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General Information

The 2012 Annual International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators (ISTTE) Conference will devote several sessions to the presentations of academic and research papers. It is the intent of these sessions to focus on a broad range of topics that are related to education, research, and management in the field of travel, tourism, and hospitality services. ISTTE is an international organization; therefore, submissions from international scholars are highly encouraged.

Contribution Areas: Contributions are invited in any of the following subject areas or their related areas

- Bridging the gap between industry and education needs
- Emerging issues in travel and tourism education and training
- Innovative and creative teaching techniques
- Perspectives on articulation and/or accreditation
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- Studies of gaming and entertainment industries
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Types of Submissions: The International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators (ISTTE) provides researchers with a choice of four types of research papers:

- Refereed full papers
- Poster papers based on refereed extended abstract
- Working papers based on refereed abstract

Types of Proceedings Papers: In this Proceedings, papers are presented in alphabetical order by author's last name in each of four sections:

- Full Research Papers
- Working Papers
- Poster Papers
- Abstracts

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POSTER PAPERS

ABSTRACTS

Full Research Papers

A STUDY OF EXPERIENCE IN USING TRAVEL WEBSITES

Chen-Hsiung Chou
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ABSTRACT

Plenty of travel enterprises, such as airlines companies, hotel chains, travel agencies have created the websites providing their services, products, and travel information directly for customers through internet. Consumers nowadays have got familiar with using internet to find the knowledge, services, and traveling packages when they need that information. The purpose of this study is trying to investigate the difference experience of using travel websites between genders. The research methodology adopts the quantitative research and the participants are 104 students from Taiwan Hospitality and Tourism College (THTC). The instrument is designed by author and gets with the totally Cranach's alpha value of 0.89, so that the instrument is a valuable tool for real testing of users' attitude in using traveling website. The finding of survey shows there is a statistically significant correlation in factor 1, ability of using computer, between genders. The study can refer to a result that female and male has significantly different on using computer. Therefore, for the future studies, researches may focus on this gap.

KEYWORDS: Travel information; Travel website; Using attitudes; Using concerns

INTRODUCTION

The travel has some motivations relating to education, culture, business, leisure, and so forth (Sheldon, 1997). Tourism industry generates large amount of information to communicate, process, and organize the supply of enterprises and demand of customers. The airlines alone process on average 25 transactions per net booking (Amadeus International, 1994). Accordingly, information technology (IT) has an important function to process the unique characteristics of tourism industry for enhance the efficiency between travelers, companies, and travel agencies. Buhalis (2003) also indicated that "information and communication technology enhance the ability of organizations to manage their resources, increase their productivity, communicate their policies and market their offerings, and develop partnerships with all their stakeholders, namely consumers, suppliers, public sector organizations, interest groups, etc."

Plenty of travel enterprises, such as airlines companies, hotel chains, travel agencies have created the websites providing their services, product, and travel information directly for customers through internet. Consumers nowadays have got familiar with using internet to find the knowledge, service, and traveling packages when they need this kind of information. Once customers get the enough data and recognize a need and solution, they will make a decision to approach the desire of their traveling planes (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999).

After customers recognized their traveling demand, they will probably need to do a pre-purchase information search. Crotts (1999) created a model of pre-purchase information search (Figure 1). The internal information could be a searching from an individual's long-term memory which has got from marketing stimuli. If individual can not get apropos information to make a decision, he/she will begin the "external information search", which includes personal (advice from friends or relatives), marketer-dominated (brochures, advertisements, or media), neutral (travel clubs, travel guides, and travel agents), and experiential sources (inspections, pre-purchase visits, or store contacts). Many researchers consider that "Internet" is a fifth uniquely interactive source. Hence, the purpose of this study is trying to investigate the difference experience of using travel websites between genders on factors such as abilities on using computer, attitude on buying travel products, on lone safety issue, and travel information retrieving. The study results might be a reference for future studies in the travel online business and for improving the website services for costumers.

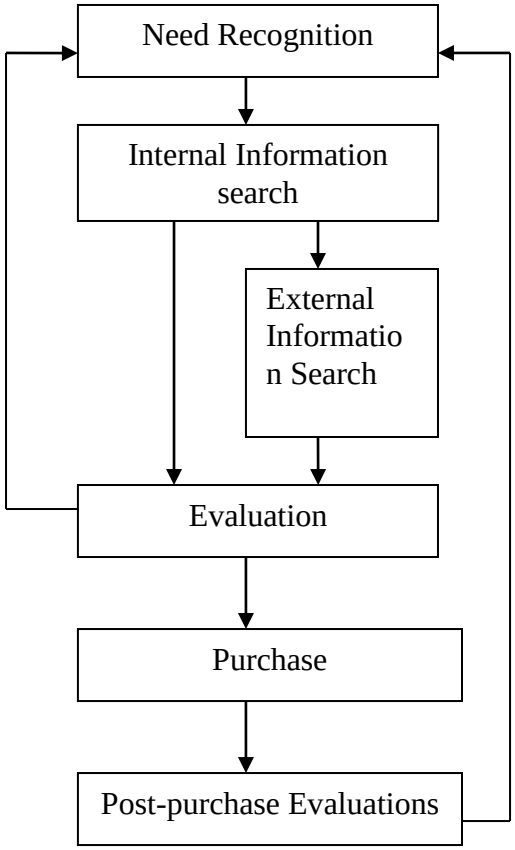


Figure 1: A Model of Pre-purchase Information Search

(Quote from Crotts (1999) p.153)

METHODOLOGY AND INSTRUMENT

The instrument is using Liker scale to design twenty questions. When designing the questions, there is an attempt to involve four factors that contain capacities of using

website, booking experience, information retrieving, and safety issue into the survey. After finished the design the questionnaire (quoted beneath the references), the conduct of survey was held in library and student union of the Taiwan Hospitality and Tourism College (THTC) in Taiwan during the May of 2011.

Totally one hundred and four (104) valid questionnaires had been done during this process. After retrieving those data, keying the code into computer, SPSS is the statistic software to process the data.

ANALYSIS OF SURVEY

The frequency analysis shows the total number of data is 104 people. Female is 55 people, and 49 male (Figure 2). The range of age is between 17 and 23 years old.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female-1	55	52.88	52.88	52.88
	Male-2	49	47.12	47.12	100.0
	Total	104	100.0	100.0	
Total		100	100.0		

Figure 2: Frequency Analysis

Factor Analysis

In the factor analysis, the result can be divided in to five factors. Factor 1~ Ability of using computer (Q1, Q2, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q8, and Q16) is about capacities of using website and computer. Factor 2~ Experience of using travel website (Q12, Q13, and Q14) is experience to book a tourism services or products from websites. Factor 3~ Attitude of buying product-travel packages and so on (Q7, Q11, Q15, and Q19) is the attitude of purchasing traveling package or ticket from websites other than from travel agents. Factor 4~ Safety issue (Q17, Q18, and Q20) is the safety issue purchasing travel services from websites. The final factor~ Method of getting travel information (Q9 and Q10) is the preference method of getting travel information. The “Scree Plot“(Figure 3) shows the factors’ tread, and “Rotated Component Matrix (a)” table indicates the items of factors (Table 1).

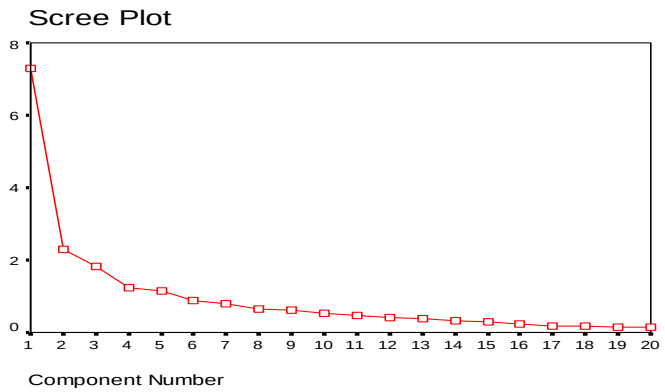


Figure 3: Scree Plot

Table1: Rotated component matrix (a)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Q3	.853	.055	.076	.219	.012
Q5	.850	.117	.074	.198	.046
Q1	.830	.128	-.096	.192	-.009
Q4	.760	-.129	.383	.123	.050
Q2	.690	.188	.153	-.174	.226
Q6	.591	.352	.023	.330	.221
Q8	.552	.324	.135	.222	.305
Q16	.548	.542	-.014	.216	.114
Q12	-.031	.748	.149	.101	.224
Q13	.157	.703	.174	.302	.224
Q14	.293	.668	.188	.023	-.108
Q19	.059	.117	.777	.156	.085
Q7	.246	.081	.695	.127	.433
Q15	-.041	.489	.639	.091	-.265
Q11	.168	.312	.505	.210	-.278
Q20	.188	.122	.183	.850	.108
Q18	.267	.211	.207	.810	.091
Q17	.383	.384	.142	.442	-.116
Q9	.208	.010	-.100	.138	.836
Q10	.042	.180	.119	.006	.832

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Reliability Analysis

After analyzing these factors, the reliabilities of totally 20 questions (Table 2). The Cronbach's alpha of the instruction is .90. Moreover, the analysis other five factors' reliability are showing in Table 3 to Table 7. The outputs of result are quoted beneath.

