy home-cooked meals
- friendly helpful staff
- and a family environment away from home (AHL, n.d.).

Using the terminology of Indigenous tourism developed by Butler and Hinch (1996), we would characterise AHL as "culture controlled" as it features both Indigenous culture in its service culture as well as high Indigenous control in terms of its operation and governance. Importantly, Indigenous Australians make up a majority of AHL Board members and 78% of AHL employees (AHL, n.d.).

### ***Study Methods***

This article is the result of exploratory, inductive, interpretative and critical research. While some may be critical of its preliminary nature, others encourage such exploratory work in tourism research to add to qualitative knowledge of tourism and the building of theory (Hobson, 2003). As Yin claims, "a case study is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (1994, p. 13). Here we have used case study technique to explore the import and impacts of AHL as a social tourism provider to Indigenous Australian clients in order to gain rich insights into the real benefits it offers them in a complex context of overcoming disadvantage in a post-invasion state which has marginalised them and disadvantaged them to such an extent that extraordinary services are needed.

As non-Indigenous researchers, we are attentive to the sensitivities in conducting research into Indigenous Australian lives and issues. We have endeavoured to adhere to appropriate protocols in researching Indigenous issues by respecting the principles of Indigenist research. Specifically, we have prioritised Indigenous voices to ensure that Indigenous knowledge systems are respected and we respect the uniqueness of each individual's experiences (AIATSIS, 2010).

We also characterise this work as critical tourism studies. Critical studies features a concern with social justice, an illumination of the experiences of the marginalised and a transparent commitment to a transformative humanism. It is also not ashamed to declare its "partisanship" for such goals and rejects the illusions of objectivity and neutrality of positivistic research. Critical theorists Kincheloe and McLaren advocate:

Research thus becomes a transformative endeavour unembarrassed by the label political and unafraid to consummate a relationship to emancipatory consciousness.

Whereas traditional researchers cling to the guardrail of neutrality, critical researchers frequently announce their partisanship in the struggle for a better world. (2000, p. 291)

Following this critical and Indigenist philosophy, we conducted this exploratory case study by examining an AHL publication entitled *100 Success Stories* (AHL, 2007) which contains narratives gathered from AHL clients, employees and managers telling their stories and their views on the significance of AHL in their life journeys. We have used themes identified from literatures on social tourism and Indigenous Australian disadvantage to interpret the data found in these stories in order to understand the value of AHL as a social tourism provider.

### ***Tales from 100 Success Stories***

It would not be an exaggeration to say that there would be few Indigenous families who have not had a connection in some way, over the years, to Aboriginal Hostels Limited. These stories show "personal miracles", Keith Clarke, General Manager, AHL. (2007, p. iv)

*100 Success Stories* (AHL, 2007) contains journal-like entries gathered from clients, employees and managers of AHL hostels, enabling access to education and employment which are key foundations for "closing the gap". We have analysed these stories presented in *100 Success Stories* which we have categorized into emergent themes that highlight firstly, how AHL enhances the social capacity and social capital of its clients in ways that parallel other studied social tourism initiatives, but also demonstrates significant ways in which it differs.

Heeding Hunter's concern that concepts of social capital may be "too broad and unfocused to provide a useful theoretical framework" and accepting his challenge to explicitly spell out the mechanisms of social capital so that it may be effectively used as a theoretical framework (2000, p. 6), in this research project we have set ourselves a task to create a framework for understanding the social capital that AHL offers. In *100 Success Stories* we have identified three major themes suggesting enhanced social capital:

- building capabilities
- building connections - within indigenous networks and outwardly to the mainstream
- building confidence and fostering self-efficacy

### **Building capabilities**

Two key themes in these stories included "friendly, helpful staff" and "hostels as home/family". It is important to understand that many students travel from remote areas of Australia and need to make considerable cultural adjustments to the city way of life. The nature of their experiences varies based on the community from which they come and their unfamiliarity with the dominant society's practices. One employee noted:

Some of them come totally unprepared. We induct them for city life from day one. We take them around and show them simple things that everyone takes for granted... They are not prepared for the high level of school that's expected of them, especially when

the school's expectations are the same as for non-Indigenous kids. They've also got all the rules to learn at school and at the hostel. (AHL employee of Joe McGinness Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 8)

AHL hostels were described as being like home and a safe haven which gives the Indigenous Australian clients the foundations on which to build their capacities through education, training and employment.

With these secure foundations, AHL hostels were described as important to developing "lifeskills". As one client claimed:

If we hadn't had the hostels, I don't think any of us would have stayed [and got an education]...hostels provided community. They provided me with life skills and I'm really glad I have lived with so many different Aboriginal people. (client of Tony Mundine Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 26)

The impacts of the hostels expand far beyond the individual. One client outlined the limited educational attainment in her family and then described her goals for higher degree and exclaimed "it's a huge change in one generation" (client Durungaling Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 50).

#### **Building connections**

Hostels enable clients to obtain more than just the specific goals for education or employment that often motivate them to stay at these hostels; they also foster the building of social networks which are a key aspect of social capital (Hunter, 2000, p. 4). These networks are with the dominant society through the schools, higher learning institutions and places of employment that hostel clients engage with during their time of stay at the hostel. As one client noted: "In '67 hostels were a new concept, going into the heart of middle-class society with a handful of students" (client of Kirinari Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 2). But even more significant is the relationships built with other Indigenous Australians which features quite strongly in the data as "being with other Aboriginal people" and "understanding Aboriginality/Aboriginal cultures". One of the key features of these narratives is of the successful careers and lives that former clients have gone on to lead. It is in no small part due to these extensive networks that have been formed by hostel stays. Some comments include:

"We had a great network; we all admired and supported each other... The great things were the friendships and community life". (client of Ee-Kee-Na Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 33)

"Hostels really played a big part in a lot of people's careers... I think it prepared me for the rest of my life". (client of Chicka Dixon Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 40)

#### **Building confidence, fostering self-efficacy**

One of the key potentials of social tourism is in building the social confidence of people who have lost self-esteem and faith in their own capacities due to unemployment, poverty and marginalisation; it does this through fostering new social contacts in new contexts (Minnaert et al., 2009, pp. 325-6). AHL hostels play an important role in



fostering self-confidence and a sense of self-efficacy. These were expressed in terms such as “everything is possible”, “make a difference in the world”, “life-changing” and “acting as role models for others”. One client noted: “Education is power. It’s about being empowered to deal with the day-to-day struggles we go through, empowering young people to learn as best they can” (client of Kirinari Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 9). One client, now a major arts leader, noted how she learned to be proud of her culture and “...the foundation[s] for that were the early days in the hostel. You learn to be strong about who you are. You had to learn to stand up for yourself, be confident, build your self-esteem” (client of Tony Mundine Hostel, AHL, 2007, pp. 43-4).

### **Differences from other social tourism examples**

A reading of the social tourism literature makes it clear that there are a number of differences between other examples of social tourism initiatives previously studied and AHL. Other initiatives are focused on holidays and recreation whereas AHL is often utilised by clients as accommodation to enable the undertaking of more serious activities, including study and securing employment. While some might argue that this indicates it should not be classified as tourism, we respond that it intersects with social tourism, education travel and medical tourism.

Additionally, as we stated earlier citing Dr Tom Calma of Reconciliation Australia, it is increasingly clear that the best solutions to Indigenous Australian disadvantage are developed by Indigenous Australians and tailored to their needs. AHL therefore represents a case of social tourism provision which is embedded in an ethos of self-determination as an Indigenous Australian guided and managed organisation which is uniquely adapted to Indigenous Australian cultural values and ways of being. Client feedback in the *100 Success Stories* (2007) consistently notes this as a key feature of safety, well-being and support which is identified as a critical underpinning for the success stories recounted.

Another important point of contrast concerns social tourism’s focus on fostering social integration. Social tourism in the European context is focused on enabling social integration of the marginalised through funding the holiday experiences of low-income groups so that they share in the societal norm of holiday-taking (European Economic and Social Committee cited in Minnaert et al., 2012, p. 126). The case of AHL is more complex as it may enable better integration of Indigenous Australians on economic terms through supporting access to education and employment, but it also is very much predicated on fostering the cultural distinctiveness of Indigenous Australians which some may argue fosters ongoing separation and exclusion. However, it is important to understand the Indigenous Australian context, where their situation as a colonised, subjected and manufactured minority necessitates their finding ways of bridging the two worlds in which they now must live – participating in the dominant society’s economy while simultaneously maintaining the strength and integrity of Indigenous cultural and social ways of being.

### ***Conclusion***

... it was a starting place for a lot of people in those days. Indigenous people from around Australia used it when they were travelling... (client of Durungaling Hostel, AHL, 2007, p. 35)

The article demonstrates some of the direct and indirect benefits AHL offer to Indigenous Australian clients as expressed through the voices in *100 Success Stories* (2007). The stories show the value of these social tourism services and suggest that Indigenous Australian clients receive significant benefits that meet their needs in a culturally appropriate way. We cannot ignore the wider impacts of AHL with its contribution to closing the gap on Indigenous Australian disadvantage and this suggests how social tourism initiatives offer a wider scope than conventional tourism and contribute to the achievement of important social aims that are within the remit of governments. By the Australian government providing public funds to support the appropriate accommodation of Indigenous Australians when they travel away from home to access services which improve their life opportunities, social tourism makes considerable contributions to Indigenous well-being and futures. Further research is needed to discover if it can be argued that money spent on these social tourism services can effectively offset government expenditure on Indigenous disadvantage in a preventative way rather than continuing a reactive policy typically witnessed in other initiatives directed at closing the gap. Additionally, this exploratory study needs to be followed up with more in-depth, qualitative research at AHL hostels around Australia to determine the full extent of its impacts. We close with the voices of students at Kirinari Hostel and Gymea TAFE AHL who tell us that staying there has allowed them travel to enhance their futures while maintaining their connection to their culture and land:

*Sacred sites, stay dreaming, passed down stories have a meaning... sacred sites, stay dreaming... long way from home.* (Kirinari Hostel and Gymea TAFE AHL students on You Tube)

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# Tourism as a Coding Machine: The Imaginative Reach of Tourism Studies – Beyond Interdisciplinarity

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## INTRODUCTION: TOURISM AS A SIGNIFYING PRACTICE

Recently, many social scientists and humanists are coming to realize that tourism is not just an immense facilitator for the raw seeing of the world, it is also an immense facilitator for **knowing of and about the world**. This Melbourne presentation will therefore explore the degree to which those who work in tourism (and those who are currently being trained for careers in operational tourism or in research into tourism) are schooled to recognise and deal sensitively and sensibly with this knowledge-producing, knowledge-revising, and knowledge-sustaining agency of tourism. The workshop delivery will not just explore the role and function of tourism in **imagining the world** and in **the 're-' or 'de'-appreciation of places and spaces**, it will critique the degree to which the emergent fields (should we say consolidated fields?) of Tourism Management / Tourism Studies decently or reasonably reflect that very **knowledge-generating power** and thereby that **imaginal-authority of tourism**.

It is acknowledged for this workshop that tourism has (during the last half-century) blossomed to become one of the most important aspects of *the international monetary economy*, being well-recognised in the ways in which the fledgling subject of tourism is envisioned and established as an educational entity. But it is also acknowledged that *the imaginative or symbolic economy* is not so readily visualized and embodied in terms of ways in which promoters, planners, and policy-makers in Tourism Management / Tourism Studies / Tourism Research do or do not comprehend the authority and reach of 'tourism' as a signifying practice, or (vitaly) learn of their own individual role as

(conceivably) a normalising and / or naturalising agent for peoples, places, and pasts.

This workshop delivery in Melbourne therefore probes not only the manner in which the carried images, the articulated discourse, and the held symbols of tourism work as *an additive system (or set of systems) of representation*, but it advances the view that the immensity of this poetic and political signifying / symbolic / declarative force is scarcely appreciated across the field. It argues that educational course-designers, practitioner bodies, and in-field journals, et cetera, currently act pointedly to 'regulate' schooling in tourism – that is not only try to set 'Tourism Management' / 'Tourism Studies' up a 'discipline' (noun) per se, but seek to control and actually 'discipline' (verb) what those who work in the field spend their time doing, saying, and thinking about. To this end, the workshop paper argues that the representational imperialisms of tourism stand much taller and the ontological and epistemological assumptive-foundations of tourism lie much deeper than most individuals who have been schooled in the field have been encouraged to recognise. The paper therefore supports the realisation of Horne (1992) not only that tourism stands as a vast *coding machine* declaring what destinations, populations, and even nations are, but that many of those who work with and within that designatory *coding authority* and that declarative *coding magisteriality* are rather blind to the weight of poetical influence and political sanction which indeed flows ordinarily through them.

## **BACKGROUND: THE IMPERATIVE TO GO BEYOND INTERDISCIPLINARITY**

In recent years, many researchers and commentators in Tourism Management / Tourism Studies have called for – as they have in all fields – for much more **interdisciplinary insight** to examine who is doing what to whom, which, and where through the articulative and declarative authority of tourism. Almost every delegate at the CAUTHE conference in Melbourne will be able to mention efforts at interdisciplinary work which they have been associated with or have read about. But interdisciplinarity (and its bedfellow approach **multidisciplinarity**) have their acute limitations as Coles, Hall, and Duval (2006) have cogently shown. What is required (according to Coles, Hall, and Duval) in Tourism Management / Tourism Studies – where there are many different international, globalising, glocalising, culture formative, and place/space declarative activities at play – is much more awareness of not only **transdisciplinary** and **adisciplinary** understandings, but experimentation in **postdisciplinary** approaches. Inspired by the important critique of Coles, Hall, and Duval. Hollinshead (2012) has

sought to enlighten the field by comparing the orientations of emergent styles of postdisciplinary work with those of the more established interdisciplinary stances. For instance, he has sought to complement the lauded thinking of Repko (2009: 9 [who draws on Vickers 1998:34]) into what constitutes *sound / effective interdisciplinarity* with a like inspection of what conceivably makes *sound / effective postdisciplinarity*.

Thus, in the following four sample statements (out of seven provided in (Hollinshead 2012) – the claims of Repko on and for *interdisciplinarity* are given as ★ while the later claims of Hollinshead (himself) on *postdisciplinarity* are given as ◆:

## 1 Claims about particular subjects or objects

### ★ INTERDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

Claim a burgeoning literature of increasing sophistication, depth of analysis, and thus utility. This literature includes subspecialities on interdisciplinary theory, programme administration, curriculum design, research process, and assessment. More importantly, a growing body of explicitly interdisciplinary research on real-world problems is emerging.

### ◆ POSTDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

*Seek to work with relevant contextual understandings rather than with the bodies of knowledge exclusively contained within a single discipline or within singular disciplines. Aim to help those involved at the setting(s) in question see under and beyond the veils of ignorance that come with each discipline, and with universalist / hegemonic understandings – particularly those freighted with ‘the comfortable make believe’ of the historical configurations of colonialism.*

## 2 Claims about methods of acquiring knowledge and the power or theories to order that knowledge



★ INTERDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

Make use of disciplinary methods, but these are subsumed under a research process of its own that involves drawing on relevant disciplinary insights, concepts, theories, and methods to produce new knowledge.

◆ POSTDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

*Tend to be flexible in the use made of methods and theories – and disciplines – thereby being designed to compensate for knowledge produced where an iron cage of privileged understanding has built up around a received or dominant mindset. Tend to be particularly active where a felt need is found to compensate for an ordered or systematic denigration of ‘the other’ (‘an other’).*

**3 Claims about the capacity to generate new knowledge, concepts, and theories**

★ INTERDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

Produces new knowledge, more comprehensive understandings, new meanings, and cognitive advancements

◆ POSTDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

*Seek to cultivate new knowledge normally grounded to or within a specific local / host / emic setting. Importantly recognise that all knowledges are contested and shifting.*

**4 Claims about the need for a recognized core of courses**

★ INTERDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

Is beginning to form a core of courses

#### ◆ POSTDISCIPLINARY STUDIES

Are inclined to resist or minimise reliance upon the ubiquitous application of core cognitions and established (normalising) templates. Are inclined – within courses of study – to celebrate so called ‘alternative’ ways of seeing and telling, especially those (today) which are ‘non-European’, genderised, decolonised, and decentered.

#### **FOCUS: THE REQUIRED TRAITS AND SKILLS FOR POSTDISCIPLINARY WORK**

If managers, conceptualists, and researchers are ever going to be decently or appropriately schooled beyond interdisciplinarity in (for instance) postdisciplinary approaches, it is critical that those who design curricula become aware of the standpoints and orientations demanded in and of such wider / broader / panoramic multi-framed inspections of knowledge-gain and coding knowhow. Accordingly, at Melbourne, the following list of traits and skills will be provided to reveal what Repko (2009: 278) considers are the key traits and skills required of a bona fide and competent interdisciplinarian. The informed and capable interdisciplinarian should:

- be enterprising;
- love learning;
- be reflective;
- tolerant for ambiguity and for paradox in the midst of complexity;
- receptive to other disciplines, and to the perspectives supported by them ;
- be able to communicate competently;
- be able to think abstractly;
- be able to think dialectically;
- be able to engage in nonlinear thinking;
- be able to think creatively;
- be able to think integratively;

- be able to recognise the limits of what is knowable.

Those present at the CAUTHE workshop will therefore be asked to comment upon what they think an equivalent set of traits and skills would constitute for a bone fide and competent postdisciplinary who thinks and acts in terms of many poetic sensitivities and political sensibilities well beyond the restrictive demesne of mere interdisciplinarity.

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# Probing Polyphony Bricoleurship and the open play of Reflection and Reflexivity

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## INTRODUCTION: THE NEW ACCENT ON VOICE. AUDIENCE, AND REFLEXIVITY

Recently, the state of the art of soft science has advanced considerably, and has been notably recognised by the large sales which have accrued for Denzin and Lincoln's mammoth edited work *The Handbook of Qualitative Research*, viz., in its four (1994, 2000, 2005 and 2011) editions. This Melbourne presentation recaps for delegates at the CAUTHE Conference what some of the pungent areas of progress have been over the past two decades in the mutually interleaved soft science arenas of (i) social constructivism (as paradigmatic approach); (ii) interpretivism (as engaged mode of etic-to-emic critique); and (iii) qualitative studies (as a broad church of investigative 'human instrument' methods). Thus, this presentation on emergent / unfolding / consolidating soft science approaches to the *identification*, the *counter-identification*, and the *disidentification* of populations (after Pêcheux) serves as a primer in liberated / oxygenated thinking about the who / what / where / when / why / which / how of knowing in the so called 'soft science' bazaar. It will pay special attention to the following emergent interpretive conceptualisations:

### ■ IN MATTERS OF VOICE IDENTIFICATION, TO ...

- ✿ voice and disinterested / neutral understandings;
- ✿ voice and interested / non-neutral understandings;
- ✿ voice and transformative knowing;
- ✿ voice and animated evocation;

✿ et cetera.

■ IN MATTERS OF AUDIENCE IDENTIFICATION, TO ...

- ✿ audiencing through collective / cultural stories;
- ✿ audiencing through decoding / encoding;
- ✿ audiencing through metaphoric interpretation;
- ✿ audiencing through feedback instrumentation;
- ✿ et cetera.

■ IN MATTERS OF REFLEXIVE IDENTIFICATION, TO ...

- ✿ reflexive accounting;
- ✿ reflexive ethnography;
- ✿ reflexive textuality;
- ✿ reflexive validity;
- ✿ et cetera.

**BACKGROUND: LATE ADVANCES IN BRICOLEURSHIP**

Illumination about the above trinity of bedfellow issues of 'voice', 'audience', and 'reflexivity' will be carried out: firstly, by explaining how such soft science critique has generally 'loosened up' in the experimental **bricoleurship** of our age; and,

secondly, by translating those potential gains in embeddedness and know-how to the throbbing realm of international tourism – in particular, to the enunciative (but under-recognised) potential which inherently lies within the new-sense being and new-sense becoming of indigenous / emerging / developing populations.