Table 2: Reliability Analysis of Twenty Items

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	77.7404	106.6989	10.3295	20

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	73.4519	95.6676	.5891	.8923
Q2	73.7692	93.1695	.5249	.8952
Q3	73.2981	95.4346	.6590	.8907
Q4	73.6250	95.2269	.5862	.8923
Q5	73.4904	94.5242	.6772	.8899
Q6	73.6154	94.9380	.6933	.8898
Q7	74.2212	96.6594	.5509	.8934
Q8	73.7019	96.0753	.6721	.8907
Q9	74.2019	100.1627	.3121	.9001
Q10	74.5769	99.7999	.3089	.9006
Q11	73.9904	99.6213	.3838	.8978
Q12	74.1923	100.0792	.4129	.8969

Table 3: Reliability analysis of factor 1~ Ability of using computer

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	33.5096	29.8057	5.4595	8

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	29.2212	22.6594	.7513	.8783
Q2	29.5385	21.7267	.5975	.9001
Q3	29.0673	22.8595	.7973	.8751
Q4	29.3942	23.1538	.6488	.8880
Q5	29.2596	22.2912	.8256	.8716
Q6	29.3846	23.7924	.6670	.8864
Q8	29.4712	24.4069	.6397	.8890
Q16	29.2308	24.3346	.6181	.8905

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 104.0 N of Items = 8

Alpha = .8978

Table 4: Reliability analysis of factor 2~ Experience of using travel website

```
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

Statistics for       Mean   Variance    Std Dev  Variables
      SCALE       10.9423     4.0161     2.0040          3


Item-total Statistics

               Scale          Scale      Corrected
               Mean         Variance       Item-           Alpha
             if Item        if Item       Total          if Item
             Deleted        Deleted    Correlation        Deleted

Q12            7.3942         2.1829        .5942           .5631
Q13            7.2885         1.6830        .6514           .4568
Q14            7.2019         2.2598        .3819           .8031



Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =    104.0                   N of Items =  3

Alpha =    .7121
```

Table 5: Reliability analysis of factor 3~ Attitude of buying product

```
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******
_
  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

                                                  N of
Statistics for       Mean   Variance    Std Dev  Variables
      SCALE       14.3750     6.1201     2.4739          4


Item-total Statistics

               Scale          Scale      Corrected
               Mean         Variance       Item-           Alpha
             if Item        if Item       Total          if Item
             Deleted        Deleted    Correlation        Deleted

Q7            10.8558         3.8334        .4607           .6790
Q11           10.6250         3.9454        .4473           .6858
Q15           10.7596         3.8154        .5421           .6318
Q19           10.8846         3.4817        .5661           .6129



Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =    104.0                   N of Items =  4

Alpha =    .7156
```

Table 6: Reliability analysis of factor 4~ Safety issue

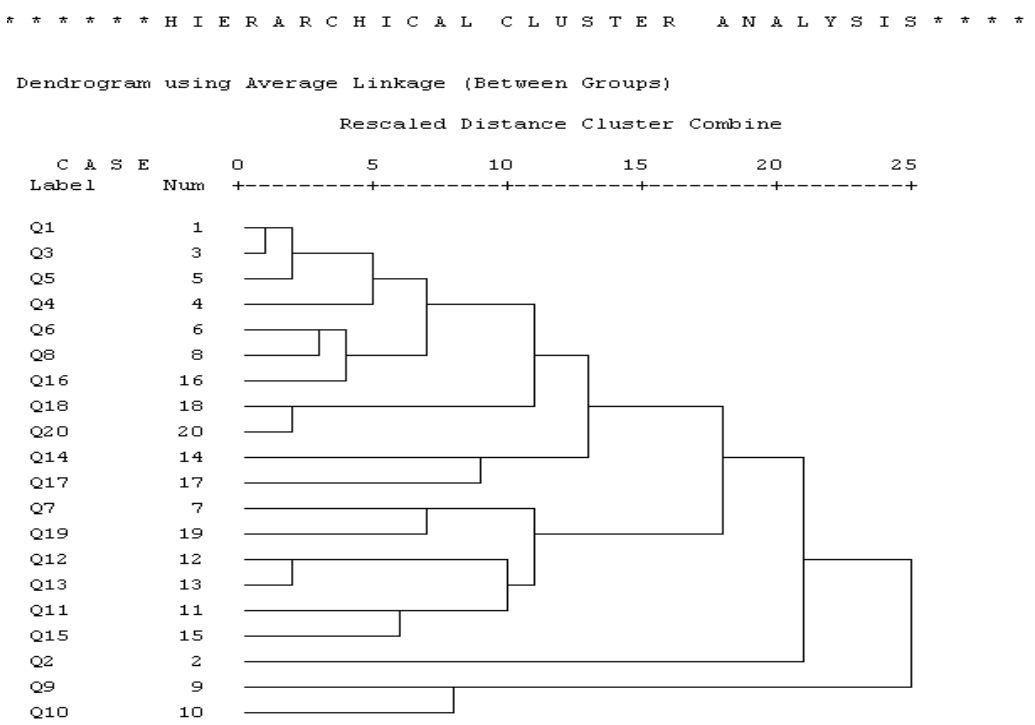
```
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)
                                          N of
Statistics for       Mean   Variance    Std Dev  Variables
      SCALE       12.2115     5.2364     2.2883          3

Item-total Statistics

               Scale          Scale      Corrected
               Mean         Variance       Item-            Alpha
              if Item        if Item       Total           if Item
              Deleted        Deleted    Correlation        Deleted

Q17            8.1827         2.8692        .5016           .8449
Q18            8.1731         2.4358        .8067           .5352
Q20            8.0673         2.4129        .6125           .7385


Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =    104.0                   N of Items =  3

Alpha =    .7891
```

Table 7: Reliability analysis of factor 5~ Method of getting travel information

```
****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******
  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)
                                             N of
Statistics for       Mean   Variance    Std Dev  Variables
      SCALE        6.7019     2.8520     1.6888          2

Item-total Statistics

               Scale          Scale      Corrected
               Mean         Variance       Item-            Alpha
              if Item        if Item       Total           if Item
              Deleted        Deleted    Correlation        Deleted

Q9             3.1635          .9342        .6145           .
Q10            3.5385          .8335        .6145           .

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =    104.0                   N of Items =  2

Alpha =    .7604
```

Cluster analysis

The cluster analysis identified three main factors, with one of the factors easily divisible into three, for five factors, which validated the prior identification.



After compare those alpha data, the summary of those factors can be made as table 8. Since the Comba's alpha values are between 0.90 and 0.71, the reliability of the instrument can be accepted. However, the factor three and four lack for enough questions, the Comba's alpha values are just 0.72. Yet, if the survey tries to increase the questions for these two factors. The alpha value can be increased.

Table 8: Summary of factors

	N of Items	Comba Alpha
Whole instrument	20	.8989
Fac. 1 (1,2,3,4,5,6,8,16)---Ability of using computer	8	.8978
Fac. 2 (12, 13, 14)---Experience of using travel website	3	.7121
Fac. 3 (7, 11,15,19)--- Attitude of buying product	4	.7156
Fac. 4 (17, 18, 20)--- Safety issue	3	.7891
Fac. 5 (9, 10)--- Method of getting travel information	2	.7604

Correlation Analysis

In the correction analysis, there is a statistically significant in factor 1, ability of using computer, between female and male. The P value is -.201 in .05 levels. The ability of using computer is statistically significant between genders from this investigation. Also, the correlations table shows that the statistically significant between factor1, ability of using computer, and factor 2, experience of using travel website, (P value is -.313 in .001 level), and between factor 1 and factor 3, attitude of buying product (P value is -.392 in .001 level) (Table 9). The statistical outcome shows that users' computer capacities could affect their experience of using travel website, and attitude of purchasing the travelling products from websites.

Table 9: Correlations

Correlations

		SEX	REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1	REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	REGR factor score 1 for analysis 3
SEX	Pearson Correlation	1	-.201(*)	.028	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.041	.777	.865
	N	104	104	104	104
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1	Pearson Correlation	-.201(*)	1	.313(**)	.392(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	.	.001	.000
	N	104	104	104	104
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Pearson Correlation	.028	.313(**)	1	-.004
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.777	.001	.	.966
	N	104	104	104	104
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 3	Pearson Correlation	-.017	.392(**)	-.004	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.865	.000	.966	.
	N	104	104	104	104

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

ANOVA Analysis

The factors of the survey are analyzed by one-way ANOVA in SPSS to explore the statistical result where then compared to female and male. The factor 1, ability of using computer is showed statistically significant between female and male (F= 8.017, sig. = .006). This outcome could refer to that two genders are both using computer in their daily life, but they could have different capacities and abilities of computer.

Table 10 ANOVA analysis

ANOVA

				Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 4	Between Groups	(Combined)		7.506	1	7.506	8.017	.006
		Linear Term	Unweighted	7.506	1	7.506	8.017	.006
			Weighted	7.506	1	7.506	8.017	.006
	Within Groups			95.494	102	.936		
	Total			103.000	103			
REGR factor score 2 for analysis 4	Between Groups	(Combined)		.628	1	.628	.626	.431
		Linear Term	Unweighted	.628	1	.628	.626	.431
			Weighted	.628	1	.628	.626	.431
	Within Groups			102.372	102	1.004		
	Total			103.000	103			
REGR factor score 3 for analysis 4	Between Groups	(Combined)		.352	1	.352	.349	.556
		Linear Term	Unweighted	.352	1	.352	.349	.556
			Weighted	.352	1	.352	.349	.556
	Within Groups			102.648	102	1.006		
	Total			103.000	103			
REGR factor score 4 for analysis 4	Between Groups	(Combined)		1.013	1	1.013	1.013	.316
		Linear Term	Unweighted	1.013	1	1.013	1.013	.316
			Weighted	1.013	1	1.013	1.013	.316
	Within Groups			101.987	102	1.000		
	Total			103.000	103			
REGR factor score 5 for analysis 4	Between Groups	(Combined)		.830	1	.830	.829	.365
		Linear Term	Unweighted	.830	1	.830	.829	.365
			Weighted	.830	1	.830	.829	.365
	Within Groups			102.170	102	1.002		
	Total			103.000	103			

SUMMARY

This paper is trying to understand the different using attitudes and experience of travel websites between genders. There are 104 THTC students participated this research and finished the survey. The instrument gets with the totally Cranach's alpha value of 0.89, so that tool of study can be a valuable tool for real testing of users' attitude in using traveling website.

The survey's finding shows there is a statistically significant correlation in factor 1, Ability of using computer, between genders. The study can refer to a result that female and male has significantly different on using computer. Therefore, for the future studies, researches may focus on the effect of this gap. Since the factor 1 can affect fact 2, and factor 3, so that travel website designers could have more ideas to create a suitable website for different genders.

Also, in one-way ANOVA analysis, the result shows that compared by sex, factor 1 is statistically significant as well. This is the other prove for the diverse between female and male on computer capacities.

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THE SHADLESS SHADFEST: SHAD FESTIVALS SUFFER FROM RESOURCE DEPLETION

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ABSTRACT

This research explored the mix of elements at shad festivals along the Eastern Seaboard of the United States through the lens of the Venn diagram of sustainability in order to better understand their current status. American shad stocks are at all-time lows and the fish are virtually absent from Atlantic rivers such as the Delaware and the Hudson. However, many riparian communities where shad was once the economic and cultural mainstay still hold shad festivals, but in response to shad resource depletion, some organizers have either dropped the word "shad" from the name of the festival or have continued the event as a shadless shad festival. Others have stopped the tradition altogether or put the festival on hiatus. For those active festivals, using the name "shad" as a naming tool undoubtedly invokes nostalgia for the species and lends a historical framing to these events, but they often lack socio-cultural elements related to the "celebration" of shad or environmental elements reinforcing the "conservation" of shad, which questions their authenticity. A threat revealed by this research is the looming economic instability of two of the three festivals studied. Ideally, future financial sponsors acquired to shore up festival economics (business pillar of sustainability), will also support or bolster the celebration (cultural pillar) and conservation (natural pillar) of shad. But currently, since shad festivals are inextricably tied to the health of the shad fishery, shad resource depletion, coupled with an imbalance of festival elements, call their future into question.

KEYWORDS: American shad, authenticity, festivals, resource depletion, sustainable tourism

INTRODUCTION

American shad (*Alosa sapidissima)* is the largest member of the herring family of anadromous fish that return to their natal river to spawn. Its historical range along the East Coast of the United States is from Maine to Florida. American shad spend most of their life at sea along the Atlantic coast and enter freshwater as adults in the spring to spawn. Most young emigrate from their natal rivers or coastal waters during their first year of life. As juveniles, they move offshore into the ocean, where they spend in majority of their lives. When they mature in four to six years, they retrace their path to spawn in their natal rivers. American shad stocks are river-specific; that is, each major tributary along the Atlantic coast appears to have a discrete spawning stock (ASMFC, 2010:iii-iv).

Shad's moniker of the "founding fish" refers to the fact that shad played a role in the founding of America. The American shad fishery was vitally important to such seminal American figures as George Washington, who was a commercial shad fisherman (Herring Alliance, 2012), and Henry David Thoreau. During the American Revolution, the spring shad run saved George Washington's troops camped along the Schuylkill River "when a pole could not be thrust into the river without a striking fish" (Wildes, 1938).

Historic threats to shad are usually tied to water pollution. For example, the Delaware River shad fishery first collapsed in the late 1800s from overfishing, pollution and environmental degradation (Remer, 2002), does not appear to be recovering to acceptable levels (ASMFC, 2010) and is trending toward unsustainable population levels. The plight of the Hudson River shad fishery is a reoccurring "story of respite, rebuild, over-harvest, and collapse (Hattala & Kahnle 1997)." Shad fishing on the Hudson was very important historically, but is no longer a legal activity. A key modern threat for shad is "accidental catch" in the ocean by mid-water trawlers fishing for Atlantic herring, mackerel, and squid (Herring Alliance, 2012). Thus, water pollution and overfishing of shad are two key factors contributing to resource depletion.

Collapsing or disappearing stocks of wild shad have had its impact on shad festivals. While some are still going strong, such as the Grifton Shad Festival in Grifton, North Carolina, which has access to wild (and farmed) shad stocks, allowing organizers to offer attendees many shad-related activities, others have either dropped shad from their name or kept the title despite little physical connection to shad, celebrating more the annual shad run or the advent of nice spring weather than shad itself. In the 1980s, there were around thirty active shad festivals along the East Coast of the United States, ranging from Maine to North Carolina, but that number has dwindled to about fifteen. The dates of these festivals range(d) from early April in the southern destinations to mid-June in the north, marching north in sync with the spring shad migration from April 1–July 1.

The author's chance viewing of a poster in the Philadelphia subway advertising the 2010 Fishtown Shad Fest and subsequent attendance fostered a desire to pursue research on this topic. One of the key things that piqued the author's interest was that although a food vendor sign advertised the sale of a "Hickory Smoked Delaware Bay Shad Sandwich," the shad was sourced from North Carolina and was delivered to the festival site by a local fish distributor, thus was not sourced from the Delaware Bay or River. But the sign was misleading. Secondly, an arts and crafts activity for kids to create "shad" rubbings substituted a jackfish, which is a cheap saltwater fish from Florida, for shad. This seeming lack of authenticity inspired further research by the author at three 2011 festivals.

LITERTURE REVIEW

At its root, the name of product, such as a festival, is an important sign or signpost and societal marker (MacCannell, 1976:44). Hence, steps should be taken to engender or encourage the choice of appropriate naming. From a socio-cultural perspective, the

importance of proper naming is tied to the universal and seminal power and role of naming and naming systems for people and places (Tooker, 1984; Basso, 1996) in cultures around the world. Just as birth (and subsequent naming) is considered a key human rite of passage, the appropriate naming a site, attraction or event is the first step towards resultant visitation. According to tourism scholar Dean MacCannell, the naming phase, or 'marking' a site, is an important initial step toward 'site sacralization' (MacCannell, 1976), which has also been interpreted as "resource identification" (Pearce, Morrison & Moscardo, 2003). Secondly, the celebration of something is implied in the word "festival." Since shad has been eaten along the Eastern seaboard of the United States for centuries, the species is naturally thought of as a food commodity. With a growing interest in food and wine festivals (Hall & Sharples, 2008), it makes good sense to consider the genre for development, but using the name of the species in the festival name could lead consumers to believe that shad would be available for consumption. The authenticity or staged authenticity of shad festivals should also be considered (Chhabra, Healy, & Sills, 2003; Gable & Handler, 1996; MacCannell, 1973).

In order to achieve sustainable tourism, the activity of tourism must be economically, environmentally and socio-culturally feasible (Choi & Sirakaya; 2005). Mirroring the concept of sustainable development (Bramwell & Lane, 1993), the concept of sustainability consistently draws from three pillars: Economics (business or financial environment), environmental (physical and natural environment), and socio-cultural (cultural and built environment). While the economics of events are important, as festivals must be profitable to remain economical or financial feasibility (Fyall and Garrod, 1998), sustainability principles should be employed to ensure that heritage assets are carefully managed for future generations, visitor expectations are satisfied, their impact of the destination is managed, all without compromising the authenticity of the visitor experience itself. The potential role and impact of festivals in regional development is not all about economics (Moscardo, 2008).

Lastly, the future of festivals tied to or inspired by native species are intrinsically impacted by resource depletion, which threatens environmental feasibility, and thus, overall sustainability. In addition to shad, there are countless examples of wildlife tourism that is dependent on the health of the target resource include elephants and other African wildlife for safaris, whale watching (Orams, 2003) and polar bears (Lemelin, Dawson, Stewart, Maher & Lueck, 2010), just to name a few. The bottom line is that native species such as shad are "common pool resources" (Briassoulis, 2002) that need to be both preserved and shared for any related tourism to occur, especially sustainable tourism.

METHOD

This research explored the mix of festival elements through the lens of the Venn diagram of sustainability at five shad festivals: the 2nd and 3rd annual Fishtown Shadfest held April 24, 2010 and April 23, 2011, respectively, the 30th and 31st annual Shad Festival in the town of Lambertville, New Jersey, held April 30, 2011 and April 29, 2012, respectively, and the 22nd annual Riverkeeper Shad Fest on May 15, 2011. These

particular festivals were chosen due to their proximity to Philadelphia, unique character, historical significance and age of the event.

The Fishtown Shad Fest (est. 2009) and was inspired by the Fishtown neighborhood of Philadelphia due to its strong historical and cultural heritage ties to shad. During the Colonial Period, the Schuylkill River was considered the richest shad fishing ground in the Philadelphia region, but the construction of dams without migratory fishways at the towns of Shawmont and Reading in 1818 and the Fairmont Dam in 1820 in Philadelphia, completely blocked upstream movement of migratory fishes (Perillo & Butler, 2009). After the damning of the Schuylkill, the Fishtown neighborhood on the Delaware River became home to the Philadelphia's shad fisheries and fishing families. Shad fishing on the Delaware reached its peak in the late nineteenth-century, a time when Fishtown families controlled 30 fisheries along a 100-mile stretch of the Delaware, but collapsed in the late 1800s. The Fishtown Shad Fest is hosted by the Friends of Penn Treaty Park, the historic site on the Delaware River where William Penn signed a peace treaty with the Delaware (Lenni Lenape) Indians in 1683, and is organized by New Kensington Community Development Commission and the Fishtown Area Business Association (FABA).

The Lambertville Shad Fest (est. 1981) takes place in downtown Lambertville, New Jersey, which is located on the Delaware River about 80 miles north of Philadelphia, and is sponsored by the Lambertville Area Chamber of Commerce. While returning shad numbers in the Delaware River are too low to allow extensive commercial fishing along most of its course, the Lewis family of Lambertville, which has been fishing for shad on the Delaware for four generations, has the sole remaining shad fishing license above Delaware's tidewater. Lewis Island, which is usually connected to the downtown area by a small wooden bridge, is the headquarters of this historical fishery that celebrated its 125th season in 2012. Lambertville's longtime connection with shad was immortalized in *The Founding Fish* by Pulitzer Prize-winning author John McPhee (McPhee, 2003).

The Riverkeeper Shad Festival (1990–2011) was organized by Riverkeeper, a nonprofit organization with the mission to "protect the environmental, recreational and commercial integrity of the Hudson River and its tributaries, and safeguard the drinking water of nine million New York City residents (Riverkeeper, 2012)." It started off as a backyard barbeque held at the home of Robert F. Kennedy Jr., an advocate of protecting the environmental and cultural status of the Hudson Valley and environs, but as it grew in size, it was eventually moved to Boscobel House and Gardens overlooking the Hudson at Garrison, New York. Through 2011, Kennedy hosted the festival and gave out community service awards in relation to preserving the Hudson Valley and River. As of 2012, the Riverkeeper Shad Festival has been replaced with a new event entitled Riverkeeper Sweep, a day of service to help clean up the Hudson (see Appendix A following paper references).

In addition to extensive on-the-ground observations during all four festivals, communication with festivals organizers, documentation of vendor participation and photographic archiving, an invitation to take a survey was offered to festival attendees

that passed the researcher's table during the 2011 Fishtown and Riverkeeper festivals. Surveys at the 2012 Lambertville festival were conducted among attendees who made their way down to Lewis Island, the site of the shad seining demonstration at 1PM on both Saturday and Sunday (Figure 6), as well as steamboat rides on the Delaware.