In terms of bricoleurship, per se, this presentation will draw heavily from the advances of Kincheloe (2005) on emergent styles of bricolage. Kincheloe's pragmatic cum philosophical approach to research into the complexity of our everyday lives and contemporary identities is a landmark work on the capacity

of interpretive researchers to trace the polyphony of voices, texts, and talk in the throbbing discourse of our age. The following list details some of the cardinal insights which one may attribute to him – where ○ numbers 1 to 12 comprise some of the key targets of emergent styles of rigorous research through bricolage ... and where the italicised statement under each of those targets constitute a simple example of the fit and relevance of Kincheloe-inspired bricolage for inquiry into the dynamics of being and becoming in and through tourism:

**○ 1 = in the orders of reality**

*e.g., inquiry into different historicities of place on here and now forms of othering;*

**○ 2 = in the questioning of universalism**

*e.g., inquiry into local mytho-praxis work on (for instance) particular Indigenous meanings of music and dance;*

**○ 3 = in polysemy**

*e.g., inquiry into contested meanings of place as in the contested politics of authenticity;*

**○ 4 = in the living process in which cultural entities are situated**

*e.g., inquiry into 'modern' constructions of ancient / revered populations or sacred / world-shaping predecessors;*

**○ 5 = in the ontology of relationships and connections**

*e.g., inquiry into collaboration in tourism planning where different interest groups and stakeholders appear to have come together on a found issue;*

**○ 6 = in intersecting contexts**

*e.g., inquiry into different contexts of space where competing 'intimacies of space' seemingly collide;*

**○ 7 = in multiple epistemologies**

*e.g., inquiry into the epistemology / epistemologies of old and new traditions where an old tradition appears to fast hybridise or transitionalise;*

○ 8 = in intertextuality

*e.g., inquiry into different readings of and about important cultural entities which are nowadays being widely projected via the industrial scripting power of international tourism;*

○ 9 = in discursive constructions

*e.g., inquiry into the ethnographic present where tourism appears to have given rise to (or helped given rise to) many new kinds of emergent or sanitised forms of othering;*

○ 10 = in the fictive dimension of all research findings

*e.g., inquiry into the reflective and reflexive composition of research findings where interpretivists in Tourism Studies have to learn to be sensitive to a veritable panoply of different voices / audiences / communication channels;*

○ 11 = in the cultural assumptions within all methods

*e.g., inquiry into the ontologies of Tourism Studies where new sorts of soft science inquiry are called for in order to identify the strident new styles of postcolonial or (perhaps) anti-Western discourse which are embedded within the projected representations of particular peoples / places / pasts;*

○ 12 = in the other institutional relationships between power and knowledge

*e.g., inquiry into 'mainstream' versus 'alternative' forms of exhibited place where new and important sorts of corrective or enunciatory 'legitimation' (for the heritage' of previously-subjugated populations) are being articulated.*

Taken together, the above list of targets and examples attests to the need to recognise **the sorts of complexity which are embedded in the production, the identification, and the interpretation of all local and situated knowledges.**

**FOCUS OF THE PRESENTATION:**

All too frequently, novice social scientists tend to see bricolage (bricoleurship) as a mere technical exercise of **methods-level** practice. In Melbourne, therefore, particular attention will be given to the various other methodological beach-heads which are indeed available for the due open play of reflective thought and reflexive decision-making under bricoleurship. For instance, the following different types or styles of bricoleurship will be delineated – for each are generally available to be harnessed in Tourism Studies (as elsewhere) to help the interpretive / constructivist / qualitative researcher delve into the contemporary complexities of being and becoming in his or her settings on interest:

- ◆ I = METHODOLOGICAL BRICOLAGE (cf. METHODS-LEVEL BROCOLAGE);
- ◆ ii = THEORETICAL BRICOLAGE;
- ◆ iii = INTERPRETIVE BRICOLAGE;
- ◆ iv = POLITICAL BRICOLAGE; and,
- ◆ v = NARRATIVE BRICOLAGE.

[ Nota Bene: For a rudimentary introduction to bricoleurship (bricolage), itself – vis-à-vis Tourism Studies – see Hollinshead (1996). ]

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# The New Promise for Indigenous Being and Becoming: Tourism, the Renewal of Land and the Regeneration of Life

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## INTRODUCTION: TOURISM AND INDIGENOUS REVERENCE

This presentation inspects **the orientation of indigenous belief systems towards the environment**, and examines the role of tourism in improving broader understanding across the world about Indigenous spirituality with regard to the earth and nature. The majority of the insights on held Indigenous cosmologies about land and life are drawn from Aboriginal 'Australia', but the workshop material will be punctuated with short reflective observations on the outlook of other Indigenous populations elsewhere – particularly in Africa – on land, lore, and the / their so called 'natural' inheritance.

In the Melbourne delivery, the environment will predominantly be treated as a cultural and spiritual phenomenon (or rather, noumenon) in lieu of being seen axiomatically as fundamentally a product of nature itself, as tends to be assumed in many (most?) urban-industrial / cosmopolitan / non-indigenous spheres. An attempt will thereby be made to provide an informed introduction to the spiritual life of Aboriginal 'Australians' – a cosmology (or mix of cosmologies) which over the past two centuries has (have) principally remained hidden behind veils of misunderstanding and prejudice not only beyond Australia, but within Australia amongst non-Aboriginal people. **The sometimes manifest (but as yet largely latent) role of tourism** in judiciously communicating corrective or improved cognition about that indigenous spirituality, will be examined.

In attempting to build up an appreciation of the distinctly 'Aboriginal' way (or rather, 'ways') of seeing the world, this Melbourne workshop examines what is being done today in and through tourism to decently / faithfully present matters

of Indigenous being and articulate the values and reverences which are embedded in received ancient (Indigenous) wisdom. To that end, the development and / or promotion in tourism of a number of specific 'environmental' settings (or special places / sacred landscapes) will be analysed in terms of what various Indigenous populations might deem to be **good (healthy) or bad (unwanted) practices**.

In seeking to examine the function of tourism as **a mechanism for the re-imagination of Indigenous worlds**, the workshop draws attention to a number of narrow Western / Eurocentric / non-Indigenous strictures (in and around tourism) which currently frustrate the aspirations of Indigenous groups and communities. It then distinguishes how some Aboriginal populations in Australia (and elsewhere) are keen to embrace tourism to help recover their lands and their spiritual abodes, while other Aboriginal populations actively resist what they see as further intrusion of non-Indigenous mindsets into their realm via tourism, which the latter tend to see as the next immense and externally-derived trauma enveloping them.

#### **BACKGROUND: THE CALL FOR DIALOGUE ABOUT CULTURE AND NATURE**

In this presentation, the main case study being detailed in this presentation covers the recent call amongst Australia's leading Indigenous intellectuals for much improved cross-cultural DIALOGUE in dealing with the deep issues of identity, history, and representation which lie at the heart of contemporary Indigenous spirituality. Tourism will thereby be seen as a vital new medium for the cultivation of that DIALOGUE.

In paying respect to these cardinal but difficult matters of Indigenous voice and reflexivity, the delivery questions whether current within-the-field 'disciplinary' (and interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary) approaches to Tourism Management / Tourism Studies readily provide the depth of insight required for non-Indigenous practitioners and researchers to meaningfully grasp what is critical within the spirituality of either those Aboriginal peoples who live seemingly 'traditional' lifestyles, or those other Aboriginal peoples who live in restless hybrid situations caught 'between cultures' in awkward, interstitial locations across society. The call is thereby made for **much more commonplace transdisciplinary (and postdisciplinary) approaches** to understand the psychic realm of other (heavily othered?) populations in and through tourism.

This CAUTHE presentation concludes by developing a number of critical propositions on the sometimes-still-traditional and the sometimes-fast-transitionalising Indigenous orientation to what most non-Indigenous institutions

call 'nature' or 'the environment'. These propositions revolve around the capacity of tourism / Tourism Studies to foster all sorts of refreshed or empowering **new sense understandings** about Indigenous cosmology (cosmologies).

## **FOCUS: THE EMERGENT AND AMBIVALENT PSYCHIC LOCATIONS OF MANY INDIGENOUS POPULATIONS**

*In endeavouring to understanding the orientation of contemporary Indigenous populations to nature, to culture, and indeed to anything, it is necessary to identify the aforesaid 'difficult' emergent and ambivalent locations which they so frequently find themselves contained within or captured by today. In this respect, this Melbourne presentation will draw pointedly from Bhabha's (1994) ideas on cultural hybridity and ambiguity. This insight will be scaffolded from the following six selected explanations about such restless psychic cultural locations for Indigenous peoples and other colonised or subjugated populations. .*

Cultural hybridity will thereby be understood to be composed of *those transnational and transitional encounters and negotiations over differential meaning and value in 'colonial' / 'postcolonial' contexts where new ambivalent and indeterminate locations of culture are generated, but where that new celebration of identity consists largely of problematic forms of signification which resist discursive closure.*

The six adapted explanations, or 'propositions', about these difficult psychics locations of cultural hybridity have been simplified from Hollinshead (1998/A and 1998/B) and are:

1 = that they (i.e., these restless and demanding 'locations') comprise **liminal spaces or interstitial passages between fixed identifications** which entertains 'difference' without an assumed or imposed hierarchy --- and thus where they can serve an expanded or ex-centric site of experience and empowerment;

2 = that they comprise **inherently unauthentic or 'impure' sites** where new anti-essentialist signs of symbolic post-colonial consciousness are iteratively generated in opposition to the hierarchy and the ascendancy of powerful (and usually colonising) cultures;

3 = that they comprise those sites of emergent cultural knowledge which resist **unitary and ethnocentric (externally imposed) notions of diversity**, and which thus reveal culture to be uncertain, ambivalent and transparent, and open to the future;

4 = that they comprise those transnational and transitional encounters or negotiations over differential meaning and value in 'colonial' contexts where new ambivalent and indeterminate locations of culture are generated, but where that new celebration of identity consists largely of problematic forms of signification which resist **discursive closure**;

5 = that they comprise those marginal places where cultural differences contingently and conflictually touch to yield **new / fresh borderline experiences** which are resistant to the binary oppositions of racial and cultural groups and to homogenized and polarised forms of political consciousness;

6 = that they comprise **a fantastic location** of cultural difference where new expressive cultural identities frequently and continually open out *performatively* to disturb or realign the supposed boundaries of class, gender, and place (each of which have themselves largely been contingent upon the stubborn chunks of the incommensurable elements of an externally-imposed totalized identity accorded to them in the recent past).

Each of the above six propositions on cultural hybridity offer rich interpretive insight into **the unfolding / emergent fantasmatics** faced by many Indigenous populations today In Australia, across Africa, and about the wider world. These 'fantasmatics' constitute *the changing, embryonic, and budding spiritual accounts and other esteemed narratives which those Indigenous peoples acknowledge or celebrate about themselves, their lands, and their lives*. Clearly, tourism is indeed an increasingly important-in-scale and important-in-scope means through which these held 'fantasmatics' about nature, culture, and spirituality dynamise during our messy contemporary moment.

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# Perceptions of tourism as a career option for young people in regional Western Australia

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## **Abstract**

Unemployment is a particular problem for young people in regional areas in Australia, however regional Western Australia is experiencing a huge skills shortage and across the tourism sector. This paper uses data collected at 11 focus groups conducted across Western Australia from May-July 2011 with young people aged 15-24 years, to examine whether young people from regional Western Australia perceive tourism and hospitality as a viable career and study option. The findings explore perceptual and structural constraints on encouraging these people to pursue careers within the tourism sector.

**Key words:** Regional Areas, Tourism Employment, Student Choices

This paper examines the perceptions of young people aged 15-24 years old towards tourism as a viable career and study option in regional Western Australia.

One of the challenges governments and policymakers all over the world face is the high level of unemployment amongst youth (Making Cents International, 2009). Traditionally,

the unemployment level for young people (defined by the ILO as those belonging to the 15-24 yrs age group) is high compared to the rest of the population. In Australia, for instance, the youth unemployment rate in 2009 was more than double (12%) that of the average rate for people over 24 years (5.7%) (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010). The issue of youth unemployment is compounded in regional areas as there are fewer employment opportunities in these regions. Lack of employment opportunities is a great concern in regional areas and is often pointed out as one of the reasons why young people leave the region, thus threatening sustainability of regional communities (McDonald, Bradley & Brown, 2009).

Despite these problems, regional Western Australia is experiencing a significant skills shortage in tourism at all levels. This was particularly notable prior to the global financial crisis, with enrolments on tourism study and training programs falling by 8,900 from 2002 to 2005, against a backdrop of acute skill shortages across the state (Hospitality and Tourism Training Council, 2006). As research has found that tourism industries are more likely to retain staff with qualifications (Hjalager & Andersen, 2000), this is a very real concern. The resources sector in Western Australia is still expanding and the State Government has listed several occupations within the tourism sector on their State Occupations Priority List in 2010 (Department of Training and Workforce Development, 2010). Therefore, this skills shortage continues to be a problem. Researchers have examined the perceptions of students who are already studying tourism at university (for example Airey & Frontistis, 1997; Richardson, 2009) but there is limited research on the perceptions of school leavers and young people towards tourism as a career option prior to enrolment in a tourism study program.

This paper uses data collected at 11 focus groups from May-July 2011 with young people aged 15-24 years, to examine whether young people from regional Western Australia perceive tourism and hospitality as a viable career and study option. Focus groups were chosen as the data collection tool as focus groups are, as Weeden (2005) points out, an effective tool for examining consumer issues such as the environmental impact of leisure, as they provide a comfortable environment for a homogenous group of strangers to share information and opinions (Krueger & Casey, 2000). Focus groups were held in three regional locations in WA: two groups in Bunbury, a growing coastal city in the South-West region of WA; three groups in Kalgoorlie, a large mining town in the outback Goldfields region; and two groups in Northam, an agricultural town in the Wheatbelt, the central agricultural region of WA. Four groups were held at Curtin University's metropolitan campus in Perth with students from regional areas across WA. The latter enabled the researchers to include respondents from across the state. A total of 85 respondents participated in the discussions, with the groups ranging in size from 6 to 13 participants. Each focus group was facilitated by two researchers, using a unified focus group schedule. Students were recruited via high schools, university campuses, youth groups and with the assistance of local Chambers of Commerce. Participants each received a small financial incentive for their time.

Each focus group was recorded and transcribed for analysis, with one researcher also taking some general notes about key themes which emerged during the discussion. Data analysis is ongoing and this paper reports on these early stages of analysis. So

far, the notes from each focus group have been compared and the research team has begun reading and re-reading the transcripts to identify key themes and categories which will help to answer the research questions, the process typically adopted in qualitative studies (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The analysis reported here was conducted first by one researcher and then sent to the rest of the team for comment and discussion.

Respondents demonstrated good awareness of the tourism attractions in their area and also of some of the challenges facing tourism businesses, such as the high price of fuel and competition from other industries for staff. However, focus group participants' perception of opportunities for tourism employment was limited primarily to that of a tour guide. There was also the perception of tourism development in their region already being mature, with limited new opportunities for staff or new tourism businesses. As such tourism higher education programs lacked appeal, yet a further significant factor was the availability of tourism study programs at regional campuses. Respondents reported that their study aspirations were constrained by the courses which were available to them locally. These preliminary findings point to the need for further market research on the demand for tourism-related programs at regional campuses in areas experiencing a shortage in skilled workers.

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# Collaboration in the New Golden Age: A Canadian Network for Tourism and Hospitality Education

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## **Abstract**

Contemplating the significance of the year 2012 in the Mayan calendar, and the CAUTHE conference theme of a “new golden age” in tourism & hospitality education is a useful exercise. Any “new age” will undoubtedly see continued increases in world inter-connectedness. This brings accelerated opportunities for students & instructors from global tourism & hospitality programs to benefit by creating new networks of discourse and collaboration.

CAUTHE 2012 presents an opportunity for Australian and other educators to compare notes about effective models for establishing and maintaining networks in tourism and hospitality education.

This presentation will highlight the six years of work undertaken by this British Columbia network of 20 colleges and universities, and encourage a discussion on the opportunities to build stronger network-to-network connections with tourism/hospitality educators in Australia and elsewhere.

*LinkBC: the tourism & hospitality education network (LinkBC) was established in 2005 by the two government ministries responsible for advanced education and tourism. It has since evolved into a cost-effective student-focused organization with a clear governance model, active participants, and a range of “value-added” programs and services. Drawing on the strength of our network of 20 colleges and universities, the LinkBC staff team manages a number of projects aligned with four strategic objectives:*

### **1. Provide *Student-Connect* programs & services**

LinkBC offers a range of programs, under the *Student-Connect* brand, that create opportunities for students and graduates to make stronger connections with the industry. Some examples include:



- **BC Tourism/Hospitality Student-Industry Rendezvous:** an annual speed-networking event with almost 100 managers and 400 students



- **Annual Tourism/Hospitality Student Case Competition:** a highlight of the annual BC Tourism Industry Conference

- **Our Future Leaders:** A VIP opportunity and scholarship for students at the annual BC Hospitality Conference

- **Project Change:** a province-wide student competition with the focus on team building, community engagement, industry connections and project management—all with a sustainability focus
- The **Orange Book of Success** series: resource books for students (maximizing student success and career preparation), employers (improving the work-placement experiences) and instructors (tips gathered from peers to improve performance).
- The **Orange Book Workshop:** supports academic success and career path development for students while in their programs, easing their transition to industry.

## 2. Promote BC as a tourism learning destination

A long-term initiative aligned with the province's tourism strategy goal of increasing tourism revenues by 2016, activities in this area include a number of collaborative marketing efforts. These include an online and increasing social media presence ([www.studytourisminbc.ca](http://www.studytourisminbc.ca)), [trade shows](#), and [collaborative marketing with regional and city DMOs](#). Education partners are working with LinkBC, and the BC Council on International Education, to collectively increase the number of learners choosing to "Study Tourism & Hospitality in BC, Canada."



## 3. Gather & share tourism knowledge and resources

Serving as an information and resource "hub" for the network, LinkBC acts in a coordination/facilitation role for a number of projects aligned to this objective. The two major ones are:

### *Strengthening the BC Tourism Learning System*

BC education partners offer a set of ladder and industry validated programs that align with



our fast changing industry – a coordinated unique in North America. Our role has been to engage educators offering similar levels of programs in the development of common curriculum standards for all participating schools.

***The Tourism Online Resource Centre***

LinkBC hosts the *Tourism Online Resource Centre* (TORC), a high-impact tool offering a comprehensive collection of industry-related resources from Canada and beyond. A recently signed partnership agreement with the Travel & Tourism Research Association (Canada) parallels a current plan to add significant enhancements, and to extend of reach for this well-used online library. TORC is now seeking international content contributors and welcomes inquiries from CAUTHE delegates to partner in this endeavour. Visit [www.bctorc.ca](http://www.bctorc.ca) to access a range of research findings, helpful links to websites, and industry information from across Canada, and around the world.



**4. Communicate with and engage stakeholders**



LinkBC has learned much over the past six years of supporting a network of diverse programs over a wide geographic area – and doing so in a time of fiscal restraint. This has meant an ongoing refinement of its communication strategies. Delegates will hear of some of lessons learned as relationships are nurtured with education, government and industry partners, and of some of the approaches used.

While at CAUTHE, Mr. Hood will be pleased to engage in discussions with delegates about benefits and ways to increase the connections between western Canadian and Australian tourism, adventure tourism, hospitality and culinary programs.

# The Roles of Entrepreneurs' Political Ties: Indications from Economy Hotel Chains in China

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## **Abstract**

This study identified the roles played by political ties during the entrepreneurial processes of economy hotel chains in China. This study also explored the negative effects of using political ties and how to avoid those dark impacts. Thirty-four top executives of economy hotel chains were interviewed. Almost all informants expressed political ties as important in the transitional economy of China, though they disagreed on the extent to which political ties could improve the performance of an economy hotel chain. Many of the informants were forced into relationships with government officials because the costs of dropping those relationships were too high.

**Key words:** Entrepreneurial Processes, Political Ties, Economy Hotel, Transitional Economy, China

## **Research Questions and Background**

Managerial political ties are managers' ties with officials in the government, industrial bureaus, and regulatory and other supporting organizations (Peng & Luo, 2000). Political ties are more common in transitional economies where formal institutions are not complete (Peng, 2001). In China, because personal interpretations are often used in place of legal interpretations, almost none of the laws, rules, and regulations is completely enforced (Luo & Chen, 1997).

Some studies in the 1990s discussed the characteristics of the transitional economy. For example, Peng and Heath (1996, p. 504) summarized three characteristics of transitional economies: “(a) lack of a property-rights-based legal framework, (b) lack of a stable political structure, and (c) lack of strategic factor markets.” Nee (1992) indicated that private firms always faced unauthorized interference by government officials who played the role of redistributors.

Although researchers agree on the importance of political ties early in the transition processes from planned economy to market economy, they hold conflicting opinions on the roles of political ties as a more formalized regulation system is developed in a transitional economy (Guthrie, 1998; Li, 2005; Peng, 2003). Guthrie (1998) suggests that network ties are institution-based rather than culture-based and that the significance of network ties will decline as other factors are substituted for them during the time of institutional transition. However, Tjosvold, Peng, Chen, and Su (2008) insist that, due to the interdependence between government and the private sector, political ties will be continuously effective. Li (2005) even stresses that a market orientation will foster entrepreneurs’ networking with government officials.

Before the opening of a hotel, operators have to obtain licenses or permits from multiple government bureaus such as the fire department, the public health bureau, and the industrial and commercial bureau. After opening, hotels are under frequent inspection by government organizations such as the police. To join the star-rating system, they need approval from local and regional tourism bureaus. Liu, Huang, and Hsu (2010) have found examples of economy hotel chain managers using political ties during the entrepreneurial process. However, the roles of political ties may differ during different stages of economy hotel chain development. This study will address the following research questions: What are the important roles played by political ties? What specific functions do they serve during the entrepreneurial processes of economy hotel chains?