In open-ended questions, respondents were asked to identify their main inspiration for attending their respective festivals, what shad-related activities they hoped, if any, to do or observe, and what three words come to mind when they hear the word "shad." Respondents were asked to identify the image of a shad from a lineup of four common fish (i.e., shad, carp, trout and catfish) and to indicate their perception of the "health of the shad fisheries in the local river(s)." The survey also collected traditional demographics. Quantitative data collected was analyzed with SPSS 19 and Stata.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

Vendor types

From the on-the-ground observations, a pattern of vendor types was detected. The vendors fell into four categories that roughly coordinate with aspects of the Venn diagram of sustainability: celebration and community (socio-cultural), conservation (environmental), and commercialization (economic), with commercialization, and thus, activities related to the economics of the festival, being by far the biggest category. Both venues included an additional festival element of a band, which would be considered a "community" element.

Table 1: Distribution of vendor types at three 2011 shad festivals

Venue	Celebration	Community	Conservation	Commercialization
Fishtown	0	11	0	59
Lambertville	8	28	2	109
Riverkeeper	0	5	2	22
Total	8	43	2	189

Fishtown Shad Fest

An arts and crafts table for children to make fish prints (rubbings) at the 2011 Fishtown Shad Fest used a porgie for the activity instead of a shad. But unlike 2010, this year the activity was not inaccurately advertised as "shad rubbings." The 2011 Fishtown "community" elements included booths sponsored by the New Kensington Community Development Corporation, Friends of Penn Treaty Park, I-95 Girard Avenue Interchange Project, the Bicycle Coalition of Greater Philadelphia, and advocates against fracking in Pennsylvania to obtain oil from shale. "Commercialization" elements include many booths selling jewelry, T-shirts and several food vendors. In 2010, one food booth had advertised a "Hickory Smoked Delaware Bay Shad Sandwich" for sale even though the vendor confirmed that their shad was sourced from North Carolina, not the Delaware Bay or River (see Figure 1) as their food placard indicated. In 2011, the same vendor had

replaced shad sandwiches with salmon sandwiches (see Figure 2). There were no shad "conservation" booths at the 2011 Fishtown Shad Fest, making it a shadless shad fest.

Figure 1, 2 & 3: 2010 Fishtown Shadfest food booth selling "Hickory Smoked Delaware Bay Shad Sandwiches (left), but shad was sourced from North Carolina; in 2011 the same vendor was selling Silverhead salmon sandwiches (center); in 2012 a new food vendor sold deep-fried shad croquets and patties sourced from North Carolina (right).

Lambertville Shadfest

Attendance at both the 2011 and 2012 Lambertville Shadfest ranged from 35–40K. The 2011 Lambertville Shadfest included many shad "celebration" elements, including a shad cookbook for sale, a demonstration by Susan McLellan Plaisted of the Historic Foodways Programs on Colonial-era shad planking, a Native American re-enactor who discussed the history of shad in the Delaware River Basin, a shad poster contest sponsored by the First Presbyterian Church helped fund art education, No. 9 Restaurant demonstrated traditional preparations for shad and shad roe to eager onlookers who got samples (see Figure 4), shopkeepers windows decorated with shad-shaped creations and an artist making shad rubbings (see Figure 5) in a Japanese style. A local school sold Mardi Gras-style fish-shaped "shad" necklaces as a fundraiser. While the Lambertville festival had its share of jewelry and T-shirt vendors, several vendors sold "blackened shad" sandwiches (although the shad had been sourced from North Carolina). Although the shad fishery and Lewis Island was closed due to high flood waters that had washed out the bridge to the island, a booth discussing the history and importance of the Lewis Island shad fishery (est. 1771) was set up in the parking lot near the former bridge to the island. Thus, with multiple shad elements, the Lambertville was not a shadless shad festival, but due to resource depletion of the local river, coupled with inclement weather, most of the shad available to attendees was sourced from North Carolina. In 2012, the downtown festivities included the same mix of vendors as 2011, but also included two conservation groups, the Herring Alliance and Delaware River Basin Commission, who set up their tables on Lewis Island.

Overall economic impact of the Lambertville festival included lodgings filled to capacity, busy restaurants, shops and galleries. "The Shad Fest is a big infomercial for Lambertville," (personal communication with Ellen Pineno, Shad Fest Coordinator, August 15, 2012) that inspires people to come back throughout the year. But the festivals current commercialization, "costs like police and Department of Public Works rise each year and make the Shad Fest an increasingly difficult event to sustain" and "the survival of this award-winning event that is listed in the Local Legacies archive in the Library of

Congress will depend upon corporate sponsorship" (personal communication with Ellen Pineno, Shad Fest Coordinator, August 15, 2012).

Figures 4, 5, & 6: Shad roe tasting (left), in 2011; buck shad rubbing by artist David Denick (center), in 2011; Lewis Fishery seining for shad in the Delaware River (right), in 2012.

Riverkeeper Shad Fest

The 2011 Riverkeeper Shadfest was a smaller festival with an estimated 300 attendees and fewer commercial vendors and booths. What made this festival different was the "sustainable" focus of the vendors who had been handpicked by the organizers for the event and the connection to the iconic figure of Robert F. Kennedy, Jr. Although no shad was served at the festival or did the festivities include other shad "celebration" elements, it did include a "conservation" element in the form the Riverkeeper Learning Center that explained the life cycle of shad, imparted information about the health of the Hudson, and displayed life-size models of shad. However, the 2011 Riverkeeper Shad Festival and Hudson River Celebration was virtually a shadless shad fest.

Survey respondent demographics

The age range of Fishtown (F) respondents varied from 23–70 (μ = 38.98), the age of Riverkeeper (R) respondents ranged from 19–69 (μ = 44.34), and the age of Lambertville (L) respondents ranged from 16–78 (μ = 48.67). The vast majority of respondents at both festivals were white (F = 91.7%; R = 86.1%).

Attendance inspiration and shad activities

Only one Fishtown respondent mentioned "shad" as the main reason for attending the 2011 festival. The two most mentioned reasons were spending time with "friends" and "music." Only 11 out of 48 respondents mentioned that they hoped to do or observe shad-related activities, but 8 of the 11 mentioned they had hoped to eat shad. Only 2 of the 36 Riverkeeper respondents mentioned "shad" in their reasons for attending the festival, such as "to support the recovery of shad and inspire my girlfriend to do to the same!" The most mentioned reason was to "support Riverkeeper." Only four Riverkeeper respondents mentioned "shad" in what they hoped to do at the event, but 2 of the 4 mentioned they had hoped to eat shad. Conversely, 40% of the Lambertville respondents (19 out of 48) mentioned they either hoped to watch the "netting" or "seining" of shad at Lewis Island and/or hoped to eat shad during the festival.

Shad identification

Respondents were asked to identify shad from a lineup of detailed paintings of shad, carp, trout and catfish downloaded from the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Services photo gallery. Sixty-five percent of the Fishtown attendees correctly identified shad, compared to 36 percent of the Riverkeeper attendees (see Table 2). After converting the nominal variable to a dichotomous variable (yes = 1; no = 0), an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the level of correct identification of shad by Fishtown and Riverkeeper festival attendees. There was a statistically significant difference between number of correct identifications between Fishtown attendees (M = .65, SD = .483) and Riverkeeper attendees (M = .36, SD = .487); t(82) = 2.663, p = 0.009. A similar result was found when comparing Fishtown and Lambertville identifications, but there was no statistical difference between Fishtown and Lambertville correct responses. One suggested explanation for Riverkeeper attendees not being able to accurately identify shad as well as Fishtown or Lambertville attendees could be that the both Fishtown and Lambertville attendees had a stronger connection to shad due to longtime association of the species with the neighborhood or town where the festival was held.

Table 2: Fishtown, Riverkeeper and Lambertville shad festival attendee fish identification

ID	Venue	Shad	Carp	Trout	Catfish	% Correct
1	Fishtown (n=46)	31	14	1	0	64.6
2	Riverkeeper (n=35)	13	8	9	5	36.1
3	Lambertville (n=47)	36	9	1	1	77.0

Sustainability of shad population

Respondents were asked to indicate their understanding of the "health of the shad fisheries in the local river(s)" with a Likert scale ranging from 1 = Not healthy (i.e., unsustainable population level) to 7 = Healthy (i.e., sustainable population level). An independent samples t-test revealed that there was no significant difference between the Fishtown (M = 2.85; SD = 1.53) Riverkeeper (M = 2.28; SD = 1.42) respondents on the perception of the shad fisheries health t(82) = 1.759, p = 0.082. Conversely, there was a significant difference on the heath of the Fishtown (M = 2.85; SD = 1.53) shad fishery and Lambertville (M = 4.06; SD = 1.70), t(94) = (-3.653), p = .000, with the Lambertville respondents describing the Delaware as "neither unsustainable or sustainable." As a whole, respondents accurately perceived both the Delaware and Hudson River American shad stocks are either not healthy or trending toward "unsustainable." This is congruent with data that between 1998 and 2007 only the Potomac and York Rivers on the East Coast showed an increase in American shad populations (Herring Alliance, 2012). However, this did not seem to dampen the enthusiasm for attending the festival.

CONCLUSION

This nascent research suggests that the present character and future of shad festivals along the Eastern Seaboard of the United States are intimately and inextricably

tied to the health of the shad fishery in the local waters. While one could over criticize and call into question the authenticity of shadless (or virtually shadless) shad festivals, with so many disappearing or threatened, it seems far better to embrace the species as a naming tool, over totally abandoning it to oblivion. However, future shad festivals could be engaging vehicles for a sustainable future of the species (and perhaps the festivals themselves) by adopting as their banner and/or mission the celebration and conservation of the species. Ideally, prospective financial sponsors acquired with the hope of shoring up festival economics (business pillar of sustainability), will also support or bolster the celebration (cultural pillar) and conservation (natural pillar) of shad.

To date, the organizers of two shadless shad fests (Fishtown and Riverkeeper) have decided on two different paths forward. The fourth annual Fishtown shad festival on Saturday April 28, 2012 (Fishtown Shadfest, 2012) had about 3,000 attendees. A walking review of the event by the author verified a continued imbalance of vendor type tipped in favor of "commercialization." The only "shad" element was a food vendor selling deep-fried "shad" croquets and patties sourced frozen from North Carolina (see Figure 3). Ironically, despite the focus on "commercialization," the festival organizer confirmed that the 2012 event lost $6K (personal communication with event organizer Kristine Kennedy, August 15, 2012). Thus, this fourth festival was virtually shadless.

However, as revealed by this study, since many Fishtown respondents associated the word "shad" with the local neighborhood, future festivals could capitalize on and strengthen this underlying socio-cultural association. For example, the organizers could partner with the Preservation Alliance of Greater Philadelphia (www.preservationalliance.com) to offer walking tours of Fishtown to show attendees some of the historical community ties to shad, such as the many ornate and beautiful shad-shaped iron railings that adorn the front landings of many Fishtown neighborhood homes. Also, since Fishtown respondents mentioned "food" and "roe" as words that come to mind in relation to "shad," this implies an association with food and a potential for food tourism. Thus, since local sourcing of shad is not available, organizers could continue to source and sell (with proper signage) North Carolina shad. Alternatively, they could explain why local shad is not available, perhaps with an educational brochure that would also serve as a "conservation" element.

Conversely, citing dwindling stocks of shad on the Hudson River, Riverkeeper made the difficult decision to put their shadless Riverkeeper Shad Fest "on hiatus" and shift membership energies to cleaning up the Hudson by creating a new event entitled Riverkeeper Sweep. Riverkeeper "didn't take the decision to put our [festival] on hiatus lightly after 21 years. As you probably know, shad fishing has been suspended on the Hudson due to long-term and significant declines in the stocks, so there are technically no Hudson shad fests anymore—at least not with fish caught in the Hudson" (personal communication with Dan Shapley, Riverkeeper Membership and Events Manager, April 11, 2012). Thus, they have decided to shift focus their focus to addressing the broader and more fundamental issue of shad resource depletion by sponsoring a 2012 spring cleanup of the Hudson River, a riparian system that once supported a healthy shad

population. If these conservation efforts are successful, one can hope to see the reappearance of Hudson River shad along with shad festivals.

While the Lambertville Shad Fest is integrated into the downtown, giving attendees more options to choose from regards dining, entertainment and shopping, as mentioned earlier, this award-winning festival may be in financial trouble despite its past success and "commercialization" from vendors that pay a fee to set up a booth. Also, although this festival had the most "celebration" elements, only a small portion of the food-related "celebration" elements were possible due to a supply of local shad from the Lewis Island fishery. Most of the shad served to festivalgoers was sourced from North Carolina. Thus, despite the clear advantage of having a local working shad fishery, Lambertville organizers might consider adding more "conservation" elements to their festival, such as partnering with Riverkeeper, to bring more awareness to the fragile ecological status of the shad fishery as a whole and expand those conservation elements from the Delaware river into the downtown area that was more foot traffic.

Future research plans include contacting the organizers of all of the known current and past shad festivals along the East Coast to obtain the history and status of the festival, as well as the health of the local shad fishery. This information will be used to update Appendix A and track the festival status.

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APPENDIX A

Historic and current festivals, races and tournaments held in celebration of American shad spawning and migrations from north to south along the Atlantic seaboard, although shad season starts in the south and moves north with spring

EVENT	COMMUNITY	VENUE/SPONSOR	DATE(S)	STATUS
Great American Shad Run	Manchester, NH	Unknown	6/18/2000	Unknown
Connecticut River Museum Shad Festival	Essex, CT	Connecticut River Museum;	5/14/2005 5/20/2006 5/19/2007	Unknown
Connecticut River Shad Bake [www.essexrotary.com/fundraisers/CT-Shad-Bake-Picnic/index.html]	Essex, CT	Essex Elementary School; Essex Rotary Club	6/6/2009	51st annual, Active
Planked Shad Supper	Old Saybrook, CT	Connecticut Freemasons, Siloam Lodge #32	2005	Active?
Shad Derby Festival [www.WindsorShadDerby.org]	Windsor, CT	Shad Fest Bureau, Windsor Jaycees, Chamber of Commerce, Rod and Gun Club, others	Multiple dates in April and May 2012	Began 1954; active
Mystic River Herring Run and Paddle	Somerville, MA	Blessing of the Bay Boathouse; Mystic River Watershed Association	5/20/2012	Active; (16th annual event)
Holyoke Gas and Electric Shad Derby [www.windsorshaddery.html]	Holyoke, MA	Holyoke Gas and Electric Company	5/10/2008-5/18/2008 May 2009	Begun 2003; active
Shad Bake and Native American Technology Day [www.naihrv.org/]	Albany, NY	Corning Preserve; Native American Institute of the Hudson River Valley	5/11/2008 5/16/2009	Active
Shad Festival	Beacon, NY	Unknown	May 1, 1987	Believed to be inactive since 1993
Hudson Day	Bronx, NY	Unknown	6/14/1987	Unknown
Hudson River Shad Festival [www.midhudsonnews.com/Catskill.htm]	Catskill, NY	The Catskill Point; Hudson River Foundation	5/21/2005 5/21/2009	Active
Annual Shad Bake and Country Barbecue [www.clctrust.org/Shad]	Chatham, NY	Columbia Land Conservancy	5/29/2005	Active; but shad dropped from title for 2009
Riverlovers Shadfest [www.riverlovers.org/shadfest.htm]	Croton-on-Hudson, NY	Croton Point Park; Westchester County Parks, Riverlovers, Inc.	5/15/2004 5/20/2007 5/18/2008 5/17/2009	Active

Riverkeeper Shad Festival [shad festival replaced with the Riverkeeper Sweep for 2012]	Historic Boscobel Mansion; Garrison, NY	Riverkeeper [www.riverkeeper.org]; sponsors include Robert F. Kennedy, Jr.	June 2, 2012	Began 1990; last shad festival held in 2011
Rondout Shad Festival [www.hrmm.org/museum/festival.htm]	Kingston, NY	Hudson River Maritime Museum; festival start and end dates confirmed by Allynne Lange, museum curator	5/12/2007	Began 1983; last shad festival took place in 2007
Drums Along the Hudson: A Native American Festival and Shad Fest [www.drumsalongthehudson.org/]	Manhattan, NY	Inwood Hill Park; New York City Department of Parks and Recreation, Lotus Music and Dance, WABC-TV, New York City Department of Cultural Affairs	5/20/2012	Active; but "shad fest" dropped from title in 2009
Shad Festival	Montrose, NY	George's Island Park; Ferry Sloops, Inc.	May 1987 5/16/1993	Unknown
Shad Festival	North Tarrytown, NY	Hudson River Foundation	5/1/1987	Unknown
Nyack Shad Festival, aka Riverfest	Nyack, NY	Nyack Waterfront Park; Hudson River Foundation, Clearwater, Friends of the Nyacks	5/14/2005 5/5/2007	Unknown
Hudson River Festival and Shad Bake	Sparkill, NY	St. Charles A.M.E. Zion Church	4/30/1994 4/30/2005	Unknown
Shad Festival	Yonkers, NY	John Fitzgerald Kennedy Marina; Ferry Sloops, Inc.	4/25/1993	Unknown
Annual Shad Bake	Edgewater, NJ	Veteran' Field; Farrell Huber American Legion Hall Post	6/6/1987	Unknown
Shad Fest http://www.lambertville.org/	Lambertville, NJ	Downtown Lambertville; organized by the Lambertville Area Chamber of Commerce, sponsors include Princeton Automobile Company	4/28/2012-4/29/2012 (31st festival)	Began 1981; active
Hooked on the Hudson [www.stripedbassderby.com/HOH/]	Fort Lee, NJ	Ross Dock Recreation Area; Palisades Interstate Park Commission, Hudson River Fishermen's Association, others	May 1987 5/6/2001 4/25/2009	Active; but no mention of shad in 2009

Bethlehem Shad Festival [mgfx.com/fishing/assocs/drsfa/shadfest.htm]	Bethlehem, PA	18th Century Industrial Area; Delaware River Shad Fishermen's Association	5/5/1996 5/10/1997	Began 1978; Unknown
Forks of the Delaware Shad Fishing Tournament and Festival [http://shadtournament.com]	Easton, PA	Scott Park at the forks of the Delaware and Lehigh Rivers; Rotary	4/28/2012-5/4/2012	Began 1986, 25th anniversary 2011; active
Fishtown Shadfest [http://www.fishtownshadfest.net]	Penn Treaty Park; Philadelphia, PA	Hosted by Friends of Penn Treaty Park; organized by New Kensington Community Development Commission [www.nkcdc.org]; Fishtown Area Business Association [www.fishtownbusiness.com]		Began 2009; active
Nanticoke River Shad Festival [www.nanticokeriver.org/shad%20fest%2009.html]	Vienna, MD	Vienna Waterfront; Chesapeake Bay Foundation, Nanticoke Watershed Alliance, City of Vienna, others	4/25/2009	Began 1995; active
National Casting Call (Shad Fishing) [www.nationalcastingcall.com/]	District of Columbia	Fletcher's Cove; American Fly Fishing Trade Association, National Fish Habitat Action Plan, Association of Fish and Wildlife Agencies, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service	4/27/2009	Active
Annual Shad Planking [http://www.shadplanking.com]	Wakefield, VA	Wakefield Sportsmen's Club; Wakefield Ruritan Club	4/18/2012; (64th annual Shad Planking)	Began 1948; active
Grifton Shad Festival [http://griftonshadfestival.com]	Grifton, NC, the "shad" capital of North Carolina	Town common area and other venues, Town of Grifton, NC	4/17/2012-4/22/2012	Begun 1969; active
Cape Fear River Shad Festival	Riegelwood, NC	Lock and Dam #1, East Arcadia; sponsored by Lower Bladen-Columbus Historical Society	4/7/2012	Active

PREDICTING STUDENTS' SATISFACTION IN COLLEGE-SPONSORED TRAVEL, TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY CAREER FAIR

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the experience of hospitality students who attended a semi-annual career fair at a large university located in the Southeastern part of the United States. The study assesses students' (attendee) attitudes with regards to their perception of the value of attending the career fair and predicts what variables may indicate their level of satisfaction and future potential to attend similar events in the future. The career fair was organized by a student class and sponsored by the College, as well as the career services department on campus. Implications for college career fair event planners, students, and the recruiters are discussed.

KEYWORDS: *Career Fair, Student Assessment, Placement, Hospitality*

INTRODUCTION

The placement of university graduates in positions within the job market has become an important task of career service departments at higher education institutions. The emergence of career services over the past three decades or so has become noticeable and recognized as a vital part of the customer service higher education institutions provides their consumers – the students (McGrath, 2002).

The ability to serve as a liaison between the academic institution, students and employers provides a valuable resource for all stakeholders, including faculty who can incorporate employers into their curriculum. In a survey of career services offices conducted at the turn of the twentieth century, McGrath (2002) concluded that placement of graduates in full-time employment is offered by 90.8% percent of their sampled offices, and this service was offered following the need and desire of both students and employers.