A variety of measures has been used to develop political ties. In China, banquets and gift-giving are popular ways of building network ties (Yang, 1994). Dunfee and Warren (2001) noted other networking methods such as offering free trips to government officials. However, Luo (2007) suggested that networking efforts such as giving “red envelopes” (cash gifts) could be taken as corrupt behavior. Here arises another research question. How do entrepreneurs create and maintain political ties in China’s legal system? Foreign entrepreneurs in particular face the liability of foreignness (Autio, Sapienza, & Arenius, 2005) and have great difficulty in developing network ties with Chinese government officials. Luo and Chen (1997) found that managers coming from different cultural backgrounds use political ties differently. We will pay additional attention to how foreign entrepreneurs can gain access to political ties in China.

Network ties (*guanxi*) have been described as a double-edge sword in China (Warren, Dunfee, & Li, 2004), and the use of political ties has its pros and cons. Social exchange theory indicated that an individual who offers help to other people expects payback from others (Blau, 1964). As one example, managers were asked to hire government officials’ relatives who were not qualified for open job positions (Tsang, 1998). When

costs of maintaining political ties surpass the benefit, using political ties can hurt entrepreneurial firms. This study will explore the negative effects of using political ties and how to avoid those dark impacts.

### **Methodology and Preliminary Results**

We used a qualitative research approach to address the process- and detail-oriented research questions. A purposive sampling method was used to select informants so that hotel chains of different size and ownership type could be included in the study. We made sure to sample both economy hotel chains whose headquarters are located in developed coastal regions (such as Guangdong, Fujian, Zhejiang, Shanghai, and Shandong) and those located in less developed inland provinces (such as Hunan, Hubei, and Henan). We interviewed a total number of 34 informants, top executives of economy hotels chains, many of whom have played important roles in founding the economy hotel chains.

We collected our data mainly through in-depth interviews. Each interview lasted about 40 minutes. Questions on entrepreneurs, government officials to whom they were linked by network ties, interaction between the two parties, and the effects of political ties were asked during the interviews. Information on the background and competitive strategies of the economy hotel chains were also sought. Twenty-seven interviews were tape-recorded and will be transcribed. We are processing the data now and expect to write up the results in one and a half months.

We summarized some preliminary results based on the unprocessed information. Almost all informants expressed the view that political ties were important in the transitional economy of China, though they disagreed on the extent to which political ties could improve the performance of an economy hotel chain. Traditional ways of maintaining relationships with government officials, such as dinner treatment and gift giving, were mentioned by some top executives. Some new methods of maintaining relationships were introduced by the informants as well. After the voice recorder was turned off, a few of them even described other people's grey area behavior, such as giving small amounts of money to officials. Many of the informants were forced into relationships with government officials because the costs of dropping those relationships were too high.

### **Contribution**

This research will contribute to the social capital field and the hospitality industry in following ways. First, it will provide current information on the roles of political ties in a transitional economy, especially on how political ties function during the process of founding a hotel chain. Second, it will explore measures to develop and maintain political ties in China and offer valuable suggestions to foreign entrepreneurs. Finally, this study will identify the negative effects of political ties.

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# Residents' Attitudes towards Mainland Chinese Tourists in Hong Kong

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## Introduction

Mainland Chinese travelers have played an important role in the tourism industry in Hong Kong over the past two decades. According to the statistic published by Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB), in 2010, mainland China continued to be the largest visitor source with 22.68 million arrivals, accounting for 63% of Hong Kong's total arrivals.

Among all the tourists, Mainland Chinese continued to be the primary generator of total spending in 2010. They make up 64.4% of overnight visitors, while contributing 90% to same-day in-town visitor spending (HKTB). The higher spending not only reflected the rapid economic growth of the Mainland, which stimulated spending and outbound travel, but also underlined Hong Kong's position as one of the first-choice destinations among Mainland travelers.

Given the importance of the mainland Chinese market to Hong Kong's economy, it is essential to understand the sustainability of this particular market, and what kind of factors will affect the sustainable growth of this market, such as destination attractiveness, the variety of tourism products, and acceptance of the local community. Among these factors, the positive perception and attitudes of the local residents toward mainland tourists is of great importance and will be the focus of this study.

Few studies on residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism have been undertaken. The few exceptions were Schofield (2011), Vargas-Sanchez et.al (2009), Andriouitis & Vaughan (2003), Jurowski et al 1997; Sirakaya et al (2002), McGehee and Andereck (2004).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is:

1. to examine the attitudes of residents toward mainland tourists in Hong Kong.
2. to identify the factors influencing local residents' attitudes towards the mainland tourists.
3. to address the implication of the future development of the Hong Kong tourism industry.

## **THE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK**

Researchers have classified the factors that influence the attitudes of residents toward tourism into different categories. Harill (2004) proposed different groupings of variables: socioeconomic factors, spatial factors, and factors of economic dependence. Vargas-Sanchez (2008), categorized the factors that influence the attitude of resident toward tourism into sociodemographic variables, variables of relationship with tourism, variables of perception, and variables of context. Similarly, Fredline and Faulkner (1997) identified the factors from two broad dimensions.

1. The extrinsic dimension, which refers to characteristics of the location with respect to its role as a tourist destination, including the nature and stage of tourism development and the types of tourists involved; and
2. The intrinsic dimension, which refers to characteristics of members of the host community that affect variation in perceptions of impacts of tourism within the community.

Several studies have identified a number of variables associated with each dimension. (Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Yoon, Chen, and Gursoy 1999; Lankford 1994; Sheldon and Var 1984).

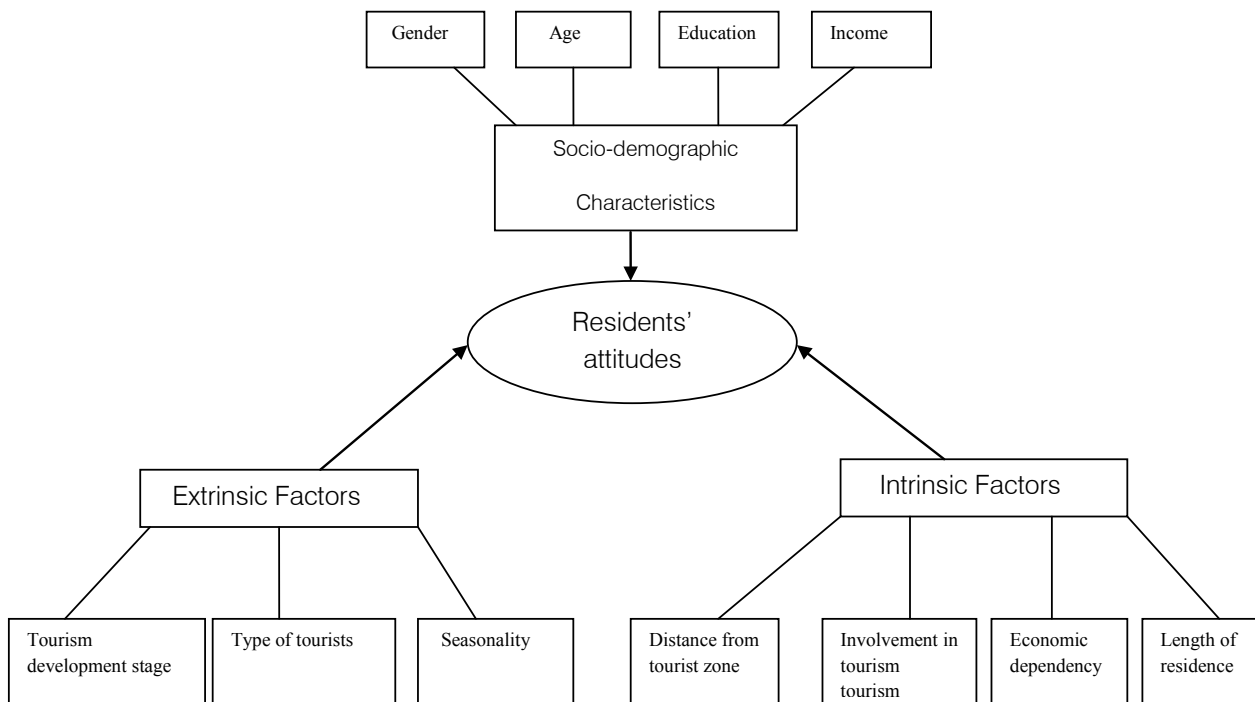
This study will examine factors influencing the attitude of residents using the extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions framework. Sociodemographic factors will be taken into consideration as well. Extrinsic factors include tourism development state, type of tourists and seasonality. And intrinsic factors consist of physical distance between the resident's home locality and the principal tourist zones, involvement in tourism, personal benefit or economic dependence and length of residence. Further details of these factors are listed in the figure 1 in the following page.

## **Methodology**

An exploratory design utilizing qualitative research methodologies was adopted for this study. Individual in-depth interviews were conducted in this study to collect opinions from both local residents and mainland Chinese tourists. In-depth interviews were used to observe the informants and provide a rich understanding of the informant's perspectives (Minichiello et al., 1995). A total of 20 random local residents, over the age of 20, were interviewed: 9 men, 11 women. There were 18 mainland Chinese tourists selected with reference to the data from Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB). The

interview questions were devised along two themes: the attitudes of Hong Kong residents towards mainland Chinese tourists as well as the tourists' perceived attitudes of local residents.

Figure 1 The Analytical Framework



### KEY FINDINGS

The study revealed that Hong Kong residents generally held very positive attitude towards mainland Chinese tourists in spite of some negative responses. Positive attitude were attributed to the economic development benefit. An unexpected finding was that some inappropriate behaviors of mainland Chinese tourists such as littering, jumping in queue, spitting and talking loudly were regarded as inevitable and were tolerated by some local residents. Most of the respondents preferred IVS( Individual Visiting Scheme) visitors over group tourists as the former were from the developed areas and were perceived as better educated and larger consumers with fewer communication barriers. Especially favored were those from Guangdong. Group tourists were regarded as rustic, poor and uncivilized. The study also found, that local residents were concerned about the emerging negative impacts brought about by the large number of mainland Chinese tourists. These concerns included usurpation of medical resources caused by mainland Chinese giving birth in Hong Kong, increasing housing prices, inflation and even baby formula shortage due to the melamine-contaminated milk in China. Interview responses also lead to the discovery of an

internet song which portrays Hong Kong residents' panic regarding mainland tourists named 蝗虫天下 ( means locus world) . The song described mainland Chinese poorly: "They shout in restaurants, hotels, stores..."; "They like to invade and occupy other's territory."; "They grab others' ID card." These sentiments exists despite the fact that most local residents' realized that mainland Chinese played a very important role in driving Hong Kong's economic development.

## **CONCLUSION**

Understanding local residents' attitudes toward tourism development is vital for the success and sustainability of any type of tourism. Generally speaking, Hong Kong residents perceive mainland Chinese tourists very positively due to their important role in Hong Kong's economic development. However it is undeniable that their negative and dissatisfactory attitudes are also very apparent. Based on the findings, Hong Kong residents can be defined as "ambivalent supporters." And the negative impact of this attitude on tourism development in Hong Kong is becoming very influential. In the long run, how to change local residents from "ambivalent supporters to "lover" needs to be addressed in order to ensure the healthy development of Hong Kong inbound tourism.

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# Designing interpretation for Chinese and Western visitors: Different strokes for different folks?

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## **Abstract**

The aim of the current research is to explore visitors' experiences at five heritage tourism sites in Beijing, China and to identify cultural differences and similarities between Chinese and Western visitors in relation to their interpretation preferences, needs and perceptions. Key findings will be discussed, as well as implications for the design of heritage interpretation that will appeal to the emerging Chinese market.

## **Introduction**

Heritage sites are attracting increasing numbers of tourists world-wide, a trend that has been attributed to growing public awareness of heritage; more flexibility in terms of leisure, mobility and disposable income; a desire to escape from 'everyday' routines; and the psychological fulfilment of learning about personal family history (Waite, 2000). Destinations that once mainly attracted historians, archaeologists and anthropologists are now frequented by tourists with a wide range of interests, experiences, needs and expectations. While this increase in tourist numbers is encouraging, it does mean that many visitors may lack the specialist knowledge of history to meaningfully 'connect' with heritage sites. Thus, such sites are under considerable pressure to develop experiences and attractions that appeal to wider audiences both physically and intellectually (Malcolm-Davies, 2004), while also providing the information necessary to 'bring these special places to life'.

Research indicates that tourists visit heritage sites for a variety of reasons including viewing works of art, learning about architecture, worshiping, visiting attractive settings, absorbing the site's 'atmosphere', experiencing a pleasant day out, gaining educational and nostalgic insights into past cultures, and connecting to ancestors (Chhabra, 2007; Poria, Reichel and Biran, 2005). The key question is how can heritage sites help

tourists make sense of their experience - what do we need to provide to help visitors connect emotionally, physically and intellectually with the site and its history? Additionally, for internationally renowned sites, are there cultural differences in terms of motives for visitation, expectations, preferences and satisfaction with heritage experiences?

This study addresses these questions by examining the motives, preferences and experiences of Western and Chinese tourists at five internationally recognised heritage sites in Beijing. It highlights cultural differences in preferences for, and perceptions of, services and interpretive facilities at heritage sites, as well as visitors' needs in relation to the type of information required. Implications for the design and delivery of heritage interpretation for Western and Chinese visitors are discussed.

## **Method**

### *The research sites*

This research was conducted at five tourism sites in Beijing: Forbidden City, Summer Palace, Great Wall of China, Temple of Heaven and North Lake Park. The sites were selected based on their importance in terms of China's heritage, their prominence in domestic and international tourism marketing materials, and their ability to attract both international and Chinese visitors. All five sites offer interpretative experiences, though the type and extent of this interpretation varies.

### *Procedure*

Data collection was conducted in June/July 2010 by bi-lingual post-graduate students from Beijing International Studies University. Self-administered questionnaires in either Mandarin or English were distributed to 92 Western and 279 Chinese tourists as they exited the five heritage sites. Questions predominantly focused on identifying tourists' motives for visitation; their perceptions of 'essential' ingredients of heritage sites; their reactions to the tourist experience (emotions, satisfaction, national pride, attitudes towards the site); their preferences for different styles and types of information; and their assessment of current visitor management strategies. Respondents were also asked to identify factors that enhanced or detracted from the tourist experience and suggest ways in which visitor experiences at heritage sites could be improved.

### *Respondents*

Twenty-seven percent of the 279 Chinese respondents were Beijing residents. As with Western visitors, the majority (69%) were under 30 years old. A further 21% were aged between 30 and 49. Gender was evenly spread, with 120 males (45% of the sample) and 146 females. Just over half of the sample (54%) had not been to the site before. Their motives for visitation were to bring a friend or family member (43%), because they had an interest in China's cultural heritage (23%) or to see a famous landmark (22%). Few came to learn or discover something new (6%) or for restorative/relaxation reasons (6%).

Most of the Western visitors were from mainland Europe (36%), USA (23%) and the UK (15%). Almost half of the sample (49%) was under 30 year old, and a further 32% were between 30 and 50 years old. The gender was evenly spread, with 44 males and 43 females. The majority (64%) were first time visitors to the site. Their main reasons for visiting were to see a famous attraction (43%) and because of a particular interest in China's cultural heritage (27%). Some were motivated by social needs (13%) and learning interests (12%) but again, few came to satisfy restoration/relaxation needs (5%).

## **Results**

The aim of this research was to explore patterns of preferences in relation to heritage sites and identify any cultural differences between Western and Chinese visitors in terms of their interpretive needs, perceptions and satisfaction. Analysis is presented for the five sites as a whole.

### *Services and facilities*

Respondents were asked to rate a) the importance of providing a range of visitor facilities and services and b) the site's performance on these aspects. Chinese visitors felt key facilities that should be provided at heritage sites were information panels; directional signs; perceived value for money; seating; and friendly/helpful staff. Western visitors also felt information panels were the most important; followed by friendly/helpful staff and directional signs. There were significant differences between Western and Chinese visitors on the perceived importance of seven of the thirteen services and features measured.

Comparisons of 'importance' and 'performance' scores revealed that performance scores were below importance scores for all items except guided tours, suggesting there is room for improvement in almost all services and features provided for visitors at these sites.

### *Interpretation*

As with services and facilities, respondents were asked to rate interpretation in terms of importance and performance. There were significant differences between Chinese and Western visitors in terms of their preferences for nine of the eleven items measured. Chinese respondents felt interpretation should focus on providing an insight into Chinese culture; information about how the site was built; legends and traditional stories relating to the site; and facts and figures about the buildings/structures. Western respondents also felt interpretation should focus on information that provides an insight into Chinese culture. However, unlike Chinese visitors, Westerners felt that an explanation of why the site was significant was equally important. They also wanted information about how the site was built and stories about the people who lived and worked at the site.

Again, there were substantial 'gaps' between importance and performance on many of the items. This particularly applied to information on how the structure was built; site-



specific events; facts and figures about the site; legends and stories; and insights into Chinese culture.

#### *Conceptions of heritage sites*

To ascertain visitors' conceptions and definitions of 'heritage' sites, respondents were asked to rate the importance of specific features of heritage sites on a scale of 1 (not at all important) to 7 (extremely important). Chinese respondents were significantly more likely than Western respondents to state that heritage sites should be famous; feature in well-known paintings and poetry; be educational; be visited by someone famous; convey the country's power; and be an important part of the country's national heritage and character. Western respondents were significantly more likely to state that heritage sites needed to have buildings and structures that were old.

#### **Where to from here?**

Responses are currently being used to inform the development of guidelines for interpreting and managing experiences for Western and Chinese visitors at Chinese heritage sites. Implications for the design of interpretation for Chinese visitors at Western heritage sites will also be discussed.

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# Tourism and the mining boom: golden age, or golden shower?

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## Abstract

The Western Australian mining boom is touted by government for the significant revenue and regional socio- economic benefits it generates. With government support, the resources sector is now expanding into new remote regions, including iconic tourism destinations. This is causing conflict based on contested views and land uses. Proponents argue that their industry creates wealth and employment opportunities for the regions they operate in. Those opposed to such activity argue that the benefits are exaggerated and costs are significantly high. This paper presents the case of an onshore LNG plant proposal for the West Kimberley coastal region, near Broome. A Government commissioned assessment concluded the development will have a minimal impact on tourism and benefit the community. A review of published evidence suggests there will be considerable costs to communities and tourism. These issues are discussed in the context of tourism development and its contribution to the region.

**Key Words:** West Kimberley, Broome, Oil and gas, LNG, regional development, community

## Introduction

This paper discusses the issue of oil and gas development and its potential impact on a remote iconic tourism region in Western Australia. It is commonly claimed that Western Australia is at the start of yet another significant oil and gas extraction boom that could last for decades ([Lawrie, Tonts, & Plummer, 2011](#); [Macdonald-Smith, 2010](#); [Twine, 2010](#)). The increase in resource extraction activity has resulted in pressure to expand development into new areas in conflict with preexisting uses. This includes expanding into relatively pristine iconic nature based tourism regions, such as the Broome and West Kimberley region. Those opposed to such activity argue that the costs outweigh the benefits. The heavy extractive industry is considered to have limited regional economic benefits as well as being socially and environmentally incompatible with regions where nature based tourism is a well established sector built on brand images of pristine, unspoiled natural environments and relaxed, remote adventure getaways. The oil and gas sector, supported by the WA State Government, argue that their industry creates wealth and employment opportunities for the regions they operate in ([Barnett, 2011a, 2011c](#)). This paper presents the case of a proposed LNG plant in the West Kimberley region, located in the remote northwest of Australia.

## Method

A desktop review of reports and data relating to the development of a LNG industrial complex and tourism in the West Kimberley and Broome region of WA was undertaken. The government commissioned tourism impact report was analysed in terms of the scope, methods and results interpretation. Aspects assessed include: provision of background information, survey question construction and evidence of bias. Interpretation of international comparative examples of tourism impact included in the report was also evaluated in terms of relevance of the example, the type of information sources used and how the consultant interpreted the examples. Substantiated data and other published information relating to the study region were then separately analyzed as part of an evidenced based assessment of the potential regional impacts of the LNG development and how this compares to tourism.

## Findings

The scope of the tourism impact assessment brief was very narrow, only including the LNG plant operation at James Price Point itself ([KPP Business Development, 2009](#)). This excluded any consideration of the impacts of the broader requirements for industrial infrastructure and activity associated with the project, particularly in the Town of Broome and surrounding coastal and marine areas. It also excluded consideration of the construction phase and the several thousand workers this will involve over several years. Exclusion of the broader context of activity and infrastructure contributes to a misrepresentation of the relevant issues and underestimation of the likely impact of the LNG plant development on the region.

The tourism impact assessment used a tourist and resident opinion survey to determine the LNG development impact on tourism in Broome. The sample included 200 tourists of the 350,000 who visit annually and 200 residents of Broome out of a total population of 15,000. While the results of the survey were used to demonstrate the likely impact of the LNG development, it actually represented the opinions of a small sub sample of residents and tourists based on a narrow scope and flawed questioning.

The questionnaire was deliberately or ignorantly designed to elicit support for the LNG proposal. For example, the questionnaire included relative comparisons between unrelated "issues that may impact on Broome's tourism market". Respondents were required to rank in importance:

- climate change,
- global financial crises,
- fuel prices, and
- the LNG Gas Hub.

This task is internally referent such that a low ranking for LNG development is only relative to the other concerns, not an absolute measure in itself. It relies on the respondents' understanding of these issues informed by the limited information provided as part of the survey.

Other questions followed the same structure. For example, asking respondents to rank in order of least importance:

- environmental damage,
- impacts on destination image,
- impacts on the regional tourism industry.

Conversely, respondents were then asked to rank in order of most importance:

- increased work opportunities,
- cheaper flights to the region, and
- no LNG development.

Aside from insinuating the former question elements are not important and certain elements in the latter question are important, the exercise is again internally referent and cannot be interpreted as an absolute scale of importance. The narrow survey brief in combination with the significantly biased questionnaire indicates a strong government pro-development agenda seeking to manufacture supporting evidence.

### **Documented evidence**

The Kimberley has a broad based and diverse economy in which tourism plays a major role ([Kimberley Development Commission, 2009](#)). An estimated 346,400 tourists visit the region annually equating to approximately 2.8 million visitor nights. Visitation is driven by a brand based on remote, pristine tropical wilderness, relaxation, and adventure. The town of Broome is the regional tourism gateway, receiving approximately 216,000 annual overnight visitors equating to about 1.56 million visitor nights. Tourism comprises about 36% of the region's economy, generating about \$637 million in 2008 (Kimberley Development Commission, 2009; Tourism WA, 2010). The iconic status of the Broome and Kimberley brand has been built over an extended period of time based on significant public and private investment ([Hughes, 2010](#)).

Tourism is a labour intensive sector that supports employment across a wide range of venture types in the region (Kimberley Development Commission, 2009). The broad nature of the tourism sector is considered to provide employment and business opportunities that can help deliver greater self determination for regional communities and reduce welfare dependency ([Ferguson, 2010](#)).

Despite its regional importance, the State Government has demonstrated relatively little support for tourism development. For example, the government invested approximately \$634,000 in support of tourism development during 2008/2009. In comparison, the government allocated \$111 million to LNG development and \$220 million to agriculture development in the region ([Kimberley Development Commission, 2010](#)). This indicates a relatively low priority afforded to tourism in the region, despite its proclaimed potential ([Tourism WA, 2010](#)).

The resources sector has had limited regional benefit in remote areas ([Langton, 2010](#); [Taylor & Scambary, 2005](#)). This is mainly due to wage disparities, high costs of living and social division of communities resulting from the economic and social skewing effects of resource extraction. Oil and gas is capital intensive and relies on an experienced and skilled fly-in fly-out workforce. The relatively high salaries of oil and gas workers also generate inflationary economic effects, increasing the cost of living and disadvantaging the majority of the population who do not work in the sector. It is well documented that significant income disparity within a community leads to a break down in community cohesion and increased anti social behaviour associated with the increased socio-economic divide between the “haves” and “have-nots” ([Langton, 2010](#)).

An influx of oil and gas workers into the town of Broome and the West Kimberley is likely to negatively impact on its current, relaxed holiday destination brand. An influx of resource industry workers would shift the image of Broome to that of a working town, damaging its sense of place ([Worley Parsons, 2009](#)). A distinctive and appealing brand is vital for a destination’s success in tourism, and is extremely difficult to establish and maintain ([Ekinci & Hosany, 2006](#); [Pike, 2005](#)). Consequently, recovery from damage to a tourism destination brand could take considerable re-investment, effort and time.

The limited manufacturing base in remote regions such as the Kimberley means supplies and material, as well as workers, for oil and gas operations need to be imported. This is reflected in comparison of total output multipliers for the Kimberley region. Oil and gas had a relatively low regional economic return (\$1.18) for each dollar invested, compared with tourism related sectors (\$1.50 - \$1.70) ([Sutherland & Johnson, 2001](#)). That is, the Oil and Gas industry is associated with significant economic leakage from the region and thus has low regional benefits.

## **Conclusion**

The mining boom in WA has significant negative local social and economic effects. The government denial of resource sector impacts on regions and communities, combined with the apparent lack of recognition of the value of tourism ([Barnett, 2011a, 2011b](#); [Porter, 2011](#)) suggests the trend will continue as new remote areas are industrialized at the expense of communities and other sectors. This is reinforced by the bias evident in government assessment of projects such as the LNG hub near Broome ([Hughes, 2010](#)). The broad scope and labour intensive nature of the tourism sector combined with a more even distribution effect of wealth across the community means it can

contribute in a positive way to community wellbeing (Langton, 2010). While it does not generate the same overall magnitude of wealth as the resources sector, tourism arguably affords a more equitable and socially responsible and regionally beneficial contribution to development in remote areas.

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# A new concept for the revival of tourism in a historic city: the case of the Old City of Nazareth

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## **Abstract**

Focusing on history and heritage are among the most distinguishing features of evolving urban tourism. The continuous growing demand to visit such urban destinations has generally brought them economic wealth and prosperity. Cities such as Prague, Venice, Barcelona, Paris and many others, which still have highly attractive inhabited historical quarters, have capitalized on this increasing demand (ARTIST, 2000). The Old City of Nazareth is an exception. Using the case of the Old City of Nazareth, this study investigated the concept of introducing a city to culture/heritage tourism which can share the same urban space with pilgrimage tourism. The main problem of Nazareth is the lack of economic contribution from present pilgrimage tourism while no alternative market segments exist. Current visitors pay only short visits to the city en route to other pilgrimage sites. Thus, the perception of the Old City of Nazareth is more of a tourist site than an historic city.

The main barriers that prevent tourism were examined and analyzed. Accordingly, a few actions, which are coherent with other studies, were adopted. The model that was examined in this research outlines a direction for creating economic leverage for the Old City of Nazareth. The consequence will be alleviation of the locals' distress and a better ability to maintain the city as a mature urban destination.

**Keywords:** Pilgrimage, culture tourism, religious tourism, historic city, heritage tourism

## **1. Problem context**

Focusing on history and heritage are among the most distinguishing features of evolving urban tourism. The continuous growing demand to visit such urban destinations has generally brought them economic wealth and prosperity. Cities such as Prague, Venice, Barcelona, Paris and many others, which still have highly attractive inhabited historical quarters, have capitalized on this increasing demand (ARTIST, 2000). The Old City of Nazareth is an exception.

Using the case of the Old City of Nazareth, this paper focuses on three research purposes:

1. To understand the potential of the Old City of Nazareth as a heritage tourism destination.

2. To examine the barriers and constraints that hinder appropriate tourism performance.
3. To suggest a new concept of tourism planning that can overcome the obstacles and contribute to sustainable tourism in the Old City of Nazareth.

## **2. The role of historic cities and heritage tourism**

Visiting historic cities, mainly for purposes of culture and heritage tourism, has been acknowledged as a crucial factor in evolving urban tourism. The different aspects related to historic cities have been mentioned in many studies. Obviously, the overall conception of city management should consider many parameters which do not necessarily coincide with the pure purposes of heritage management. Thus, an appropriate equilibrium should be found (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 1999; Ashworth, 2002; Maitland, 2006). The relationship between tourism and cultural heritage management which is analyzed in other studies shows different types of relationship according to different conditions, based on the nature of tourism and heritage (McKercher et al., 2005). While it can be concluded that tourism and heritage do not necessarily go hand in hand (Jansen-Verbeke, 1998), the development of an historic tourism destination can serve as leverage for conservation (Harrison, 1997).

One of the main problems is short daily visits that do not contribute to the economy (Evans et al., 2001; Davidson & Maitland, 1997). Thus, a massive investment is needed in order to create an attractive tourism product. In order to attract investors, the city's image and branding should be made more positive (Maitland, 2006; Ashworth & Tunbridge, 1999). The stage of product development should follow the investments and should include an appropriate plan (Maitland, 2006; McKrecher et al., 2005).

## **3. The Old City of Nazareth – potential and reality**

The Old City of Nazareth, which is located on the mountains of Lower Galilee, Israel, is well known as the city of the Annunciation. Some of the most important Christian sites are located in the Old City, such as the Basilica of the Annunciation and Mary's Well. Nazareth has experienced several important historic periods which left impressive archeological sites and historic buildings. Among these periods are the ancient period of Jesus, Byzantine, Arab, Crusader, Ottoman (Turkish) and the modern periods. Today, Nazareth is the largest Arab city in Israel and it has its own special culture and folklore. The highly diversified nature of the city creates the potential for different segments of tourism, mainly pilgrimage and heritage/culture tourism. Despite its tourism potential, most pilgrims who arrive to Israel today pay a brief visit to the city of Nazareth without contributing to its economy. The potential inherent in presenting the Old City as a heritage/urban/culture destination has been missed completely. Such tourism, which exists in many historical cities in the world, can be the economic leverage that will help alleviate the residents' distress.

Nazareth has suffered from several problems which prevented it from developing fruitful tourism. The primary problem was the ongoing collapse of the Old City center as its residents moved to other districts because of unbearable overcrowding, congestion

and pollution. The consequence was that the poor population penetrated the core of the city, resulting in poor maintenance of the historical area. Secondly, because of a lack of capital, of the Old City's infrastructure is fragile, including historical buildings which are planned for conservation but have not yet been attended to. The third problem stems from low awareness among the local population – and its opposition - to tourism. That is the result of unsuccessful past experiences in which the local population did not take part in the tourism process. The fourth problem lies in the poor operation of current tourism based only on short visits of pilgrimage tourism.

#### **4. Methodology**

An understanding of the delicate relationships between authorities, the local population and the religious sectors is required to adopt several qualitative research techniques. The progress of tourism within the city was studied first by participant observations. In-depth interviews were carried out with stakeholders (governmental and religious sector). Focus group techniques were implemented with commercial sectors such as merchants (mainly in the market), other business owners and drivers. The local population was divided into various focus groups according to the model of Krippendorf (1987).

#### **5. Adopting a new concept for planning**

Emphasizing culture/history tourism, besides pilgrimage tourism in Israel, despite its high potential, has still not been exploited (Ernst and Young, 2007). In order to solve the problems mentioned above and be able to maintain the historical core of the city, an economic leverage should be created. Thus, a new concept of tourism planning was examined for the Old City of Nazareth. The concept considers increasing the social and economic activities of the locals while also providing and maintaining an appropriate tourist experience. The model embodies two types of tourism: pilgrimage and culture/heritage. While the city is well known to pilgrims as the City of the Annunciation, the use of high diversification of historical sites can add other segments seeking heritage and culture tourism. These segments will spur and accelerate product and infrastructure development which can also assist the pilgrimage tourism. As each market segment can compensate for unpredictable fluctuations of the others, the consequence is that combining all these market segments can produce sustainable tourism in the Old City of Nazareth while also contributing economically.

More specifically, the suggested model deals with four different but interrelated dimensions: physical infrastructure, local community, contents of the tourism product, and marketing and branding. Each dimension was divided into several components in such a way that the most crucial barriers could be detected and corresponding solutions be implemented. For example, improvement of physical infrastructures requires external investments (governmental or private sector), as mentioned in the literature. Dealing with the local population requires techniques of collaboration in the decision making process, training the locals for better awareness of tourism and providing professional training in order to involve them in tourism activities. The tourism product embodies several market segments: incoming tourism (culture/history and

pilgrimage), domestic tourism and local population from the region (mainly for leisure). As was mentioned, apart from pilgrimage, Nazareth has not experienced other market segments which are common to most historic cities. Planning steps were recommended for the tourism product and its branding, in such a way that it would fully respond to the needs of the market segments sought.

## **6. Summary and conclusions**

Using the case of the Old City of Nazareth, this study investigated the concept of introducing a city to culture/heritage tourism which can share the same urban space with pilgrimage tourism. The main problem of Nazareth is the lack of economic contribution from present pilgrimage tourism while no alternative market segments exist. Current visitors pay only short visits to the city en route to other pilgrimage sites. Thus, the perception of the Old City of Nazareth is more of a tourist site than an historic city.

The main barriers that prevent tourism were examined and analyzed. Accordingly, a few actions, which are coherent with other studies, were adopted. The model that was examined in this research outlines a direction for creating economic leverage for the Old City of Nazareth. The consequence will be alleviation of the locals' distress and a better ability to maintain the city as a mature urban destination.

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# A Theoretical Framework for Business Events: The Role of Business Events in Innovation and Knowledge Creation

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## Abstract

This paper presents an exploration of the relationship between business events, innovation and knowledge transfer. For too long, the area of business events has lacked a theoretical underpinning; this paper provides a framework within which business events research can be used as the basis for further research into the process of innovating and the dissemination of new knowledge.

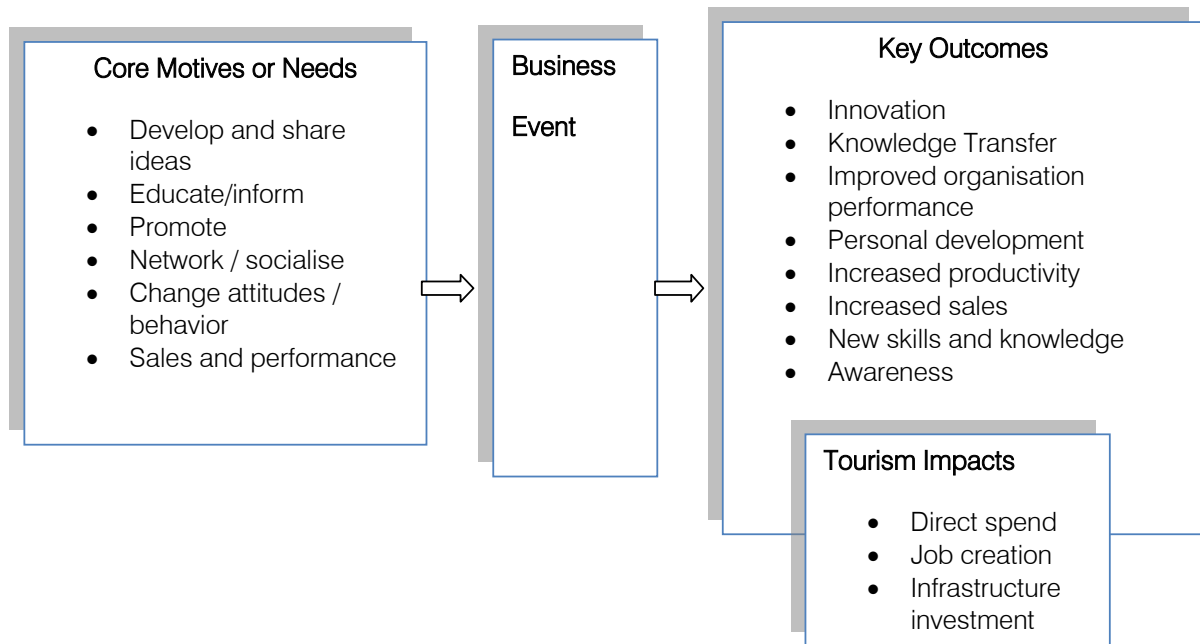
## Introduction

The area of business events has received attention from researchers such as Weber and Ladkin (2003), McCabe, Poole, Weeks and Leiper (2006) and, more recently, work by researchers such as Bernini (2009). However, much of the research in this area has been descriptive due mainly to the applied nature of the sector and the complexities of the relationships between a number of players. Yet, despite the fact that the sector is a key actor in the development of innovation and knowledge creation and transfer, it has lacked a theoretical framework within which to ground the research. We argue that these two components provide, in fact, a strong theoretical basis for understanding the sector and taking research in the area further.

The discussion and debate on innovation within the tourism industry has, in the main, focused on the processes and outcomes of innovation (see, for example, Hjalager, 2002). These discussions are vital in understanding how the tourism industry can move forward and maintain its position as an important component of a nation's economy. Rarely, however, is tourism perceived as part of the innovation process. In recent times, however, business events, which are commonly regarded as a component of tourism, are being recognised as contributing to innovation and knowledge dissemination (Jago and Deery, 2010). However, although business events have had a long and close

association with the tourism industry, the motives for staging business events and their key outcomes extend well beyond tourism. In fact, the tourism industry outcomes from business events can be seen as a by-product of business events activities as can shown in Figure 1.

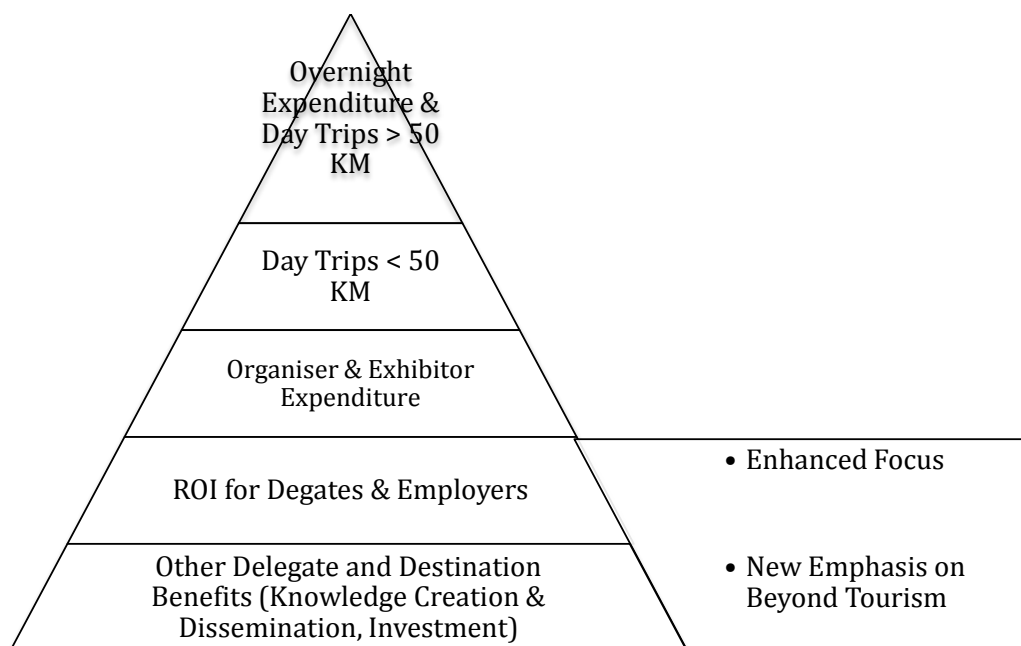
**Figure 1: Key Motives and Outcomes of Business Events**



Source: Jago and Deery, 2010, p. 7

Past studies on the benefits of business events have tended to focus on the economic contribution that business events activity has on the country, region or city by attracting delegate spend. In recent times, however, it has become more obvious that the benefits from the business events sector are far broader in scope and equally important as the economic contributions that have been found. This can be represented by what has been termed the 'value triangle' and is presented in Figure 2. Work by Jago and Deery (2010) examining the role of business events in the innovation process and that by Foley, Schlenker, Edwards and Hallyar (2010) looking at the "Beyond Tourism Benefits" of BE events in Sydney provide a range of benefits from BE activity.

**Figure 2: Five Components of the Value of Business Events**



Source: Authors

This paper firstly examines the role that face-to-face interaction plays in fostering collaborations and innovation. Secondly, the paper discusses clusters as the basis for collaboration and the potential for innovation, which leads to a discussion of the innovation process. The paper concludes with a framework for understanding innovation through the mechanisms of business events.

### The Role of Face-to-Face Interaction in Collaborations and Innovation

While limited in number, the studies undertaken focusing on the role of face-to-face interaction in enhancing collaborations have emerged from European and UK research examining innovation. A study (Faulconbridge, Beaverstock, Derudder and Witlox, 2009) using 120 interviews with professionals examining business travel in three types of global professional services – architecture, advertising and law- made a number of findings relevant to this current study. Faulconbridge et al (2009) argue that rather than face-to-face meetings being replaced by the ever improving technology in communication, such meetings have become more important.

The above work by Faulconbridge et al (2009) supports an earlier study by Maskell, Balthel and Malmberg (2006) which argues that conferences foster collaboration and innovation. Along with others (see for example Urry, 2002), we suggest that collaboration can only occur if there is trust. Research by Urry (2002) teases out the reasons for this. Following on from Boden and Molotch (1994) who argue that virtual travel will not replace physical travel, Urry states that it is not just the words, but it is the intricacies and nuances of body language, facial gestures, hand movements, pauses and other actions such as turn-taking that build up trust and therefore opportunities for collaboration – ‘trust is something that gets worked at and involves a joint performance



by those in such co-presence conversation' (Urry, 2002: 260). Further to this argument, a study by Wu, Waber, Aral, Brynjolfsson and Pentland (2008) found that not only does face-to-face communication enhance trust and potential collaboration, but, in comparison to email communication, is associated with higher worker productivity.