According to Stevens (2005), recruiters are looking for applicants to have excellent communication skills, both written and oral. Recruiters also seek qualified applicants that are able to network successfully (de Janasz and Forret, 2007), either face-to-face or via email. Employers believe that this skill set will allow employees to

succeed within their working environment. Finally, most recruiters are looking for applicants that are professional (Hall and Berardino, 2006). Other important skills for recruiters include the ability to make ethical decisions, dress appropriately, show up to work and meetings on time, participate in professional organizations and limit cell phone use while working. All of these are characteristics that recruiters want in a future employee (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2008).

Recruiters have few options when it comes to finding qualified candidates for internships, part-time and full-time positions. Respondents to the NACE's *Job Outlook 2008* survey rated the top five methods to recruit students to be: on-campus recruiting, organization's internship program, employee referrals, organization's co-op program, and career/job fairs. Less popular methods were: video interviewing, virtual career/job fairs, newspaper advertising (campus and/or local newspapers), Internet banners, and printed recruitment advertising (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2008).

The electronic media has become very popular source for recruiting in the past few years, both for employers and students. Services such as Monster.com and Career Builder screen thousands of online applications received on the company website or by participating in a virtual career fair. Other social media has also become trendy. In a recent study of 300 recruiters conducted by the Reppler organization, a social media monitoring service, it was found that 90% of the employers surveyed report they currently use social networking sites such as Facebook and LinkedIn not only find qualified applicants, but also to screen them based on their online profiles (Reppler, 2012).

Obviously, there are many ways that recruiters can ascertain if an applicant has all of the qualities they are looking for, but one effective way of determining all of the above is by meeting an applicant in person. Face-to-face meetings can be costly and timely, however; participating in a career fair allows a recruiter to see and evaluate many applicants at one time (NAS Recruitment Communications, 2006).

A career fair is a recruiting event designed where job seekers have the ability to meet with multiple employers. Career fairs provide students with the opportunity to learn about various organizations under one roof (Brennan, Daly, Fitzpatrick, & Sweeney, 2004). In addition, career fairs are one method that organizations use to recruit talent to their company (Silkes, Adler, & Phillips, 2010). Recruiters find a financial benefit in participating in face-to-face fairs since they have the opportunity to evaluate many applicants in person, in a brief, dedicated span of time.

Campus recruiting has become more competitive. Attracting students to work in their particular industries and/or locations is the biggest challenge campus recruiters face (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2008). Building their organization's image among candidates who are unfamiliar with the industry and/or unaware of the types of opportunities that exist also requires an ongoing commitment from these employers (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2008).

Furthermore, attracting candidates to specific locations may be an even tougher challenge to meet. Most students express a preference for jobs that are near their hometown or near their college's town. Consequently, employers who require relocation must find other organization attributes that will make them attractive to students (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2008). Successful employers will have to offer a strong job product offering and must be able to adapt their recruitment practices to the needs of new college graduates of Generation Y. (NAS Recruitment Communications, 2006).

Given these circumstances, there is a need to evaluate the recruitment process from a student's perspective, and assess what the current generation needs and wants are at the first encounter with employers during a career fair. This research will enable recruiters to adjust their marketing efforts in their attempt to recruit the best potential employees.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Breaugh & Starke (2000), there is an evidence of increasing body of research in the domain of recruiting. Most of that research has focused on recruitment sources, recruiters and realistic job previews. Many researchers have concluded that we still do not know what the impacts of the various recruitment efforts are. For instance, can one determine if an individual referred by current employees has a lower turnover rate than those recruited via newspaper advertising? Likewise, do recruiters who offer more information about a job make a better impression on job applicants? (Breaugh & Starke, 2000).

In order for career fair planners and recruiters to produce successful events and to successfully recruit the best and finest potential employees for their organization, additional research is needed, from both the consumer (student) and vendor (employers) perspective.

Prior research indicated that career fairs are planned to not only recruit, but also to educate attendees (Reilly, et al., 2007). Career fairs are often used as vehicles to drive attendees to a point of self-efficacy about potential career choices (Kolodinsky et al., 2006). Furthermore, educating college students about career and job possibilities helps enhance their college experience while also assisting them in forming and determining their respective career paths.

Often, it is assumed that students will benefit by merely attending a recruitment or career fair (Payne & Sumter, 2005). Research on student perceptions of career fairs, specifically within the hospitality industry has been limited. On-campus career fairs provide students with the opportunity to explore the current job market, to learn more about prospective companies and different employment possibilities within a particular industry, all in the familiar environment of the College. Career fairs also allow students

to make assumptions about prospective employment organizations as a whole, based on their perception of the recruiter (Breaugh & Starke, 2000).

Clearly, it is important for colleges and universities to host career fairs for their students. According to Silkes, Adler & Phillips (2010), the ability of hospitality programs to adequately prepare students for a career fair can directly affect the students' satisfaction with the university as a whole.

A random online search on academic institutions' career fairs indicates the proliferation of face-to-face career fair held by increasing number of universities and other academic institutions on an annual or bi-annual basis. For example, the Kansas State University has seven scheduled career fairs for 2012 that are specifically geared toward all disciplines from business and hospitality majors to engineering majors (Kansas State University, 2012). Other examples include Purdue University (Purdue University, 2012), Florida State University (Florida State University, 2012), and the University of Massachusetts, where the event is completely student planned and executed by students (University of Massachusetts, 2012).

It is evident by these examples that universities recognize the importance of hosting career fairs for their students, no matter what the student has declared as a major. However, not all academic programs follow up with both students and recruiters on the impact and effectiveness of these career fairs. In some cases, research is conducted, but not necessarily utilized to improve the event in the subsequent semester or year.

University career fair organizers must therefore continue to evaluate their career fairs by conducting evaluations after every fair. Data should be collected from both students and recruiters. That information should then be used to make improvements term after term or year to year. Since there is limited research in the area of career fairs, specifically those that are held in the travel, tourism, and hospitality industry, it is necessary to increase the body of knowledge in this important activity.

The goal of this study was to examine a university career fair career and evaluate the students' experience attending the event. More specifically the study will assess students' (attendee) attitudes with regards to their perception of the value of attending the job career fair and predict what variables may predict their level of satisfaction and future potential to attend similar career fairs.

The study examined the experience of hospitality students who attended a semi-annual career fair at a large university located in the Southeastern part of the United States. The career fair was organized by a student class and sponsored by the College, as well as the career services department on campus.

The results of the study could be beneficial to colleges and universities to enhance their career fair offerings, making them more appealing to students and industry alike. In addition, the results could provide information for recruiters that could be used to develop

innovative marketing strategies to attract more students to their exhibit booths and to maintain future relationships with potential employees.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality College located in an accredited university in the Southeast part of the U.S. The College-sponsored career fair is conducted twice a year in the fall and the spring. The College current enrollment is about 3,000 undergraduate students.

Students completed online surveys at the end of their visit to the career fair, using laptop computers that were displayed on high tables. Students were also sent three reminders by e-mail asking them to respond to the survey. The online survey utilized Qualtrtics (www.qualrtics.com) software and the survey was open up to one week after the end of the career fair. The survey included two qualification questions asking the students if they attended the career fair and then asking them if they were willing to participate in the survey.

The research instrument included 36 multiple choice variables associated with student enrollment characteristics, level of satisfaction and likelihood to attend future career fairs, students' current employment characteristics, importance-performance of career fair attributes, students' career expectations, and demographic characteristics.

RESULTS

The survey yielded 146 online responses, 20 (14%) of which did not attend the career fair and could not continue to complete the survey. Based on student registration records, 573 students attended the career fair. With 123 students having completed the survey, the response rate was approximately 21%.

General Profile of the Respondents

The majority of the respondents (91%) were in the College age group (18-25 years old). Other respondents were in the 26-34 age group (5%) and the 35-54 age group (4%). Gender distribution between males and females was 14% and 86%, respectively.

Current College Experience

Most of the students that attended the career fair were in the junior and senior academic standing. While the College offers a variety of specializations, most of the career fair attendees were in the Hospitality Management generalist track (41%) and the Event Management track (38%). Some students reported dual majors like Hospitality Management generalist track and Event Management or Hospitality Management generalist track and Restaurant Management track.

Almost three-quarters of the students (74%) were either "very satisfied" (46%) or extremely satisfied (28%) with their College education experience. About one-fifth

(19%) were "satisfied" and the remainder of the respondents (7%) were "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" or "dissatisfied" with their College experience.

The majority of the participants in the career fair (78%) worked while attending school. The typical student that attended the career fair works an average of 23.85 hours per week with a standard deviation of 10.89 hours per week. The career fair attendees worked a median of 24 hours per week.

Most of the students work in four major segments of the industry: Food services and restaurants (20%), theme parks and attractions (18%), lodging (15%), and meeting and events (11%). Some students (16%) were not employed in hospitality and tourism related vocations. Based on the respondents' report, these included the retail, health-care, sports, and salon/spa industries. Please note that almost one-fifth of the students (18%) reported that they did not yet know where they would like to work (Table 1).

Table 1:
Tourism and Hospitality Segments Students Currently work in [(a)]

Answer	Response	%
Food services and restaurant industry	21	20%
Theme Park industry	19	18%
I do not know yet	19	18%
Other[(b)]	16	16%
Lodging industry	15	15%
Meeting and Event industry	11	11%
Travel and tourism	2	2%
Vacation Ownership industry	0	0%
Airline industry	0	0%
Golf and Club industry	0	0%
Total	103	100%

[(a)]What segments of the tourism and hospitality industry do you currently work in?

The Career Fair

The Career fair's attendees found out about the event from the University's Listserv e-mail (65%) and announcements during class (59%). Other sources of information about the career fair were obtained through the College's Website (42%) and the College's information table prior to the event (41%) (Table 2).

Table 2:
Respondents' Source of Information about the Career Fair
(Multiple responses)

Answer	N	%
University Listserv e-mail	70	65%
Announcement during class	63	59%
College's Website	45	42%
College's information table prior to the event	44	41%
Information from other students	42	39%
College library	5	5%

Students' Experience at the Career Fair

The respondents were asked to evaluate their experience with the career fair. In general, the students were satisfied with their experience (Mean 3.11 on a 1 to 5 scale, when "1" represented "dissatisfaction" and "5" represented "extreme satisfaction." Please note that 11% of the students were "extremely satisfied" with the career fair, while 17% were "dissatisfied (Table 3).

To learn more about students' experience with the career fair, an importance-performance analysis was performed. The importance-performance analysis, originally introduced by Martilla and James (1977) aimed to better understand consumers' needs and wants. This is attained through the analysis of consumer expectations (importance) and consumer satisfaction (performance).

In the services and hospitality industry empirical research, participants were typically asked to rate the level of importance of specific facilities, services, and experiences (product attributes) and also the level of performance of each of the attributes. Consumers' perceptions of the importance and performance of controllable attributes of a product or a service can help decision makers to make reasonable conclusions about modifying performance on attributes that exhibited performance gaps.

Students were asked to evaluate 11 attributes of their experience in the career fair. The attributes were developed following qualitative research phase of approximately 50 conversations with individual and groups of students who attended a career fair in the previous semester.

The results indicate that the most important aspect of the career fair were variety of employers (mean = 4.73 on a 1 to 5 scale) and industry representation in the segment that the students was interested to pursue his/her career (mean= 4.72, on a 1 to 5 scale). Other important attributes for the students were current availability of jobs that appeal to the individual student (mean=4.62, on a 1 to 5 scale) and level of professional communication between the representatives and the student at the career fair (mean=

4.54, on a 1 to 5 scale). Less important attributes were: registration process, day of the week when career fair was held, and time of the day career when fair was held (Table 4).

Further analysis was performed to identify performance gaps. A series of t-tests were conducted between the perceived importance and the perceived performance of each of the eleven variables. The performance gaps and the results of the t-tests are summarized in Table 5. We can conclude that the greatest performance gaps were identified in the following attributes: Current availability of jobs that appeal to the students, industry representation of the segment that the students are interested to pursue their careers, and a variety of employers (Table 5).

Further analysis of the data (t-tests) did not indicate any statistically significant differences between males and females with regard to their experience at the career fair.

Table 3:
Respondents' Level of Satisfaction with the career fair? [(a)]

Answer	Response	%
Dissatisfied	18	17%
Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	8	8%
Satisfied	35	33%
Very Satisfied	32	30%
Extremely Satisfied	12	11%
Total	105	100%

Statistic	Value
Mean	3.11
Standard Deviation	1.24

[(a)] In general, how satisfied are you with the career fair?

Table 4:
Likelihood to attend Future College-Sponsored Career Fair [a]

Answer	Response	%
5. Very Likely	36	34%
4. Likely	36	34%
3. Neutral	20	19%
2. Not Likely	7	7%
1.Very Unlikely	6	6%
Total	105	100%

Statistic	Value
Mean	3.85
Standard Deviation	1.14

[a] Based on your experience with this career fair, how likely that you will attend the next career fair organized by the College?

Table 5:
Importance-Performance Analysis of the Career Fair's Attributes as Perceived by the Students

Question		N	Mean Importance[(a)]	SD Importance[(a)]	Mean Performance[(b)]	SD Performance[(b)]	T	Sig.
1	Variety of employers	106	4.73	0.82	3.35	1.09	-11.385	**0.00**
2	Industry representation in the segment I am interested to pursue my career	106	4.72	0.84	3.00	1.45	-11.561	**0.00**
3	Current availability of jobs that appeal to me	106	4.62	0.83	2.72	1.24	-13.284	**0.00**
4	Level of professional communication between the representatives and myself at the career fair	106	4.54	0.87	4.05	1.02	-4.164	**0.00**
5	Willingness of employers' representatives to take my printed resume	106	4.52	0.89	3.49	1.28	-6.768	**0.00**
6	Employers' representatives knowledge about their respective companies	106	4.49	0.93	4.03	0.93	-3.737	**0.00**
7	The career Fair's marketing and awareness among students	106	4.29	0.94	4.21	0.98	-0.703	0.48
8	Hosting the career fair at the Rosen College	106	4.24	1.06	4.37	0.90	-1.177	0.24
9	Time of the day career when fair was held	106	4.11	0.93	3.82	1.04	-2.395	0.18
10	Day of the week when career fair was held	106	4.08	0.91	3.72	1.04	-2.864	**0.05**
11	Registration process	106	3.99	1.03	4.54	0.75	5.221	**0.00**

[(a)] How important are each of the following features in your evaluation of the career fair?
[(b)] The performance of these attributes was...

Students' Career Expectations

While 85% of the respondents indicated that they were going to follow up with prospective employers, the survey also included an assessment of the students' perceptions of their career. These attributes were introduced by Silkes et al. (2010) and were modified slightly for this survey. Table 6 summarizes these attributes. We can conclude that students attending the college-sponsored travel, tourism and hospitality career fair attributed the highest importance in the following areas: working in a positive company culture, having a good work-life balance, having supportive managers, having

job security. Least important career attributes included: receiving good pay, having clear career goals, and meeting personal goals (Table 6).

Table 6:
Students' Perceptions of their Career[(a)]

#	Question	N	Mean	SD
1	Working in a positive company culture	105	4.66	0.60
2	Having a good work-life balance	105	4.66	0.59
3	Having supportive managers	105	4.63	0.59
4	Having job security	105	4.62	0.58
5	Having opportunities for training and development	105	4.58	0.68
6	Being determined to succeed	105	4.56	0.69
7	Having opportunities for self-development	105	4.52	0.68
8	Meeting personal goals	105	4.50	0.61
9	Having clear career goals	105	4.40	0.78
10	Receiving good pay	105	4.22	0.64

[(a)]To what extend are the following career expectations important to you?

Predicting Students' Attendance in College-Sponsored Career Fair

A stepwise regression analysis was conducted to find out who is more likely to be satisfied with the career fair and who is likely to attend a similar college-sponsored career fair in future. The survey included two dependent variables that were highly correlated (r=0.526): Level of satisfaction with the career fair and Likelihood to attend the next career fair. Two regression models were run and the most predictive model where the dependent variable was "Level of satisfaction with the career fair and yielded (R^2= 0.574) is presented below (Table 7).

The regression model revealed that students who attended the career fair are likely to be more satisfied with the event if the event will provide more available jobs that appeal to the students, the employers' representatives would be more willing to take their printed resume, and that the career fair would include more variety of employers (performance). In addition, students who attended the career fair are likely to be more satisfied with the event if they perceived their future career to have more opportunities for self- development. Also, level of satisfaction was also predicted with the number of hours students worked per week. Students who worked more hours per week while going to school were more likely to be satisfied with the career fair.

Table 7:
Multiple Regression of Students' Level of Satisfaction with Career Fair on a variety of Career fair Experience, College Educational Experience and Demographic Characteristics

	Standardized coefficient Beta	R	Adjusted R Square Change	t	Sig.
Performance: Current availability of jobs that appeal to me	.535	.758	.574	6.493	.000
Career perception: Having opportunities for self - development	.204	.798	.063	3.153	.002
Performance: Willingness of employers' representatives to take my printed resume	.225	.818	.032	3.170	.002
Performance: Variety of employers	.232	.836	.030	2.977	.004
Number of working hours per week	.132	.846	.017	2.080	.041

R^2= 0.574
N=103

CONCLUSIONS

College-sponsored career fairs provide excellent opportunities for students to meet job and internship recruiters, research companies and industries, as well as network with industry representatives. In the United States, these types of events tend to be somewhat commonplace; however, similar practices may not be common in other academic institutions around world.

A limited amount of studies addressed travel, tourism and hospitality career fairs in academic institutions outside the U.S, both from the students' as well as the universities' administrations perspectives. McKeown and Lindorff (2010) found that recent Australian graduates did not utilize the University Careers Centre (UCC) nor did many of them know about the services offered. Another study concluded that among tourism graduates from a university in Sweden, the graduates had very little knowledge about the career options in the industry and suggested the need for further career guidance (Hjalager, 2003).

This study was among a limited number of studies assessing students' experience in college-sponsored career fairs in the disciple of travel, tourism, and hospitality. The study also provided a first attempt to predict students' level of satisfaction with the career fair, as well as their likelihood to attend a similar career fair in the future (both as students and alumni).

The findings revealed that students would like to see more available jobs that appeal to them, industry representation of the segment that the students are interested to pursue their careers, and a variety of employers. Furthermore, level of satisfaction with the career fair was attributed to these variables as well as the students' perception of the importance of having opportunities for self-development and the number of hours they worked per week.

The study may have a few implications for college career fair event planners, students, and the recruiters who spend time and money to come to campuses all over the world to recruit students in travel, tourism and hospitality programs.

Event planners that produce college career fairs may be able to use these findings to enhance the overall experience at their next fair for both recruiters and students alike. This research indicated that students want to meet with a variety of employers and have fair industry representation within broad sections of the hospitality field. By working closely with the career services department on campus and networking with industry recruitment professionals, planners have the ability to better understand the number and types of positions currently available in the market; thereby making sound decisions as to which companies will be targeted to exhibit at the show. By attracting employers that appeal to the consumers (students), it is safe to assume more qualified students will attend and participate in such fairs. With more qualified applicants, recruiters have more choices when making hiring decisions.

Recruiters can certainly benefit from the results of this. One significant and interesting finding was the importance of having self-development opportunities at an organization. With this information, employers can better represent their organization at recruitment events by sharing the organization's employee benefits in great detail.

Another significant finding was associated with pay; receiving good pay was not a significant factor when looking at career aspects. Salary, of course, is important to most, but is not a deal breaker for the students in this study. Consequently, recruiters can infer that even if they do not offer the highest salary, potential employees could still seek them after. In addition, if recruiters showcase opportunities that are in line with the student's studies, they can enhance the chances of hiring qualified candidates that they interview at the fair.

As noted earlier, this research revealed that roughly eighteen percent of those surveyed were not sure on which sector of the hospitality industry they were most interested in working. With this information, employers have the unique chance to showcase their company with this student niche. Having the opportunity to educate the workforce on what career opportunities are available within their organization allows recruiters a unique, firsthand, face-to-face chance to "sell" their organization to those that may not know much about it or the careers that can be had within it.

Finally, students that attend career fairs at their respective universities can benefit from the findings of this study. The information collected will allow students to understand the significance of career fairs and the importance that universities and recruiters place on them. Perhaps knowing this information will spark the desire in students to attend and actively participate in career fairs offered on their campus.

Several limitations of the study should be noted. First, the study was conducted in a single university located in an area with large tourism, travel, and hospitality organizations. The results may be different in other geographical settings. In addition, participation in the study was voluntary and there was no control on the sampling. Therefore, the sample may include "extreme cases" of students who were either very satisfied or very dissatisfied. Finally, the study was conducted in a specific time frame. The results might have been different if the economic situation and current job prospects would be different.