The importance of face-to-face communication in building trust is the ability to enhance tacit knowledge. In examining face-to-face interaction, buzz and knowledge bases, Asheim, Coenen and Vang (2005) found that the simultaneous and almost instantaneous nature of face-to-face interaction is difficult to replicate, even through video-conferencing. Their main finding, however, is that face-to-face interaction best suits certain industries of small to medium sized manufacturing firms 'where tacit knowledge plays an important role' (p.20).

### **Clusters as the Basis for Innovation**

The role of clusters as part of the innovation and knowledge transfer process has received substantial attention from researchers. Porter's (1985; 1990) work stresses the role of face-to-face interaction in the innovation process and the link between geographical proximity and successful knowledge transfer. Feldman (2002) argues that knowledge exists when an individual understands what to do with the information whereas 'innovation, in contrast, involves new activity and there is great uncertainty about the application of information' (p. 49). She continues her discussion through the examination of innovation as a localised social process, suggesting that trust is an important component of the innovative process. Trust is best obtained through localised networks or clusters and the strengthening of relationships through frequent interaction and observation. Clusters that have geographical proximity work well because of the ability of members to monitor the level of trust.

### **The Role of Business Events as Clusters**

This fostering of innovation is done by forming clusters during conferences (possibly as a result of the informal networking mentioned above) and then the continuance of these clusters following the conference. Research by Lawson, Petersen, Cousins and Handfield (2009) found that informal, rather than formal, socialisation mechanisms were the most important ways to facilitate knowledge sharing. In fact, Maskell et al (2006) argue that conferences form temporary clusters because they display knowledge creation mechanisms found in permanent clusters. They also argue 'that firms use international trade fairs and conventions to identify knowledge frontiers and select partners that can provide access to distant markets and knowledge pools' (p.10). Table 1 provides a summary of Maskell et al's (2006) framework.

**Table 1: Organisational configurations of knowledge creation by horizon and focus**

		TIME HORIZON FOR KNOWLEDGE CREATION	
		Quasi- permanent	Temporary
FOCUS OF KNOWLEDGE CREATION	Strong focus (goal oriented)	Inter-firm networks	Inter-firm projects
	Broad/diffuse focus (vision-oriented)	Clusters	Trade Fairs, conventions, professional gatherings

Source: Maskell et al, 2006, p. 10

The work that is very relevant to the current discussion is that by Faulconbridge et al (2009) and, although their research focuses on business travel and specifically intra-firm travel, it takes into account the role of conferences in innovation and knowledge transfer. In their discussion of corporate ecologies, Faulconbridge et al (2009) argue that face-to-face communication applies most to professional services where relationships and trust are the most important ingredient for innovation. These authors suggest that virtual communication might create a need for, as well as prevent travel and, following Urry's (2003) discussion on the obligations of proximity, they argue that there is a range of reasons for bringing team members together.

### Towards a Framework for Business Events

As stated previously, research in the business events area has been largely descriptive and atheoretical. However, in the context of innovation and knowledge transfer, business events are a crucial component and provide the basis for the development of a framework to underpin future business event research. The following diagram (Figure 3) presents a framework for future research into the relationship between business events and key outcomes such as innovation and knowledge transfer.

**Figure 3: The Role of Business Events in the Knowledge Transfer and Innovation Process**



Source: Authors

The paper provides discussion on the relationship between each of the components of the above framework focusing on the influence on

innovation and knowledge transfer. It concludes with a future agenda to progress this area of research.

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# Tourism & Volunteering: Giving Back - The Student Experience

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## Abstract

Asking a group of mildly enthusiastic tourism students, to create a promotional mix that would encourage their peers to take part in some local community volunteering, created not only a lot of general discussion but also some wonderful resources, a few changed attitudes and most importantly a renewed appreciation for their city's heritage and community tourism attractions. Knowledge they could pass on to not only visitors but those living in their community and the communities they originally came from and would at some stage in the future go to.

According to Clemmons (2003) "Voluntourism is a relatively new approach to social responsibility. Our ways of giving are changing along with us. It creates a balanced engagement alternating between voluntary service and tourism activities allowing for a reciprocal relationship with communities. Residents who may be recipients of voluntary service are able to return that service by sharing their destination with visitors via exposure to the arts, culture, geography, history and recreation. The economic impact of tourism is blended with the social impact of volunteering: recipients become servers and servers become recipients."

**Keywords:** Tourism, Volunteering, Marketing, Voluntourism, Experiences

Acting as a type of 'volunteer broker' we bought together the students and a volunteering opportunity at a local tourism heritage attraction, the Dunedin, Gasworks, owned by the Historic Buildings Trust of Dunedin and operated through the Goldfields Heritage Trust. It is a new tourism venture for the city. The Dunedin Gasworks Museum is situated in the Engine House of the now closed Dunedin Gasworks which was New Zealand's first and last gasworks, operating from 1863 until 1987. It is one of only three known preserved gasworks museums in the world. It is a significant local and world heritage site.

Over the past few years' funds have been raised in an effort to restore the buildings and original machinery of the plant and it was the official opening, earlier this year, which provided the first opportunity for students to undertake some voluntary work.

Volunteering provided students with the opportunity to gain first-hand knowledge of the attraction. They were introduced to workmen who had during their lifetime been employed at the gasworks and were able to work the machinery and pass on this knowledge and enthusiasm to others who wanted a more long term volunteering relationship with the gasworks.

Students gained experience at open days. Being provided with opportunities to help run guided tours of the attraction, direct and instruct visitors, hand out published information, make piklets and meet and greet not only international and domestic tourists but local residents.

Students were provided with open access to the site for filming (promotional material), human resource in the form of past workers, other volunteers from different technical backgrounds and representatives from the Dunedin Historic Trust and other community organisations and local organisers, and entertainers. Students were able to learn more about their community. Help form part of a community support network and contribute to the further promotion of the destination.

What did they gain personally from the experience? According to one of the students (Church, 2011) 'Once you get into the place and start looking around and hearing all the stories about the Gasworks, you get more of a feel for the place and enjoy it more knowing that you have experienced something not many people get the chance to. All you need is about an hour or even less just to walk around and learn the cool history of this place'. This aspect will be covered in greater detail as part of the visual presentation for this abstract.

What did they pass on from their experience? Students were required to design a promotion which would encourage their peers, to volunteer not only in the present but into the future as well. These resources were to be used not only for their course requirements but also as an open educational resource for their tourism programme [http://wikieducator.org/Travel\\_and\\_Tourism](http://wikieducator.org/Travel_and_Tourism) A programme where teaching resources, assessments and student work are available for use on the internet through the open platform of Wikieducator.

Another one of the resources created by a student, a promotional video, is now on the Gasworks website to be enjoyed by everyone and another promotional video, created by other students is available on YouTube. Weblogs have been written containing historic photos and information to attract younger viewers. Students also presented their work using slideshows. Since the initial volunteering, opportunities have arisen where students had again been asked to support the tourism attraction. The latest being a Halloween Fair on October 30, 2011.

These resources will form part of the visual presentation supporting this abstract.

- Two promotional videos
- Two weblogs
- Written material/photographs

- Poster
  - Letters of thanks
  - Student transcripts
1. (Excerpted from an interview with David Clemmons, on [ingare.com](http://ingare.com), Sept 7. 2009 <http://www.indagare.com/passions/5/departments/173/8273>)
  2. <http://www.gasworksmuseum.org.nz/>
  3. <http://goldfieldstrust.org.nz>
  4. Weblog post by Shannon Lee Church, 2011
  5. <http://shannonleechurch.blogspot.com/>
  6. [http://wikieducator.org/Travel\\_and\\_Tourism](http://wikieducator.org/Travel_and_Tourism)

# Impact of industrial clusters on mainland china's exhibition destination development

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## **Abstract**

Trade-to-trade exhibitions referring to stand-alone market events held regularly and usually at a fixed location where a large number of companies from one or more industrial sectors present their main product range to commercial/business buyers. This paper employed both in-depth interviews and surveys to explore the exhibitors' perceptions of and the impact of 'industrial clusters' on exhibition destination development. This research developed a two-dimensional scale for the construct and indicated that most exhibitors prefer exhibition destinations that are highly developed in the specific industry sector for the exhibition and near the manufacturing base. The impacts of the two sub-dimensions of cluster effect on exhibition destination attractiveness appear to be different.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Exhibition operation and participation is primarily business-oriented, motivated and driven by the market appeal of a destination. Exhibition development at a destination is closely related to the regional industry development in/near a destination, which represents market demand (Rubalcaba-Bermejo & Cuadrado-Roura, 1995). Trade and exchange opportunities are major motivating factors for both exhibitors and visitors.



From the perspective of exhibition organizers, cultivation of an exhibition for an industrial sector is related to the maturity of the industry in a city (Butler, Bassiouni, El-Adly, & Widjaja, 2007; Chan 2005). Kirchgeorg (2005, p.38) stated that “managing a trade show demands the support of a whole industry, whose players must be willing to accept the show as a valid forum within which to establish and cultivate business relationships.” Rubalcaba-Bermejo and Cuadrado-Roura (1995, p.396) commented that “economic concentration in space explains fair and exhibition concentration, and under this assumption exhibitions are but another expression of international development.” In their opinion, exhibitions scatter in places with adequate industrial support for the exhibition category, while exhibitions facilitate the development of the industry sector.

Since no prior empirical studies have examined the impact of industrial clusters on exhibition development, this research proposes to draw on cluster theory (Porter, 1998) and use ‘industrial clusters’ to indicate to what extent certain economic attributes exert influence on exhibition destination development from the exhibitors’ perspective. This paper will examine two specific research objectives, namely to:

- 1) explore exhibitors’ perceptions of the impact of ‘clusters’ on their participation and selection;
- 2) assess to what extent ‘clusters’ contribute to exhibition destination development.

A suitable setting to explore clusters and destination development in the exhibition context is Asia’s largest exhibition market, the People’s Republic of China. Its exhibition industry has experienced rapid growth in the past decades, with indoor exhibition space totaling more than 2.5 million square meters in 2007 (UFI, 2007). The estimated revenue generated from the organization of exhibitions amounted to approximately US\$ 1.7 billion in 2005 while exhibition center revenue totaled US\$ 373 million (Kay, 2007). However, facing potential restructuring and market consolidation, an improved understanding of the prospect of exhibitions, and the effects of clusters on exhibition operation and exhibition destination development, is critical at this time.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Cluster theory traces its origin to the notion of ‘industrial districts’ discussed by Marshall (1966, p.225), which refers to a “concentration of small businesses of a similar character in particular localities.” Porter’s (1998, p.197) defined ‘clusters’ as “geographic concentrations of interconnected companies, specialized suppliers, service providers, firms in related industries, and associated institutions in particular fields that compete but also cooperate. Porter argued that “presence of clusters suggests that much competitive advantage lies outside a given company or even outside its industry, residing instead in the *locations* of its business units” (1998, p.198). Cluster advantages relate to co-location and localization externalities, like specialized labor markets and infrastructure (Enright, 2003; Gordon & McCann, 2000), and

interactive learning and knowledge creation (Maskell, 2001). Enright (2003) pointed to a significant impact of clusters on corporate performance, regional economic development, and national competitiveness..

Local clusters, once established, will sustain as long as the reasons for their existence remain in place. In Germany, clusters with a history of more than 100 years can still be easily identified (Brenner & Gildner, 2006). Hence, the impact of local clusters on the local economy and structure is long-lasting. Brenner and Gildner (2006, p. 1326) also found that “the positive relation between local clusters and economic performance wears off with time.”

Fan and Scott (2003, p.296) demonstrate that there is a significant positive relationship between agglomeration and economic performance in Chinese regions, especially those sectors and spaces that have been “most deeply transformed by economic reforms and market orientation.” Their findings show that the following industry sectors are ranked highest in terms of clustering: stationery, education, sporting goods, electronics and telecommunications, furniture manufacturing, garments and other fiber products, metal products, leather, furs, and related products, chemical fibers, electric equipment and machinery, plastic products, and textiles. These sectors are also the most active industry sectors for exhibitions (CCE, 2007).

Exhibition distribution in China partially correlates with the distribution of industrial clusters. The emergence of five major industrial belts in Beijing-Tianjin, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl River Delta, North-Eastern China, and Western China supports the country's exhibition development (Zhang, 2007). Many exhibitions developed at localities where there are regional clusters for specific exhibition topics. In the PRD region in 2000, there were 122 so-called “specialized towns” (towns or groups of towns characterized by a dominant industry of a ‘considerable’ size) (Bellandi & Tommaso, 2005, p.713), which contribute to various trade shows in the region. Likewise, in the YRD region, numerous exhibitions have developed based on local industries. However, it is disputable that exhibitions developed near an industrial cluster proliferate in the country and replication of these exhibitions has become a problem (Chan, 2008).

## **METHODOLOGY AND RESULTLS**

In order to address the research objectives of this study, two studies were conducted sequentially. Study 1 employed a qualitative approach in the form of 32 in-depth interviews with exhibitors to explore their perceptions of what constitutes ‘clusters’ in the exhibition context. On the basis of findings of study 1, measures for ‘clusters’ in the exhibition context were developed and tested by conducting Study 2, a large-scale survey of 616 exhibitors; in addition to developing appropriate measures, the impact of clusters on overall perceptions of exhibition destination attractiveness was assessed. Using exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, a two-dimensional scale was developed with seven items to measure cluster effects in the exhibition industry: 1) host city leadership in the industry and 2) host city as a source of exhibitors. Research indicated that most exhibitors were aware of the relationship between an exhibition and a manufacturing cluster, and that they prefer exhibition destinations that are highly

developed in the specific industry sector for the exhibition and near the manufacturing base. The cluster effect on exhibition distribution/cultivation is enhanced by a destination's infrastructure and management. The impacts of the two cluster effects on exhibition destination attractiveness appear to be different.

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# Corporate Social Responsibility as an agent for social change

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## **Abstract**

The intention of this paper is to provide a specific understanding of corporate social responsibility with a particular focus in social issues in relation to human resource development. The understanding of CSR is used to create a theoretical analytical framework that should provide researchers with key points to set up an interview guide for future qualitative research. This research recognises the importance of the individual's motives for exercising CSR at the lower levels of a hospitality organisation. The intention is to provide a perspective on the positive social processes that lower level employees (middle management/employees) go through when working according to CSR-principles, based on social motives and behaviour. A hermeneutical paradigm is applied to the understanding of human (inter-) action in relation to understand a phenomenon as CSR and motives for social change. It is suggested that the process of positive social change is divided into four phases, which to a point can be compared to The Human Learning Process by Stuart Dreyfus. Another aspect of this paper is also to create a bottom-up approach to the implementation of CSR-principles as the majority of CSR literature today tends to focus on the management/societal perspective of this issue.

**Keywords:** Corporate Social Responsibility, Organisational Culture, Employee Motives, Social Change, Human Resource Management, International Hotel Chains

## **Introduction**

Considerable and important research has been undertaken on corporate social responsibility (CSR) with focus on setting up CSR-frameworks in order to create a common understanding of CSR, which is being defined and used differently in relation to context (Maignan and Ralston, 2002; Matten and Moon, 2008). The responsibility for CSR initiatives in businesses can often be found in the communication and/or marketing and PR departments and used in relation to the functions of these departments. Research shows positive links between CSR initiatives and stakeholders/shareholders and/or consumers (Brammer and Millington, 2003; Frankental 2001; Jones et al., 2007). In relation to the communication perspective on

the use of CSR principles, “*Greenwashing*” has become a much used term, when corporations are misinforming stakeholders and consumers, when accounting for the corporation’s social responsibility in triple bottom line-reports or when focus is on ecology/climate issues (Laufer,2003; Norman and MacDonald, 2003). Ecological and climate issues are based on quantitative tangible statistics that in one way or another can be measured and accounted for e.g. CO<sub>2</sub>-consumption/eco-efficiency (Gössling et al., 2005). The link between CSR-initiatives (ecological/environmental initiatives) and marketing are assumed to target external stakeholder as consumers (Jones et al., 2007). This however only illustrates one perspective of CSR.

Researchers within hospitality, as Bohdanowicz (2005) and Lee and Park (2009), focus on hotel operations going green because of the high use of resources these businesses naturally require, when catering for guests. Further, such researchers focus on the management level in relation to implementing green initiatives in the business. This limits the understanding of CSR-initiatives to environmental issues in a management perspective and thereby leave out the effects that employee organisational culture, HRM and geographical place can have on the definition and use of CSR.

In relation to the above perspective Lynes & Andrachuck (2008) discuss the definition of CSR as being too narrow and expand the term to include environmental issues as well (CS *environmental* R (CSER)), again this is a limited perspective focusing on green and economic reporting. A more extended understanding of CSR is giving by Carroll (1979) in McGehee et al. (2009), proposing that CSR consist of four components economic (4), legal (3), ethical (2) and discretionary (1). Carroll provides the components with a value (4-3-2-1), thereby suggesting a way to measure CSR-principles. This research operates within a hermeneutic paradigm and thereby not trying to measure the level of CSR within an organisation, but attempts to understand the internal motives for the implementation and business operation of CSR-principles based on the individual employee motivation within the organisational settings. To go further into a detailed understanding of motivation on CSR a learning perspective will be adapted.

In the process of setting up a CSR-analytical framework this paper focuses on the social understanding of CSR and therefore uses this aspect as reference. The intention of the is to create an understanding of CSR, which should form the foundation for a theoretical analytical CSR framework, which will be rooted within the before mentioned categories (org. culture, HRM etc.).

### **CSR – from Welfare Structures to the Internal Social Perspective**

When focusing on the social aspects of CSR (e.g. a focus on the workplace and interaction with the local community) that the organisation works within (Jones et al. 2006) and not considering technical environmental issues, the paradigm shifts from tangible environmental reporting and accountability systems to consider intangible cultural motivational values (Maignan and Ralston, 2002; Lynes and Andrachuck, 2008).

This assumes another perspective on CSR implementation as it does not only consider it as a tool to save economical resources but aims to consider the principles influencing the personal values of employees and managers and thus defining the organisational culture in hospitality operations (Hemingway and Maclagan, 2004; Aguilera et al., 2005). Lynes and Andrachuck (2008) define in their conceptual model for a firm's commitment level to CSER that motivation for implementing these principles are affected by the relationship between four systems (Science, Market, Social and Political systems). The social and political system influences on the exertion of CSR-principles in a business context and is supported by Maignan and Ralston (2002), which indicates that there are differences in how U.S, UK and European businesses exercise of CSR-principles in their online self-promotion due to differences in welfare state structures (political/social systems). Supporting the statements on the links between national welfare state structures and the operationalisation of CSR-principles is the research of Broberg (1996). This research suggests that there have been diversities in different European member states' company legislation, which have affected the way CSR-initiatives are reported. Further Broberg suggests that a harmonisation of business legislation in the Scandinavian countries has shown effects in harmonisation in a European Union context, thereby indicating that intergovernmental organisations plays an important role in the development of CSR. This however does not contribute directly to an understanding of implementation of social responsibility issues in a hospitality organisation, but can be linked as sector specific influences or external influences as mentioned by Lynes and Andrachuk (2008) and Aguilera et al. (2005), the latter in relation to multiple levels of analysis on CSR motives (individual, organisational, national, intergovernmental, corporate interest groups/NGOS). To set up an analytical framework to understand the practise of CSR within the hospitality organisation, this paper should shift its focus from a national and supranational level to organisational and individual levels of CSR motives. Where national and transnational structures form the framework of the use of CSR, organisational and individual levels should indicate which motives and why these motives enable executive management, middle management and employees to exercise CSR in their day-to-day business (Hemingway and Maclagan, 2005; Aguilera et al. 2005; Lynes and Andrachuck, 2008). By moving from a transnational/national level to organisational/individual level this research applies an understanding that organisations and individuals are seen as actors that affect the way CSR-principles are defined and exercised in the hospitality industry. To bring further insight to this analytical level a link to human resource management and learning will be applied in the setup of an analytical framework. Implied in the HR perspective lies the acceptance that the interaction between individuals in an organisation and communication between management and employee level affects how CSR is understood and used in the organisation.

In their research, Muller-Camen et al (2008) links CSR-principles and sustainability thinking to HRM, stating that there is a link between social responsibility and a business rationale. Precise business rationale leads to the motivational factors of CSR, mentioned by Lynes and Andrachuck (2008) and *The CSR Competency Framework* (CSR Academy, 2004) with factors such as; competitive advantage, image enhancement (Lynes and Andrachuck, 2008), building capacity networks, and



harnessing diversity (CSR Academy, 2004). To give a more sociological angle and use of motives, the perspective set up by Aguilera et al. (2005) (instrumental, relational and moral) is added to this research's understanding of motivational factors. When applying the individual perspective on motives this can further be divided between the above mentioned motives (Aguilera et al. 2005) as well as Wong and Ko's (2009) study which though not directly related to CSR, focuses on the individual employee's perception of work-life balance in the Asian hospitality industry. Wong and Ko suggest that employee's perception of work-life balance is affected by the organisational structures and work operations (organisational level) and the employee's personal perception of work (individual level) and professional well-being. Further the Asian study acknowledges that CSR can be used as a tool to affect the work-life balance, indicating that CSR is directly linked to HRM. Here Wong and Ko are only mentioning CSR from an employer perspective, set up against competitive advantage (also mentioned as a motivational factor by Lynes and Andrachuck, (2008) at organisational level). What is missing in relation to the deeper understanding on CSR-motives for organisational change is how the employee can affect the initiation of CSR-principles. In relation to this perspective it is relevant to return to the research of Aguilera et al. (2005), who argue that implementation of CSR-principles (in relation to social change) are affected in an internal upward direction, at the individual level (employees) and in a downward direction at organisational level, where top-management introduce CSR-principles in the organisation (pressured from external stakeholders to the organisation). The latter can be related to Matten and Moon (2008), with implicit and explicit CSR explaining social responsibility activities of corporation and the societal context in which it operates. Matten and Moon sets up an analytical framework with the intention to standardise CSR-principles and motives for comparison in a global economic setting. This methodological approach will however not be applied to this study, which seeks to present a qualitative understanding of the individual's perception of, and motives for, CSR activities. It is however necessary to apply a generalised analytical framework, that could form the foundation for a qualitative interview guide in relation to further research, to validate the content of a theoretical analytical framework approach.

A perspective which is not implemented in the above is a direct critical approach to the uncritical discourse that private organisations apply in relation to their definition on their own CSR activities. Such a perspective to corporate responsibility is presented by Fougère and Soiltander (2009), where the authors set up a discourse analysis based on the thoughts of Laclau and Mouffe (1985). Fougère and Soiltander suggests that that sustainable development is *"based on a western-centric ideology of developmentalism" wherein the word "development" has been appropriated to further strengthen the domination of the economic over the social.*" This paper will not apply the *"Eco-marxist"* view presented by Fougère and Soiltander, but recognises the importance of applying a critical view to the discourse used by private corporations, organisations, and governmental institutions in relation to CSR-activities. Especially when applying the internal social aspect of CSR that by nature is a more intangible perspective.

### **Methodological Approach**

It is intended to present reflections and suggestions to the choice of methods in relation to the CSR-framework set up, as this research will be based on qualitative inquires to reach a deeper understanding of the individual within the organisational settings of a hospitality organisation. It is important to note that even if this paper attempts to set up an analytical framework, this should not be seen as a static understanding of CSR-operations, but should be seen as indicators to create a common understanding of this term. It is further intended that the framework shall form the foundation of mean coding of a line of qualitative interviews (Kvale, 2001). The line of interviews will be conducted to test the usability of the framework, but will not be a part of this paper. By taking a qualitative perspective the paper ascribes to an interpretive paradigm, as discussed by Morgan (1980) and MacNabb (2008). Further this implies that the study will be conducted within a hermeneutical understanding (Packer, 1985; Kvale, 2001; Kvale, 2007). Packer's interpretation of hermeneutic inquiry builds on Heidegger's proposal of hermeneutic phenomenology, which investigates human actions and interactions, as human phenomena, in a careful way with as little theoretical assumptions as possible. In relation to this definition of a hermeneutical paradigm, the setup of a theoretical analytical framework does not match this criterion. However by including the interview research methods of Kvale (2001), it is valid to apply a theoretical approach as long the researcher is aware of how theoretical limitations can affect the interpretation of the gathered empirical data. The following is based on Kvale's (2001) preparation of Gerard Radnitzky's seven principles for hermeneutic interpretation (the hermeneutical circle), this paper will only refer to a general understanding of the interpretation principles, but acknowledges the importance of all principles.

A deeper interpretation and understanding of the collected data is reached, when the meaning of single fragments of the data is defined by a general approach to the whole data collection, then a closer definition of single data fragments, will again have a possible interpretative effect on the general approach. This circular process can be endless; however, the process will end when a reasonable point without internal self-contradiction is reached. The referring to reasonable points will be the areas of understanding (key areas) in relation to the framework this paper wishes to set up. What this process should illustrate is that an extract of a dataset forms a vital part in a newly formed overall interpretation and not just randomly formed. This method of interpretation of the collected data is a part of a validation process (Kvale 2001). The above understanding of the circular interpretation process is based on empirical data collected through field research, namely semi structured qualitative interviews. This paper will primary adapt a theoretical approach when structuring the analytical framework, however social reports from IHG, Wyndham and Marriot (all social reports from 2010) will be included to form the industry's approach to CSR and will therefore be defined as collected data. The selection of the three hotel chains is based on the hotel operations placement on the top three ranks of the World's largest hotel companies, Hotels' 325 (Hotels Magazine, 2011). The reason for this selection is that IHG, Wyndham and Marriot accounts for a large percentage of the world's hotel operations and they are all global actors. By using the social reports from the three hotel chains this paper acknowledge that this dataset could enhance a very positive outlook interpretation. Later studies should then consider field work for complimentary data.

The 2010 CSR reports of the hotels identified, combined with the theoretical setup in this paper, will form the foundation for the analytical approach, but it is intended, that hotel employee's understanding of CSR, will be the primary focus in future field research. In order to produce an unaffected hotel employee's CSR understanding, a line of semi-structured qualitative interviews will be conducted. In order ensure that the theoretical constructed understanding of CSR will not affect the interviewees' understanding of the term; indirect questions will be constructed for the interview sessions. The purpose of the qualitative interviews is to gain as much detailed information as possible related to CSR-principles in the interviewee's day to day work activities in the hospitality organisation.

### **From the perspective of social motives and change to the learning of CSR-principles**

The social perspective of CSR and links to the lower levels of the international hotel organisation (middle management/employees) is based on the assumptions that CSR-principles are implemented in the organisation from the top, where senior-management is the driving force for defining and executing a given CSR-strategy (Swanson ed. Crane et al (2008) p. 227-248). Among other things, Swanson reflects on the role of the executive manager as the driving force for social responsibility in the organisation. Swanson states, that the role of the executive manager is affected by selected models on corporate social performance and on the importance of moral leadership in the formal (structures) and informal (cultures) organisation. Even though Swanson holds her focus on the role of the executive manager, she stills acknowledge the role of middle management and lower management in relation to the implementation of CSR-principles, but only to the perspective that their role is determined by top managers. However, if implementation of CSR-principles should be sustainable, the assumption in this article is that changes should be carried out by the change in behaviour and beliefs of employees, by adopting this assumption in the following understanding on how and why social change occurs in the organisation, this will meet the challenge of dissimilarities between beliefs and values of middle and lower management and values and beliefs of the corporation, established by top management (Swanson ed. Crane et al. (2008).

When looking through the *The Oxford Handbook of Corporate Social Responsibility*, Crane et al. (2008) it is notable that all chapters concerning a business perspective on CSR has its focus on management and/or external stakeholder (e.g. consumers, shareholders etc.) as the defining force of CSR in an organization. Thus, the collection of knowledge, to some extent, neglects to attribute the lower levels of an organisation any value when defining the use of CSR-principles. Aguilera et al. (2005) however, focuses on the individual employee perspective at micro level in their analytical framework (individual level). The authors argue that employees are, at some level, affected by the historical activities of social responsibility (or irresponsibility) that the organisation has been involved in. The perception that employees have, will shape their attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation, which they are a part of (Aguilera et al. 2005). Further the authors argue that when employees are affected, they will advocate for, and participate in CSR initiatives which will result in higher employee performance and commitment to the organisation. The motives that initiate this

behaviour are, according to the authors, a need for control (instrumental), need for belongingness (relational), and need for meaningful existence (moral). This discussion will not go deeper into the background for the choice of these motives, but acknowledges the argument that the three motives will lead to positive social change in the organisation. More important for this study is the focus of the understanding of the social change of employees itself. This will be an attempt to create an understanding on how and why positive social change can be affected through sharing of knowledge. The purpose is not only to understand the motives that create the change, but also to explore and understand how change itself can occur from the lower levels of the organisation. Aguilera et al (2005) focuses on motives for social change, but does not define the level of change that occurs. To provide an understanding of change based on CSR-initiatives, parts of Stubbs and Schapper's (2011) case study on *approaches to curriculum development for education for sustainability and CSR* is included. Stubbs and Schapper's focus on sustainability, CSR and management education revolves around how this should be implemented in the curriculum. This perspective aligns with the discussion on the business approach to the use of CSR, when understood as a top-down approach. Here, Stubbs and Schapper do not focus directly on business practices but on academic curriculum build-ups for management education. The rationale for implementing this understanding in the paper will be that present management students will form tomorrow's business practices.

The authors present three perspectives on approaches to change; *transformative change*, *Deep learning*, and *Paradigm shift* (Sipos et al. 2008, Warburton 2006, Down 2006 in Stubbs and Schapper 2011). Further perspectives are included on the topic for creating change focus as, management should challenge *business as usual* and embrace knowledge sharing in the organisation (Gioia 2002, Palmer 1998, Down 2006 in Stubbs and Schapper 2011). The perspective of the case study is still on the management education, but the argument for implementing this understanding in an analytical framework for positive social change of employees lies in an empowerment perspective on the independent employee. Stubbs and Schapper argues that most implementations of CSR management courses are initiated by individuals with professional interests in CSR topics. This issue can be directly linked to Aguilera et al. (2005) motives for CSR activities in the organisation.

For a more complete understanding, this discussion also implements a learning perspective based on the five levels of the human-learning process taken from *The Dreyfus Model* (Flyvbjerg, 2001). The Dreyfus model argues that the human being goes through different phases in the process of learning a skill (1. Novice 2. Advanced Beginner 3. Competent performer 4. Proficient performer 5. Expert). The phases should be understood as; when an individual is at a given level that person will perform better than individuals at the previous level (Flyvbjerg 2001 p. 10). This discussion will not go into a more detailed description of the 5 levels, but mentions how the process of learning a skill is linked to the above discussion on positive social change of employees which could affect a paradigm shift in the organisation. The following process provides an overview of the perspective, which this article attempts to present;

*Knowledge, skills, attributes and personal emotions* → *challenging the issues of sustainability* → *behave sustainably/behave on the background of knowledge* → *CSR paradigm* (related to thoughts of Rands, 2009 in Stubss and Schapper, 2011, Aguilera et al. 2005).

Skills and attributes relates to the Dreyfus process, whereas personal emotions and knowledge will relate to motives for social change (Aguilera et al) and education (Stubss and Schapper). The four phases in reaching a CSR paradigm in the organisation is set up to understand how the individual employee in the organisation should evolve to reach the goal. This process however does not take into consideration the interaction between organizational levels, or actors within the organisation.

The deeper purpose of the above discussion is to provide an understanding of this article's perspective on social change in the organization, in relation to the following analytical reflection, together with the social CSR perspective and the industry social reporting. Altogether, this should form the foundation to identify key points for an analytic framework with focus on positive social change in the lower level of the organization, which could lead to a sustainable implementation of CSR-principles.

### **Reflections and Conclusion**

The following sequence will reflect on the four phase model on positive social change process towards a CSR-paradigm (an employee driven change towards a social paradigm). A CSR-paradigm is at this point the goal of the social change process, but it should not be seen as the end of the process. When a CSR-paradigm is reached at the lower levels of the organisation, every single business operation should be based on CSR-principles, which then will be the perspective that defines the belief and behaviour of the individual employee. CSR will be the norm of day-to-day business processes. When adapting Dreyfus' (in Flyvbjerg, 2001) learning process of the human being, it cannot be directly compared to the two last stages; *proficient performer* and *expert*. Flyvbjerg states that these last stages are beyond rule based activity meaning that the individual acts unconsciously (by using a learned skill) to a situation based on spontaneous interpretation and intuitive judgement. It can be argued that individuals within the organisation will act spontaneously and unconsciously and still act within a CSR paradigm, but when defining CSR-behaviour as something that continuously develops, affected from both internal and external activities of a business than, knowledge, skills and attributes should be learned over and over again. By setting up this argumentation means that the individual employee will go back and forth between Dreyfus's *advanced beginner* and *competent performer* levels. The two middle levels of the learning process revolves around the fact that the individual will have had real life experiences and is acting in relation to the context of the scenario instead of acting only on a learnt set of rules (advanced beginner) and prioritising behaviour where the individual sets up goals and plans for action. Involvement, judgement and interpretation, define the competent performer. It is with these attributes that the individual employee can start to challenge the existing norm of the organisation and initiate the process of sustainable behaviour and then further into a new paradigm based on CSR-principles. The driving force to initiate is not only based on factual or

societal knowledge, but is enlightened by personal emotions, or as Aguilera et al. (2005) defines it as social motives (instrumental, relational, and moral). It can be argued that the individual rarely (or never) will be at the *beginner* level, besides when entering the organisation because an individual's social motives are based on the antecedents of the individual's personal experiences and knowledge of CSR-principles.

The phases of positive social change, as mentioned above are identified in relation to the Human Learning Process (Dreyfus in Flyvbjerg, 2001) and individual social motives (Aguilera et al. 2005). This provides an understanding of the key points that need to be further researched in a specific organisational setting, through qualitative field research to test the validity of the phases of positive social change towards a CSR-paradigm. This paper suggests that sustainable CSR implementation happens at the lower levels within the organisation and thereby provides an indirect perspective on how managers should act in relation to implementation of a CSR strategy. This suggestion fits well with the argumentation of Wilcox (2006), who states the need for the CSR awareness from businesses in order to avoid marginalisation of people with low income and job insecurity, types of people whose jobs are sensitive to market changes. This description fits well with lower level jobs within the hospitality industry and can be avoided by higher involvement of middle management and employees in the formation and implementation of CSR-principles in the business processes.

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# Greening the New Golden Age: A research agenda for exploring tourists' environmental lifestyle and travel behaviours

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## **Abstract**

This paper proposes a research agenda for exploring tourists' sustainable lifestyle and travel behaviours. The agenda highlights the need to differentiate between green consumerism and environmental practices, considerations of the kind and complexity of behaviours, as well as spatial and temporal aspects. An increased understanding of barriers and attitudes with regards to such differentiations in lifestyle and travel behaviours will contribute to a better understanding of why people (do not) engage in sustainable travel behaviours.

**Key words:** Sustainable tourism, travel behaviours, environmental practices, green consumptions, barriers

The concept of sustainable tourism developed over thirty years ago and after a slow start has only recently gained increased attention (Lane, 2011). This attention coincides with an increased discussion of climate change, which not only has huge consequences for tourism but for lifestyles in general. The tourism industry and policy makers focus their attention on mitigation and adaptation but this effort is generally driven by commercial interests rather than environmental concerns. Equally, tourists' travel behaviours are generally driven by self-interests, costs or value for money rather than environmental values. Such economical interests are even more prevalent since the global economy faces a financial crisis. However, in the face of a crisis there could be a chance of new possibilities and developments (Bramwell & Lane, 2011). The question only is, will there be a new chance for sustainable tourism developments beyond just providing a new topical interest within the media, policies, and research? Although only the future will tell, tourism research can certainly assist to gain a better understanding of such chances as well as barriers.

An increased interest in climate change research in general has also led to increased research into environmental issues within the tourism context. Tourism research has focussed on tourists' environmental travel behaviours with regards to transportation (for example Becken, 2007; Cohen, Higham, & Cavaliere, 2011), tourists' attitudes towards

environmentally friendlier travel products or behaviours (for example Jago & Deery, 2010; Perkins & Grace, 2009), or changes in travel behaviours with regards to destination choices or tourism activities (for example Dawson, Havitz, & Scott, 2011; Ruddy & Scott, 2009). Furthermore, tourists' environmental practices while on holiday generally focussed on responsible behaviours within nature settings (for example Marion & Reid, 2007) or on the acceptance of environmental practices like reusing towels in hotel rooms, a practice that has been introduced by the industry (for example Millar & Baloglu, 2011). On the other hand, environmental practices that have been widely researched in the context of lifestyles focused on green consumerism (for example Peattie, 2010; Soron, 2010), green lifestyles (for example Schuetzenmeister, 2009), or transportation choices (for example Anable, Lane, & Kelay, 2006; Avineri & Waygood, 2010).

Only recently research has begun to address general lifestyle practices combined with travel behaviours. Of particular interest here is research by Stewart Barr and colleagues (Barr, Shaw, & Coles, 2011; Barr, Shaw, Coles, & Prillwitz, 2010), investigating sustainable practices at home and on holidays. These researchers recognise the need for a more holistic approach in investigating people's environmental practices. However, research so far does not distinguish different types of environmental behaviours, leading to generalised statements of behaviours or practices or consumption changes. With regards to sustainable travel behaviours we have to address questions of green consumerism and environmental practices separately in order to gain a better understanding of environmental attitudes towards sustainable travel decisions. While green consumerism focuses on purchasing green or environmentally friendly products or paying for offsets, environmental practices incorporate the 3Rs, reduce, reuse, recycle. Within the tourism literature, mainly the reuse aspect in form of towel reuse in hotels has been addressed. However, such practice is part of the hotel product, driven by industry interests to 'look green' and/or to reduce costs (Weaver, 2011) rather than a tourist-driven activity. Barr et al. (2010) state that people tend to leave their environmental practices at home, and supporting Becken (2007), arguing that tourists do not tend to reduce their travels as a holiday is perceived differently to everyday lifestyle situations. In their research Barr and colleagues compare environmental practices at home, such as recycling, reducing energy, and purchasing environmentally friendly products, with travel behaviours in form of reducing flying. But are such practices really comparable or do we have to differentiate between simple and complex forms of practices and/or purchases? Reducing energy can be easily achieved and generally leads to costs savings, which can benefit peoples' lifestyles and well-being. Travelling is perceived as an important part of today's lifestyles (Becken, 2007) and reducing travelling might be seen as threatening such lifestyles and well-being. Although reducing travelling can save money, people are increasingly willing to pay extra, in form of carbon tax or offsets, to maintain their flying activity (Barr et al., 2010). On the other hand, people who purchase green products at home do not necessarily purchase green travel products, as they are not willing to pay premium prices (Jago & Deery, 2010). Moreover, people who bought green travel products did not necessarily base their decision on high environmental values but self-interests. The question here, however, is, can the purchase of green

household products like green cleaning products be compared with the purchase of a green travel product, or can reducing energy at home be compared to reducing flying?

Although some research suggests that environmental interpretations in tourism settings can increase tourists' environmental awareness or attitudes (Powell & Ham, 2008), environmental practices are more likely to start at home, not on holiday. According to Hobson (2003), simple environmental practices or consumption have become habits, and changing bad or unsustainable habits can be achieved through discursive consciousness. Such discourses could be embedded in information, education, and social norms or peer-pressure. More complex behaviours, like driving to work, however, are determined by barriers that refer to responsibility, uncertainty, or trust, and breaking such habits is more difficult to achieve (Hobson, 2003). This supports Becken's (2007) argument that because flying has become part of people lifestyles, it is a habit difficult to break.

In order to gain a better understanding of the different types of environmental behaviours, (purchases and practices) and types of habits (simple and complex), further research is needed. As the differentiation of environmental lifestyle and travel behaviours is still under-researched, qualitative methodologies can provide tools to explore what these differences are and how these are linked to people's decision-making processes. An initial set of research questions is proposed:

- What types of environmental behaviours have become habits?
- Do people differentiate between simple and complex environmental lifestyle practices?
- What types of environmental behaviours involve more complex decision-making processes?
- How are such complex environmental behaviours linked to lifestyle and travel situations?
- What kind of lifestyle practices do people transfer to travel situations and why?
- Are complex purchase decisions different in lifestyle and travelling situations?
- What kind of environmental consumption behaviours do people transfer to travel situations and why?
- How are simple and complex environmental behaviours linked to people's environmental attitudes?
- How are lifestyle and travel situations linked to people's environmental attitudes?
- Does the travel destination influence a transfer of environmental lifestyle behaviours?
- Does the type or duration of a holiday influence a transfer of environmental lifestyle behaviours?

- Do people engage with environmental travel behaviours that might transfer to lifestyle situations?

To summarise, research has only limited applied a holistic view on environmental behaviours in lifestyle and travel contexts. However, research suggests that people's environmental decisions are not all based on the same attitudes or assumptions (Cottrell, van der Duim, Ankersmid, & Kelder, 2004). Further research is therefore needed in order to gain a better understanding of attitudes and barriers towards more sustainable travel products and practices. Such insights will be valuable for tourism policy makers and organisations, supporting them in their move towards a more sustainable tourism industry. This paper proposed a research agenda to fill the gap identified in the tourism literature.

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# Was I born to shop? A comparison between Korean and Australia Tourists in Thailand

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## **Abstract**

This study aims to explore shopping behaviour between Korean and Australian tourists in Thailand and to compare their shopping behavior and satisfaction. The study included two samples of 400 Australian and 400 Korea tourists collected at international airports in Thailand. Seven-point scale was used in this study. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data. Australian tourists seemed to enjoy and were satisfied with all shopping areas in Bangkok, while Korean tourists had lower satisfaction level toward those areas. Australian tourists engaged in shopping more than Korean tourists at those top-ten shopping areas in Bangkok. Different shopping behavior, including satisfaction and perception about Thailand in making decision for shopping destination requires different tourist information and marketing promotional programs for each country.

**Key words:** Shopping Behaviour, Korean Tourists, Australian Tourists, Thailand, Satisfaction

## **Introduction**

Tourism organisations always attempt to generate higher sales of domestic merchandises. They are particularly interested in tourist shopping expenditures at particular destinations. Better understanding of where tourists spend their money, how satisfied they are and how they rate their shopping criteria is crucial for destination marketing managers. Past research in shopping destination and satisfaction has not included these aspects in combination. In addition, most research studies only one country at a time. This study aims to explore shopping behaviour of Korean and



Australian tourists in Thailand and to compare their shopping behaviour and satisfaction.

An increase in shopping tourism is an important component generating this increase in tourism expenditure and reversing recent trends. Shopping is an enjoyable pastime for many tourists and a source of income in many well-known tourist destinations, particularly for value or exclusive shopping. Therefore, it is considerably important to study the differences among tourist's propensity to shop.

The significant impact and contribution of shopping to the tourism consumption and expenditure have attracted interest of many scholars and practitioners (Dimanche, 2003; Heung and Qu, 1998; Kent, Shock and Snow, 1983; Keown, 1989; Kim and Littrell, 1999; Law and Au, 2000; Lawson, 1991; Park, Reisinger and Noh, 2010; Swanson, 2004; Yu and Littrell, 2003; Yuksel, 2004). However, there is limited knowledge of tourist shopping behaviour in particular destinations (Kemperman, Borgers and Timmermans, 2009; Lehto, Cai, O'Leary and Huan, 2004).

The "shopping paradise" theme has been used widely to promote those particular destinations where the good variety of products is matching the bargaining price or value for money (Dimanche, 2003; Keown, 1989; Heung and Cheng, 2000; Heung and Qu, 1998; Lehto et al., 2004; Mak, Tsang and Cheung, 1999; Park et al., 2010; Wong and Law, 2003). Shopping is used in the creation of destination images, competitive advantages and tourist attractions, for example, Dubai, Hawaii, Hong Kong, Singapore, Las Vegas, Singapore, St. Paul-Minneapolis (Minnesota), and Thailand.

The comparison studies on shopping destination of Hong Kong and Singapore highlight some significant insights in tourist shopping experience and satisfaction (e.g. Mak et al., 1999; Yeung, Wong and Ko, 2004). Variables related to shopping experience and satisfaction include range of merchandises, honesty of retailers, similarity of product and service quality, price and value for money.

The study of shopping destinations is an urgent need for those national tourism organizations to improve their tourist shopping experience and satisfaction (e.g. Heung and Cheng, 2000; Wong and Law, 2003).

Many research studies have attempted to find predictors and have categorised tourism shopping and provided insights for market segmentation. The importance of shopping to a tourist has also been used to categorise tourists, for example, Moscardo (2004, p. 294). She segmented Australian tourists into four different groups according to importance of shopping: serious shoppers, not-so-serious shoppers, arts-and-crafts shoppers, and non-shoppers. Other studies in shopping tourism considered nationalities of visitors when analysing shopping behaviour, for example, Japanese visitors in Hawaii (Keown, 1989; Rosenbaum and Spears, 2009); in Thailand (Sangpikul, 2008); and in Turkey (Sirakaya, Uysal and Yoshioka, 2003).

A wide range of shopping-related destinations have been studied but to date only a few studies have been conducted in Thailand.

This study aims to explore shopping behaviour between Korean and Australian tourists in Thailand and to compare their shopping behavior and satisfaction.

### Methodology and Data Analysis

The total questionnaire surveys of 800 tourists from Korea (400) and Australia (400) were collected at two international airports in Bangkok and Phuket, Thailand. The questionnaire questions were back-translated into both languages for accuracy reason.

Seven-point scale was used in this study. The respondents were asked 1) to rate the important factors toward their shopping-related choice, 2) to rate the level of satisfaction toward their shopping destination in Thailand, 3) to select all shopping attractions that they visited during their trips in Bangkok and 4) to rate the level of satisfaction toward their shopping attractions in Bangkok by rating 1 = not important/very dissatisfied and 7 = very important/very satisfied. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data.

### Findings and Discussion

Table 1 illustrates the comparison of shopping-related importance and shopping satisfaction in Thailand between Korean and Australian Tourists.

**Table 1 The comparison of shopping-related importance and shopping satisfaction in Thailand between Korean and Australian tourists**

Factors	Shopping Importance		Shopping Satisfaction	
	Korea	Australia	Korea	Australia
Reasonable price	4.70	5.24	4.69	5.49
Good shopping	4.72	4.54	4.81	5.28
Friendly and helpful people	4.75	5.72	4.76	5.79
Local people can speak your language	4.94	4.47	5.45	4.92
Good weather	5.23	5.33	5.76	5.71
Convenient transportation	5.82	5.33	5.93	5.48
Special events/Festivals	5.03	4.24	5.46	5.13
Hotel/Accommodation	4.55	5.12	4.05	5.51
Accessibility of low cost airline	4.43	4.79	5.45	5.15
Low cost of travelling	4.94	5.10	5.36	5.32

The top-five important shopping-related factors of Korean tourists included 'convenient transportation', 'good weather', 'special events/festivals', 'local people can speak your language' and 'low cost of travelling'. Australian tourists rated 'friendly and helpful people', 'convenient transportation', 'good weather', 'reasonable price' and 'hotel/accommodation' as their top-five important shopping-related factors. The two nationalities shared similar importance factors of 'convenient transportation' and 'good weather'. Korean tourists concerned more about 'special events/festivals', 'local people can speak your language' and 'low cost of travelling', while Australian tourists concerned more about 'friendly and helpful people', 'reasonable price' and 'hotel/accommodation'. Interestingly, Australia tourists were not worried about the language in Thailand because English is widely spoken in many countries around the world, including Thailand, while Korean tourists seemed to be much worried about this because Korean language is not used widely as English and many Korean tourists did not speak English at all.

Interestingly, Australian tourists were satisfied with most shopping-related factors and the top-five satisfaction factors were consistent with the rating for shopping importance. In another hand, Korean tourists were satisfied with 'convenient transportation', 'good weather', 'special events/festivals', 'local people can speak your language' and 'accessibility of low cost airline'. While the 'low cost of travelling' factor was not rated in top-five of satisfaction, this could be further studied about the reason of this. Korean tourists might find that the promotion of low cost airlines to Thailand were extensive and easy to access than any other countries. Another point on the language ability, Korean tourists were surprised and satisfied with 'local people can speak your language', this could be explained that Tourism Authority of Thailand and other tourism organisations saw the huge opportunity to develop the tourism market in Korea and encouraged people in tourism industry to learn Korean language free of charge. Another reason that many Thai people can speak Korean language was the Korean trend became popular due to Korean movie series and Korean pop (K pop) stars and singers.

In summary, the overall findings of shopping importance and satisfaction showed the delightfulness of these two tourist groups when they were in Thailand.

Table 2 presents the comparison of shopping destination and shopping satisfaction in Bangkok between Korean and Australian tourists.

**Table 2 The comparison of shopping destination and shopping satisfaction in Bangkok between Korean and Australian tourists**

Factors	Shopping destination		Shopping Satisfaction	
	Korea	Australia	Korea	Australia
MBK (Maboonkrong) – shopping center	12.00%	34.70%	4.25	5.53
Siam Square – shopping area	16.00%	28.75%	4.70	5.17
Central World Plaza – shopping center	13.25%	16.75%	4.58	5.00

Siam Paragon – international brand shopping center	13.00%	26.00%	4.85	5.56
The Emporium – international brands shopping center	11.50%	10.50%	4.26	5.31
Pantip Plaza – electronic appliances and computers shopping center	9.50%	9.50%	4.37	5.21
Chatuchak Weekend Market	12.50%	22.00%	4.48	5.50
Suan Lum Night Bazaar – night market	14.50%	18.00%	4.71	5.46
Sukhumvit Road/Silom Road – street shopping in CBD and touristic areas	12.50%	23.75%	4.08	5.23
Kao San Road – night market shopping area for tourists and well-known for backpackers and locals	12.50%	34.00%	4.30	5.46

The results from Table 2 showed that Australian tourists engaged in shopping more than Korean tourists at those top-ten shopping areas in Bangkok. Less than 20 per cent of Korean tourists went shopping in those shopping areas in Bangkok, while up to 35 percent of Australian tourists went shopping in those areas. The possible explanation for these much differences could be the tourist information and marketing promotional activities in Korea and Australia. The culture and shopping interests of each country are also explained these differences. Another possible reason could also be the variety of product ranges which assumed that Korea has similar products to Thailand and the expensive price of products in Australia. These tourists rated their satisfaction differently toward the shopping attractions. Australian tourists seemed to enjoy and be satisfied with all shopping areas in Bangkok, while Korean tourists had lower satisfaction level. However, the overall rating of Korean tourists' satisfaction was not too different from those shopping destinations comparing to Australian tourists.

The differences of shopping importance between Korean and Australia tourists showed the interesting point of how these tourists perceived about Thailand as a shopping destination and represented the reflection of how Tourism Authority of Thailand and other tourism organisations used information from tourism research to promote Thailand to be as close as particular tourists' perceptions in other countries. It was obvious that Korean and Australia tourists had quite different perceptions about Thailand in making decision for shopping destination. Therefore, different marketing promotional programs should be designed according to these differences of shopping importance for each country.

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# The Importance of 'Bragging Rights' to Tourism Marketing

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## Abstract

It is the objective of this work to discuss the relevance of 'bragging rights' to tourism management and marketing. An explanation of the meaning of the term is first provided.

Bragging rights is defined as "the supposed right to brag about an accomplishment" ([Dictionary.com, 2011](http://Dictionary.com)). At the very least, the act of bragging seems to include the elements of belief (that a behaviour will provide an opportunity to brag), behaviour (based on the belief that an action will give rise to the ability to brag) and communication (the act of bragging). There may be some cases however where a person's unplanned or impulse behaviour might give rise to a belief that bragging rights are to be expected. In the context of consumer behaviour, and indeed destination choice, we have an interest in the planned acquisition of bragging rights, that is, the sequence of belief, behaviour and communication.

Academic literature linking bragging rights to tourism is limited. Delener ([2010, p. 1133](#)) proposes that Baby Boomers, who are now in their sixties travel to seek “luxury, fulfilment, bragging rights and comfort”. In reference to film induced tourism, Beeton ([2005, p. 112](#)) proposes that visiting film sites allows the individual to return home knowing how movies were filmed and so brag about possessing insider knowledge. Launius and Jenkins ([2006](#)) argue that bragging rights may also be earned by participating in exclusive activities such as hunting in sub-Saharan Africa. Brooker and Burgess ([2008, p. 279](#)) propose that one of the reasons people may visit new and un-commercialised destinations that one’s peers have not heard about or considered visiting, is because of the “bragging rights” that might be earned. Urry ([1990](#)) suggests that destinations are often not consumed because they are intrinsically superior but, because of the taste or status they communicate. A similar argument was put forward by Klenosky ([2002](#)) who proposed that destinations may be a means to achieving ends. In regard to this research, we suggest that the ends may include the right to brag.

An online search (Google.com) using the phrases “travel and bragging rights” and “tourism and bragging rights” revealed thousands of ‘hits’. On investigation, many of the results received were related to travel blogs or activities individuals ‘had to’ participate in (or collect), such as, the world’s best ski slopes ([Oakes-Ash, 2011](#)). The term bragging rights has also been used by destinations to publicise their awards and accolades, examples including Nova Scotia ([Novascotia.com, 2011](#)), Vancouver ([Fong, 2011](#)) and Philadelphia ([Garely, 2010](#)). Bragging rights has also been related to landmarks and tourist attractions, including Indianapolis ([Indiana Tourism, 2011](#)) and Jiangyou City, China ([Wan, 2010](#)). The term was also used by news media, particularly when reporting about unique events such as Russia’s sand art ([Traveltowork.net, 2011](#)) and Indianapolis’ Turtle Back Zoo ([Eisenberg, 2011](#)).

No evidence has been found to suggest that bragging rights has been the subject of academic research. In order to explore this issue, both tourists and tourism marketers were interviewed. Focus groups, comprising a convenience sample of tourists, were conducted. Destination marketers were also interviewed based on their standing as being industry experts ([see, Mullin, 1989](#)). So as not to unduly influence the responses, the interview protocol addressed destination choice and the varying popularity of destinations. In both the focus group discussions and interviews of industry experts, the term bragging rights was frequently used. The focus group and interview transcripts were analysed with the aim of developing an explanation as to how bragging rights might be applied and indeed managed in tourism.

Based on our findings, we propose that there are roles for social groups, travellers, and tourism marketers. The model suggests that there are actions and consequences, which are sequential, and (importantly for a destination) can be managed by a destination marketing organisation (DMO). The model has four stages: *conditioning*, *gaining*, *enabling* and *communication*. Each stage is now briefly discussed.

*Conditioning*: We prescribe that the bragging rights process begins with a belief that a behaviour will result in the right to brag. We also suggest that when the individual is contemplating the acquisition of bragging rights, the belief contains an idea as to whom



the bragging might be directed towards. We would suggest that the recipients of communication (bragging) would often be members of a person's existing or aspirational social groups. The act of conditioning on the part of a DMO requires identifying, targeting and promoting to social groups. Such promotion should contain features about a destination that suggest there are bragging rights associated with visiting the destination.

*Gaining*: is the behaviour by which an individual earns the right to brag. In tourism, the act of travel (the behaviour based on a belief) provides a 'just claim' to brag.

*Enabling*: Phillips and Back ([2011, p. 594](#)), in discussing conspicuous consumption, suggest that DMOs offer products which "provide ways for visitors to flaunt their visit to a destination to create a 'wow' effect on others". With services such as tourism, there are no, or few, objects which communicate meaning. This is where DMOs can assist. We suggest that DMOs have an opportunity to provide messages and mediums to aid the ability to brag. Destination marketing organisations can enable bragging by providing artefacts (souvenirs) to support the tourist's bragging efforts. These are objects which might be worn or given away, and act as evidence, conversation pieces, and communicators. Facilitating photographic opportunities next to an iconic feature is another example of enabling bragging.

*Communication*: (that is bragging) may be verbal, or non-verbal through symbols such as artefacts and souvenirs. Bragging is a form of communication which we argue is usually directed towards a person's social group although other people may also be beneficiaries. Bragging has value to the traveller in that it can communicate conformity (and potentially superiority) with existing or aspirational group norms. Bragging rights can also be of benefit to the destination. When tourists communicate (even brag) about their travels, they are providing potential tourists with valuable information, perhaps the motivation to travel, and even destination choice.

We do not propose that bragging rights determines destination choice, but propose that a probabilistic relationship ([see Dul & Hak, 2008](#)) exists between believed level of bragging rights and destination choice. We suggest that our model will be of interest and use to practitioners and furthers literature about bragging. It is our intention to continue research into bragging rights with one possibility being an action research approach with researchers and practitioners working together to implement and measure the impact of bragging rights tactics in a destination.

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# Environmental conservation behaviour for sustainable nature-based tourism: The role of a sense of personal responsibility

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## **Abstract**

Much of the previous research has emphasised the important role of environmental attitudes or knowledge as main determinants of environmental behaviour. However, recent research suggests that the roles of other types of psychological factors need to be examined for changing tourists' environmental behaviour. This paper argues that a stronger focus on personal responsibility might provide a fruitful way to think about how to stimulate long-term change in people's values, attitudes and behaviour for a more effective sustainable tourism practice. This paper suggests that further research directions on personal responsibility are needed as this may help to establish powerful persuasive communication tools that can stimulate tourists to make responsible and meaning decisions on their own behaviour.

**Key words:** Environmental Behaviour, Sustainable Tourism, Personal Responsibility

## **Introduction**

Since nature-based tourism or ecotourism has experienced rapid growth in many destinations, especially, national parks or protected areas, there has been debate about the appropriate ways of managing the positive or negative environmental impacts of tourism for environmental sustainability (Newsome, Moore, and Dowling, 2002). In order to achieve paradoxical objectives of tourism management (tourists' enjoyment and environmental protection), much of the previous literature often has placed a greater emphasis on the importance of promoting visitor environmental attitude and responsible behaviour rather than regulating tourist activities (Ballantyne and Packer, 2005; Kuo, 2002). Indeed, several researchers support this notion that nature-based tourism, especially, ecotourism can foster positive benefits for environmental conservation through raising tourist awareness of environmental issues and changing their behaviour, while providing enjoyment to tourists (Ballantyne, Packer, and Sutherland, 2011a; Swarbrooke, 1999; Wearing and Neil, 1999).

Despite such various efforts made through education or green marketing strategies, however, there is still growing concern about difficulties of changing tourist inappropriate behaviour (Ballantyne and Packer, 2005; Blackstock, White and McCrum, 2008). Empirical studies have produced contradictory findings, indicating that tourists' support for environmental conservation efforts can be varied depending on a wide range of situational factors such as the type of environmental behaviours and the destinations where they visit (Ballantyne, Packer, and Hughes, 2009; Kim, Airey, and Szivas, 2011). Indeed, some researchers argue that tourists tend to be less involved in environmental practices, such as saving greater amounts of energy, water and materials, removing litter, and recycling in tourist destinations than they do at home (Williams and Ponsford, 2009). Recent research suggests that one of the reasons why communications and other visitor management techniques to alter tourist behaviour fail might be that they do not address other potential indicators that may strongly influence tourist environmental behaviour (Budeanu, 2007; Miller et al. 2010).

From the environmental psychology literature, many theories have contributed to our better understanding of the complex influences of various factors on environmental behaviour and explained that how different factors are associated with the type of environmental behaviour and in what situation. However, earlier studies of environmental behaviour have focused on the knowledge-attitude-behaviour model which is widely accepted throughout the park visitor management and interpretation fields (Beaumont, 1999). This perspective proposes that if individuals become more knowledgeable about the environmental issues, they will in turn become more aware of the environment and its problems. Consequently, their pro-environmental attitudes in turn lead to being more motivated to act toward the environment in more responsible ways (Cottrell & Graefe, 1997; Cottrell, 2003; Hungerford & Volk, 1990). Based on this assumption, the previous tourism literature has often measured visitors' knowledge, attitudes, and behavioural intentions (Ballantyne and Packer, 2005; Jackson, 2007).

However, other researchers argue that the attitude-based theoretical models (e.g. the Theory of Reasoned Action) seems too simplistic to apply to tourism where tourist problem behaviour is significantly influenced by numerous other factors such as the heterogeneous characteristics of tourist groups, different habits, a lack of reasoned thought, a lack of responsibility, etc. (Cottrell, 2003; Miller et al., 2010). Thus, tourist behavioural change is a far more challenging task as it will need to be influenced by going far beyond improving awareness of the environmental problem (Miller et al., 2010). Recently, some researchers suggest that the roles of other types of psychological factors need to be examined with respect to the specific tourism context. In particular, it requires asking a different research question, 'to what extent' each of these factors are likely to stimulate behavioural change and in which situation. Thus this paper suggests that a greater attention needs to be given to a sense of personal responsibility as another key indicator to consider for a more effective way of managing sustainable tourist behaviour.

### **Personal responsibility**

While environmental awareness, knowledge and attitudes have shown some promise as important determinants of environmental behaviour, less attention has been paid to individual acceptance of personal responsibility for environmental protection in the tourism literature (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2007). Personal responsibility is defined as perceived feelings of duty or obligation of the respondent toward the environment (Hines et al., 1987). Taking the notion of moral norm-activation theories (e.g. Fuhrer, 1995; Schwartz, 1977), the literature of environmental psychology has provided empirical evidence that environmental behaviour can be predicted more accurately and consistently by an individual's moral obligation (i. e. responsibility feelings) (Kaiser and Shimoda, 1999). Kaiser and Shimoda (1999) point out that the explanatory part of attitude-based theories can be extended by adding moral norms concepts (e.g. feelings of a personal obligation) which place greater values on ethical principles (e.g. another's welfare, another's rights, and fairness or justice consideration), as opposed to other conventional social norms (e.g. incentives or restrictions).

Applying this concept to the tourism context, it is assumed that tourists with both strong moral responsibility and higher levels of environmental awareness are more likely to be concerned about the benefits of others, such as the welfare of animals or the future generation's right to enjoy the same quality of the environment in a longer-term. Consequently, their stronger feelings of responsibility (or personal moral obligation) can lead to environmental actions despite sacrificing their time or convenience. This argument emphasises that a stronger focus on personal responsibility might provide a fruitful way to think about how to stimulate long-term change in people's values, attitudes and behaviour before and during their visit to tourist destinations for a more effective sustainable tourism practices (Blackstock et al., 2008).

Dolnicar and Leisch (2007) also support this recent turn to ethical consideration that is evident within sustainable tourism literature. They examined different patterns of Australian people's moral obligation to behave in an environmentally friendly matter and identified six different moral obligation segments that were significantly associated with different levels of past pro-environmental behaviour in both at home or on vacation settings (e.g. buying environmentally friendly products, picking up litter, using public transport, donation, etc.). They argue that moral obligation can be an useful indicator in identifying environmentally friendly market, as some markets with stronger moral obligation for certain types of pro-environmental behaviour show consistent behavioural patterns across either home or tourism settings (Dolnicar and Leisch, 2007).

While the convincing evidence drawn from the environmental psychology literature supports the important role of personal responsibility in achieving environmental behavioural change (Kaiser et al., 1999; Kollmuss, and Agyeman, 2002), some challenging issues have also been addressed. Firstly, there is little research on how the moral obligation can be measured and modified, when applying to various contexts of tourism situations. Thus there requires further guideline on the measurement of responsibility as it may result in the conflicting findings across studies. Moreover, previous researchers point out that only a relatively small segment of this green tourist market (i.e. high moral obligation or inclined to act on behalf of others) are currently guided by an overriding environmental consciousness (William and Ponsford, 2009). On

the other hand, the largest part of tourists is ambivalent or less interested in the well-being of the environment or the local community (Budeanu, 2007). In particular, some researchers argue that it may take time for tourists to take a full personal responsibility for their own actions in tourist destinations or they may not respond to the responsibility-induced communication strategies or interpretive guided programs. Given these market challenges, making such strategies successful requires detailed knowledge about the environmental profiles of moral obligation segments who tend to take individual and collective responsibility for their own actions, across various situations (Dolnicar and Leisch, 2007; William and Ponsfold, 2009).

## **Conclusions**

This paper addresses a need for understanding the significant role of personal responsibility in environmental behavioural modification. Recent researchers argue that encouraging tourist's feelings of moral responsibility can optimise the long-term changes in tourist's attitude and behaviour toward sustainable management practices. However, this task can be challenging as it requires removing barriers that prevent people from acting responsible behaviour and establishing powerful persuasive communication tools focusing on new aspects of responsible and meaning choices which can be made by the general tourist (Caruana and Crane, 2008). The design of effective marketing strategies and educational opportunities can be improved through targeting various types of tourist segments based on different ethnical values. This approach can help encourage tourists to think about what they are responsible for, and how to behave in a more responsible way (Caruana and Crane, 2008). Such efforts may help shift the environmentally concerned tourists to responsible citizens who can make their own decisions on what they can contribute to the long-term sustainable tourism practices.

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# Tourism, the Environment and Sustainability: An Exploration of Melanesian Constitutions

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## **Abstract**

Tourism represents a large percentage of the GDP in many Pacific nations. Sustainable tourism has received significant coverage in the literature and the natural environment present great potential for tourism, with nature-based tourism a focus for growth, in Melanesian countries. A large number of species (flora and fauna) are affected by key threats, thereby, impacting biodiversity in the region. Both tourism and climate change can exacerbate these threats further. This can be partly dealt with through government policy. This paper aims to explore the constitutions of the Melanesian nations for the ability to facilitate sustainability and sustainable tourism through a content analysis. It was found that three Melanesian nations have a clause relating to the protection of the environment, creating a significant opportunity for these nations to promote sustainable tourism. Nevertheless, policy implementation is limited and the strength of government institutions in relation to the environment needs to be enhanced.

**Key words:** Tourism, Environment, Melanesia, Constitution, Wantok, Climate Change

## **INTRODUCTION**

Tourism makes up a large percentage of the GDP in many Pacific nations. In 2002, it represented from 2.9 per cent to 47 per cent of GDP in the Pacific Island Countries and Territories (PICTs) (Commonwealth of Australia, 2006). Tourism has in the last decade experienced growth and, consequently, tourism accounted indirectly between 3.0 to 53.7 per cent of GDP in PICTs in 2009 (WTTC, 2011). As Briguglio, Archer, Jafari and Wall (1996) stated, small islands are famous for their natural beauty in form of exotic character and beaches. Both marine and terrestrial attractions provide a crucial resource (de Groot, Wilson, & Boumans, 2002), and are a vital aspect of tourism development in small island states (Briguglio et al., 2006), including the Pacific (Harrison, 2003, 2004).

Acknowledging the importance of the natural environments, sustainable tourism has received much coverage in the tourism literature (Attz, 2009; Bramwell, 2011; Briguglio et al., 1996; Scott, Lemieux, & Malone, 2011; WTTC, WTO & Earth Council, 1995; Zulfa & Carlsen, 2011). "Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future" (WTTC et al., 1995, p. 30). As 'nature-based tourism' is likely to remain central to the marketing of Pacific Islands for the foreseeable future" (Harrison, 2004, p. 11), and increasing tourism numbers may strain the natural resources upon which tourism is based (Hall, 2010), this paper aims to explore the constitutions of the Melanesian nations for their ability to facilitate sustainability and promote sustainable tourism.

## TOURISM IN MELANESIA

Melanesia is one of the three sub-regions of the Pacific (the other two being Micronesia and Polynesia). Melanesia covers five countries, including Fiji, New Caledonia, the Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea (PNG) and Vanuatu. All of these nations have characteristics of denser populations and most are volcanic in nature (Harrison, 2004). The Melanesian nations, like those of Micronesia and Polynesia, have great tourism potential in terms of their natural environment. For example, Vanuatu promotes its natural environment by mentioning the nation's volcanoes, pristine beaches, and underwater environments on the website of the Vanuatu Tourism Office (VTO, 2009). Yet, tourism development has occurred in varying degrees across these nations (Cassidy & Brown, 2010).

Linked to tourism development, the economic importance of tourism also varies across the Melanesian nations. Vanuatu is the country where tourism represents one of the key productive sectors (GEF, UNDP & SPREP, 2009; Republic of Vanuatu, GEF, UNDP, UNFCCC & NACCC, 2007; UNDP, 2005) and indirectly accounts for 53.7 per cent of the nation's GDP, whereas tourism has hardly any economic impact in Papua New Guinea (PNG) accounting for approximately one per cent of the country's GDP. Fiji has the largest volume of tourists, and tourism also plays a significant economic role in this country, as Table 1 shows.

**Table 1: Overview of the economic importance of tourism in Melanesia**

Melanesian Nation	Tourism (direct) as a percentage of GDP 2011	Tourism (indirect) as a percentage of GDP 2011	Tourism (direct) as a percentage of employment 2011	Tourism (indirect) as a percentage of employment 2011	Tourism as a percentage of exports 2011	Projected number of international arrivals (overnight) 2011
Fiji	10.0	27.8	9.0	25.1	35.5	600,000
New Caledonia	...	...	...	...	...	... (2004) 99,515

Papua New Guinea (PNG)	1.1	3.0	0.9	2.6	.0	144,000
Solomon Islands	3.7	9.9	3.1	8.6	20.3	18,000
Vanuatu	19.4	53.7	16.8	47.7	70.3	108,000

**Source:** based on WTTC, 2011, 2004 arrivals are based on Milne, TourismWorx, & NZTRI, 2005.

Harrison (2003) highlighted the negative impacts that tourism has had on the physical environment in the Pacific, including damages to beaches and mangroves, loss of native flora and fauna caused by tourism development and support infrastructure constructions. This leads us to what environment and conservation issues are present in the Melanesian countries.

#### ENVIRONMENT AND CONSERVATION IN MELANESIAN COUNTRIES

A number of key threats have been identified as affecting species globally. Species that are vital to tourism and other important economic activities and at the same time present significant values to communities and people across the globe (Vié, Hilton-Taylor & Stuart, 2009). The main threats to species in the Oceania, including the Melanesian sub-region, are habitat loss, invasive species, overexploitation, pollution, climate change and disease (Kingsford et al., 2009). Climate change has been identified as an emerging threat to species (Vié et al., 2009), and the Pacific has been identified as a hotspot for the key effects of climate change, consequently, affecting tourism destinations across the region (Scott et al., 2008).

The Melanesian countries are already facing significant pressures on species of amphibians, birds, mammals and plants. Kingsford et al. (2009) provided an assessment of the number of species that were affected by four key threats in Melanesia (see Table 2). From this, it becomes clear that habitat loss is a significant threat to all of the Melanesian nations, followed by invasive species and overexploitation. Tourism can affect both habitat loss and invasive species through its involvement in the process of land use change, but will also be affected by these threats (Gössling & Hall, 2006). Pollution does not yet seem to present a significant issue to species in the Melanesian nations, but have been reported to negatively affect wildlife and coral reefs (Kingsford et al., 2009). The data in Table 2 does not cover climate change, but climate change will make it harder to manage these natural resources (The World Bank, 2010).

**Table 2: Overview of species (incl. amphibians, birds, mammals and plants) affected by key threats in Melanesia (based on Kingsford et al., 2009, p. 837)**

Island	All assessed species	Assessed threatened species
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group	Species	HL	IS	OE	P	Species	HL	IS	OE	P
		%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%
Fiji	37	84	27	24	5	25	84	32	24	4
New Caledonia	88	83	17	14	8	65	83	17	14	8
PNG	349	56	6	14	2	113	86	9	23	0
Solomon Islands	87	78	18	13	1	38	74	29	18	0
Vanuatu	24	83	21	21	0	16	88	25	31	0

HL = Habitat Loss; IS = Invasive Species; OE = Overexploitation; P = Pollution

Climate change has the ability to exacerbate many of the shocks and stressors that affect the natural resources upon which tourism rely. For example, a recent study by Klint et al. (forthcoming) highlight that the majority of shocks and stressors faced by the dive tourism sector in Luganville, Vanuatu, will be exacerbated by climate change. As the implementation of government policy is an important aspect of dealing with climate change (Hall, 2009), protecting the environment and encouraging conservation (Kingsford et al., 2009), it is equally essential to have an understanding of the constitutions of these nations and if these facilitate sustainability. A *constitution* can be defined as “the written or unwritten laws that regulate the manner in which the highest position of authority in a state are filled, and the scope and limits of such authority” (Mautner, 2000, p. 110). In other words, the constitution is the foundational document of the state, and fundamental to all consequent policies, as these will be guided by the scope and limitations of the constitution.

## METHODOLOGY

This study was based on secondary data with the unit of analysis being the constitutions of the five Melanesian nations. Each constitution was located using the Internet. The data unit was analysed using a content analysis approach, which was appropriate because of its ability to “reveal messages in a text that are difficult to see with casual observation” (Neuman, 2011, p. 363). The constitutions were then manifest coded for the following keywords: environment, safeguard, and future generations, in order to locate if the constitutions explicitly would have the ability to facilitate sustainable tourism. The results of the analysis are presented in the next section.

## RESULTS

The findings of this study show that three out of the five Melanesian nations have clauses in their constitutions that have the ability to facilitate sustainable tourism (see Table 3). New Caledonia’s constitution was the oldest of the five constitutions and the clause on the safeguarding of the environment was part of a later amendment in 2004 (Assemblée Nationale, n.d.). The constitutions of both Vanuatu and PNG were developed at the time that the green paradigm started to emerge (Weaver &

Oppermann, 2000). The constitution of Vanuatu was developed prior to the so-called Brundtland report, which made the notion of sustainable development prominent (Jafari, 2000), and PNG's constitution was developed after this report was published. This may be the reason for the inclusion of such a clause, which facilitates sustainability, but the constitution of the Solomon Islands was also written at the same period of time and does not include such a clause.

**Table 3: Overview of Melanesian Constitutions that have the ability to facilitate sustainability and examples of the clauses highlighting this**

Melanesian Nation	Year of Constitution	Ability to facilitate sustainability	Examples and references
Fiji	1970	No	N/A – (PACLII, n.d.a)
New Caledonia	1958 (French Constitution)	Yes	<i>Extract from the Environment Charter:</i> “The safeguarding of the environment is a goal to be pursued in the same way as the other fundamental interests of the Nation” (Assemblée Nationale, n.d.)
Papua New Guinea (PNG)	1975	Yes	<i>Extract from Preamble Article 4, Natural resources and environment:</i> “We declare our fourth goal to be for Papua New Guinea's natural resources and environment to be conserved and used for the collective benefit of us all, and be replenished for the benefit of future generations.” (Helplinlaw, 2010)
Solomon Islands	1978	No	N/A – (PACLII, n.d.b)
Vanuatu	1980	Yes	<i>Extract from Part II Fundamental Duties, Article 7d:</i> “Every person has the following fundamental duties to himself and his [hers] descendants and to others to protect Vanuatu and safeguard the national wealth, resources and environment in the interests of present and future generations” (Parliament of Vanuatu, 2009)

## DISCUSSION

The real reason for the inclusion of a clause that facilitates sustainability is not known. However, one hypothesis could be that it is the Melanesian ideology of Wantok that is coming through in the constitution. “*Wantok* means literally ‘one talk.’ Wantoks are people who speak the same language as you – your family and your clan. The wantok system involves both responsibilities and privileges. Within a village, everyone is entitled to land, food and a share in community assets” (Forster, 2005, p. 288). Although, the key feature of this ideology is to look after your wantoks (Doyle, 2005), it is an ideological framework of collective responsibility, of looking after the interests of one's

wantoks (Ratuva, 2005). As the natural environment is vital to tourism as well as the subsistence fishing and agriculture (ADB, 2009), which is an important element of many of the Pacific nations (Morris & Mackay, 2008), it could be argued that it is also the collective responsibility to safeguard these natural resources. Nevertheless, more research needs to be undertaken to prove the validity of this argument. Either way, wantok provide a significant traditional or informal system of social protection (Forster, 2005; Ratuva, 2005; White, 2006).

The inclusion of a clause to protect or safeguard the environment for current and future generations presents a significant opportunity for these nations to promote sustainability and sustainable tourism. However, the implementation of policies is often poor in the Pacific (Commonwealth of Australia, 2006; Preston, Suppiah, Macadam & Bathols, 2006). For example in Vanuatu, there is limited coordination across institutions and the mandates of government departments are often overlapping (Bartlett, Maltali, Petro & Valentine, 2010), and the implementation of energy efficiency policies, which may protect the environment in the long-term, is at most times challenging in all of the Pacific region (REEEP, 2009). Consequently, a strengthening of government institutions and the implementation of policies must occur before the advantages of these constitutions will have any real effect.

## **CONCLUSION**

This paper set out to explore the Constitutions of the five Melanesian states for the ability of these documents to facilitate and encourage sustainable tourism. Three countries (i.e. New Caledonia, PNG and Vanuatu) were found to have clauses in their constitutions that can facilitate sustainability and encourage sustainable tourism and the protection of the environment. It was hypothesised that the inclusion of these clauses may reflect the Melanesian ideology of Wantok, but this hypothesis will need to be appropriately tested. Even though there is great potential in these nations' constitutions, the policy implementation is often lacking and government institutions in environment and tourism need strengthening.

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# **“I wanted to see the pain on their faces”: Sports Tourists’ Perceptions of Authenticity at the 2011 Tour de France**

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## **Abstract**

The quest for authentic experiences is widely touted as a travel motive amongst postmodern tourists. While this concept has been applied to a certain extent in studies of tourism per se, empirical studies of authenticity in sports tourism are rare. This paper summarises preliminary outcomes of an ethnographic study examining sports tourists who participated in a commercial cycling and spectating tour at the 2011 Tour de France. Perceptions of authenticity were highly heterogeneous. However, desire to be immersed in an animated atmosphere generated by crowds of partisan spectators, challenges discourse of stimulus avoidance as a contributor to authenticity in tourism experiences.

**Key words:** Sports Tourism, Authenticity, Tour de France, Ethnography

## ***Introduction and Background***

Authenticity in tourism was first spoken about by MacCannell (1973), stirred by criticisms of tourism experiences not truly reflecting the host peoples and/or their cultural heritage. Such experiences can be deemed by tourists to be inauthentic and thus commodified, diminishing the tourist experience (Higham & Hinch, 2009). Various writings on authenticity in tourism carry connotations of tourists seeking out uncharted territory, yearning to avoid crowds (e.g. Bruner, 1991; Cloke & Perkins, 1998), even to avoid the *Turistas Vulgaris* (Löfgren, 1999). However, authenticity in sports tourism experiences has received little attention from scholars. This is surprising given that sport is one the few touristic phenomena capable of enhancing authenticity due to its

kinaesthetic and visceral nature (Higham & Hinch, 2009). Using a commercially organised, packaged tour to the 2011 Tour de France cycle race as a case study, this paper reports preliminary work aimed at understanding triggers of authenticity for sports tourists seeking to experience a hallmark sporting event.

### ***Study Context and Methods***

Sports tourists participating in a packaged coach tour taking in the final six stages of the 2011 Tour de France formed the basis of this ethnographic study. This phase of *Le Tour* took in the French Alps and the final processional stage into Paris. The daily itinerary allowed participants to cycle to a strategically selected point along the Tour de France route, and thus ride parts of race course. There, participants could see the race entourage pass by along with its associated festivities, before being transported back to the hotel. The tour therefore incorporated both active and passive (spectator) participation elements.

An interpretive epistemological approach was adopted, allowing theory to naturally emerge from the data. Such an approach was considered well suited to developing a rich understanding of sport tourism experiences because participants' perceptions could be tapped without constraint by an *a priori* framework (Creswell, 2007). Data were collected using multiple methods, including participant observation, visual (photographic) data, and in-depth interviews with tour group members and tour guides, reflecting the need in ethnographic studies for the researcher to collect "whatever data are available to throw light on the issues that are the emerging focus of inquiry" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007, p. 3).

The lead author positioned himself as an 'insider' within the tour as a fellow participant. Throughout, the researcher observed the dynamics of the group and kept detailed field notes. Video and photographic evidence served to substantiate the written field notes. Because of the need to develop rapport with other tour members (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007), expressions of interest were sought for participation in the research late in the itinerary. Tour members were also alerted to the research via an email from the organisers prior to departure. A small number of interviews were conducted on the final day, while the remainder were conducted following the tour, either face-to-face or by telephone. In total, eleven tour members were interviewed, along with two tour guides. Interviews were transcribed verbatim and subject to an analysis procedure consisting of open, axial and selective coding as described by Neuman (2006).

### ***Preliminary Data Analysis***

Ten themes emerged reflecting elements of the tour and conditions that invoked feelings of authenticity for the tour members. These were labelled Sportscape, Star Gazing, Connectivity, Animated Atmosphere, Mediation, Embodiment, Tour Shrines, France, Communitas, and Visual Authentication. Space precludes a detailed description of each theme, however the most prominent themes are described briefly below, and an example quote provided.

*Sportscape* reflected tour members' desires to connect with the theatre/stage in which the Tour de France is produced (Edensor, 2001): "It was quite cool and I sort of got a real buzz every time I went around a switchback and it sort of flattened off and you have these visions of 'we really are climbing something that's truly dramatic'" (Barry). Meanwhile, *Star Gazing* referred to the ability to view professional cyclists and other well-known identities synonymous with the Tour de France in person: "... I wanted to see the pain on their faces" (George)<sup>12</sup>.

According to Palmer (2010), "Representational space refers to how urban space is re-ordered as 'Tour space' with the arrival of the Tour de France, and its attendant images, icons and symbols" (p. 868). The theme *Animated Atmosphere* encapsulated the value tour members placed in experiencing 'Tour space' and its associated buzzing atmosphere: "...we met some lads from Geelong ... had a chat with them as well ... it was just a really great atmosphere and everybody that was around were for [Andy] Schleck or Cadel [Evans]. You've got that nice nervousness and everybody just sitting there wondering what's going to happen" (Ben).

*Mediation* reflected tour members' descriptions regarding the appeal of seeing first-hand the Tour de France cyclists' performances live: "You're jumping up and everybody starts tooting and shouting. You see the first couple and you think 'Quick!', and you try and get your camera out ... you don't want to miss them all" (Beverley).

Opportunities to cycle parts of the Tour de France route were a prominent trigger of authenticity. Tour members were able to experience first-hand the kinaesthetic burn (Spinney, 2006) also experienced by the professional cyclists. They could therefore embody (*Embodiment*) the sportscape for themselves, often leading to admiration for the feats of Tour de France cyclists: "... that day riding to Gap I remember we had that 30 kilometres to go and I was thinking "who the fuck would want to be a professional cyclist?" (laughing) (Josh).

Lastly, many interviewees spoke about imagery of the Tour de France they had seen on TV previously. Thus, *Visual Authentication* was a theme describing tour members witnessing and verifying first-hand, classic images reproduced on TV and other media: "... seeing the signs actually saying 'Alpe d'Huez' ... that made it feel very, very real to me ... it just made me all feel warm and fuzzy" (Josh)

### ***Tentative Conclusions and Implications***

This study represents one of the first empirical explorations into triggers of authenticity in sports tourism experiences. It is also one of the first to push aside mutually exclusive distinctions of active and passive participation as implied by some typologies of sports tourism (e.g. Standeven & DeKnop, 1999).

Data support Wang's (1999) multidimensional conceptualisation of authenticity consisting of objective, constructive and existential. *Objective authenticity* is concerned with whether toured objects are real or fake, and was evident in tour members'

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<sup>12</sup> Pseudonyms are used to preserve participants' anonymity.