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THE INSTITIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE EU ECOLABEL SCHEME: THE CASE OF GREECE

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is an important aspect of the lives of the European citizens, who travel more and more for leisure or business. To this end, since the early 1980s the European Union and in particular, the European Commission and the European Parliament, have been developing actions aiming at promoting sustainable tourism development. The main goal is to improve the tourism services within the EU and foster competitiveness of the European tourism industry with respect to the natural and cultural environment. The EU Ecolabel, a voluntary scheme established in 1992 in order to encourage businesses to market environmentally friendly products and services, has been an important tool to this direction.

This paper aims at researching and studying analytically the EU institutional framework with regard to the EU Ecolabel awarding, highlighting the EU initiatives and actions for the promotion of the EU Ecolabel and exploring the way EU Regulations and Directives have been incorporated into the Greek law system.

KEYWORDS**:** EU Ecolabel, tourist accommodation, tourist campsites, sustainable tourism development, EU 'flower'

INTRODUCTION

European Union and Tourism

Tourism is an important aspect of the lives of the European citizens, who travel more and more for personal or professional reasons. According to Eurostat (2009) in 2009 the European citizens made about 1.4 billion trips, 90% of which was within EU-27. The EU is regarded as the first tourist destination in the world, with 476,551,000 international arrivals for 2010, that is 50.7% of the total arrivals worldwide. The tourism receipts generated by these arrivals were €306 billion (UNWTO, 2011: 4-7).

Since the early 1980s, the EU and in particular, the European Commission and the European Parliament, have been developing actions aiming at promoting the sustainability of tourism. The main goal is to improve the tourism services within the EU

and foster competitiveness of the European tourism industry with respect to the natural and cultural environment. The European Ecolabel, a voluntary scheme established in 1992 in order to encourage businesses to market environmentally friendly products and services, has been an important tool to this direction. As tourism is an economic sector which often leads to wasteful consumption (Moira and Katsoula, 2008:293) and can have a devastating effect on natural and cultural resources, awarding tourist accommodation services and camp site services with the EU Ecolabel contributes enormously to the development of sustainable tourism. However, raising public awareness is necessary as the recognition of the (ecological, cultural, social and economic) value of the EU Ecolabel could encourage tourist accommodation providers to adopt it. Moreover, national bodies awarding the EU Ecolabel in each Member State should take the appropriate initiatives and actions in order to promote the EU Ecolabel as environmental excellence, which could help manufacturers, retailers and service providers gain recognition for good standards, while helping consumers make reliable choices.

Sustainable tourism development

In the beginning of the 21st century, the rational use of natural resources and the protection of the ecosystems, along with economic prosperity and a balanced social development, are fundamental for sustainable development. According to the World Committee on Environment and Development, sustainable development is a process of change which lays particular emphasis on the conservation of the available resources of each area with respect to the needs of the future generations (WCED, 1987). Many countries have developed different policies aiming at sustainable tourism development (Lane, 1993; Weiler and Hall, 1992). These policies approach tourism development as ecologically acceptable, economically viable and morally fair to local communities (EC, 1995). In this way, tourism becomes part of the natural, cultural and human environment with respect to the special characteristics of the host place. Sustainable development can only be achieved if tourism activities sit in harmony with the local environment (Eccles & Costa, 1996: 49). The concept of sustainable development dates back to the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm, 1972), the Manila Declaration on World Tourism (1980), the Report of the Brundtland Commission, *Our Common Future* (WCED, 1987) and the Rio Summit (UN, 1992:282). Agenda 21 is a comprehensive blueprint of action of the United Nations to be taken globally, nationally, and locally by organizations of the UN, governments, and major groups in every area in which humans directly affect the environment. It seeks to reconcile environmental protection, economic development and fight against poverty in a sustainable way. More specifically, it stresses that «[c]ountries should promote, as appropriate, environmentally sound leisure and tourism activities» (UN, 1992:326). As the tourism sector has a significant contribution to national economies, sustainable tourism development can be attained through alternative forms of tourism based on the rational valorisation and protection of the natural and cultural environment (UNEP, 2000).

The principles of sustainable tourism development were laid down during the World Conference on Sustainable, in Lanzarote, Canary Islands, Spain, on 27-28 April 1995. The core of the principles focuses on: a) tourism development which must be ecologically bearable in the long term as well as economically and socially equitable for

local communities, b) the shared and coordinated effort of all the actors, both public and private, and c) the diversity of opportunities offered to local communities through tourism projects. The tourism industry depends, to a great extent, on natural and cultural resources, which are its major pillars. Nevertheless, tourism can have negative impacts on these resources, such as air and water pollution, environmental degradation and loss of cultural authenticity. These negative impacts influence in their turn the quality and the viability of the tourist destinations as well as the quality of life of the local communities.

In a concerted effort to mitigate the negative repercussions of tourism development, since the 1980s the European Union has been undertaking sets of actions embedded in different sectoral policies aiming at the protection of the environment. One of those actions is the establishment of the Ecolabel scheme of the European Community in 1992, whose objective was to encourage businesses to develop commercial goods and services with mitigated environmental impacts throughout their life cycle and to provide consumers with information regarding the effects these goods and services have on the environment. Moreover, Council Decision 92/421/EEC of 13 July 1992 on a Community action plan to assist tourism was very significant as it specified eleven Community measures, one of which was "Tourism and the environment". Then under the guidance of the Tourism Advisory Committee of the Commission, four working groups were set up in order to improve quality in tourism. In particular, the objective of Group D was to promote environmental protection and sustainable tourism development (Mylonopoulos & Kontoudaki, 2011:56).

In addition to this, the Report of the Tourism Sustainability Group (TSG) entitled "Action for a more sustainable European tourism", submitted to the European Commission in February 2007, was of high importance. The EU Sustainable Development Strategy (SDS) has three key objectives: economic prosperity; social equity and cohesion; and environmental and cultural protection (TSG, 2007:3). As the 6th Community Environment Action Programme (EAP) (2002-2012) of the European Community states that this objective can be achieved through an integrated product policy approach that will encourage the taking into account of environmental requirements throughout the life-cycle of products (EC, 2002:5). The Communication from the Commission for an Integrated Product Policy[1] suggests a new strategy in order to strengthen the co-ordination and coherence between existing and future environment-related product policy instruments and help develop a market with more eco-friendly products. The EU eco-label is one of the tools that could contribute to the achievement of this goal.

Tourism was included for the first time as a provision in the Maastricht Treaty (1992). "The Community shall have as its task […] to promote throughout the Community a high level of employment and of social protection, the raising of the standard of living and quality of life, and economic and social cohesion and solidarity among Member States" (Title II, Article G, B, Art. 2). "For the purposes set out in Article

[1] COM/2003: 302 final, 18.6.2003.

2, the activities of the Community shall include […] measures in the spheres of energy, civil protection and *tourism*" (Article 3, (t).

The Treaty of Lisbon,[2] which was passed in 2007 and entered into force on 1 December 2009, stipulates that "[t]he Union shall have competence to carry out actions to support, coordinate or supplement the actions of the Member States. The areas of such action shall, at European level, be: […] (d) tourism" (Article 2E).[3] Furthermore, the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union states that "[t]he Union shall complement the action of the Member States in the *tourism* sector, in particular by promoting the competitiveness of Union undertakings in that sector. To that end, Union action shall be aimed at: (a) encouraging the creation of a favourable environment for the development of undertakings in this sector; (b) promoting cooperation between the Member States, particularly by the exchange of good practice" (Article 195).

Moreover, the Transport and Tourism (TRAN) Committee of the European Parliament is in charge for issues related with tourism, while the European Commission, acknowledging the important role that tourism plays for the European economy has been dealing with tourism issues since the 1980, in collaboration with the Council and the European Parliament.

Regulations

Council Regulation (EEC) No 880/92 of 23 March 1992 on a Community eco-label award[4] aimed at establishing an optional eco-labelling scheme, whose goal was to: a) promote products with reduced environmental impacts during the entire life cycle of the product, and b) provide consumers with better information on the environmental impact of products. "Within five years of the entry into force of this Regulation the Commission shall review the scheme in the light of the experience gained during its operation [and] propose any appropriate amendments to this Regulation" (Article 18). By virtue of this provision, Regulation (EC) No 1980/2000 of the European Parliament and the Council of 17 July 2000[5] on a revised Community eco-label award scheme was published. Then, for reasons of clarity and security law, Regulation (EC) 66/2010 of the European Parliament and the Council of 25 November 2009[6] on the EU Ecolabel entered into force. «By 19 February 2015, the Commission shall submit to the European Parliament and the Council a report on the implementation of the EU Ecolabel scheme. The report shall also identify elements for a possible review of the scheme» (Article 14).

«The EU Ecolabel scheme is part of the sustainable consumption and production policy of the Community, which aims at reducing the negative impact of consumption

[2] OJ C 306, 17.12.2007.
[3] Article 6, Consolidated version of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, OJ C 83, p. 47-200, 30.10.2010.
[4] OJ L 099, 11.4.1992, p. 1-7.
[5] OJ, L 237, 21.9.2000, p. 1-12.
[6] OJ L 027, 30.1.2010, p. 1-19.

and production on the environment, health, climate[7] and natural resources. The scheme is intended to promote those products which have a high level of environmental performance through the use of the EU Ecolabel. To this effect, it is appropriate to require that the criteria with which products must comply in order to bear the EU Ecolabel be based on the best environmental performance achieved by products on the Community market. Those criteria should be simple to understand and to use and should be based on scientific evidence, taking into consideration the latest technological developments. Those criteria should be market oriented and limited to the most significant environmental impacts of products during their whole life cycle.» (Preamble, par. 5).

«For the acceptance by the general public of the EU Ecolabel scheme, it is essential that environmental non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and consumer organisations play an important role and be actively involved in the development and setting of EU Ecolabel criteria» (Preamble, par. 8). The Regulation applies to any goods or services which are supplied for distribution, consumption or use on the Community market whether in return for payment or free of charge.

Commission Decision 2009/578/EC[8] of 9 July 2009 establishing the ecological criteria for the award of the Community eco-label *for tourist accommodation services.* For administrative purposes the code number assigned to the product group 'tourist accommodation service' is '025'. (Art. 2). The product group 'tourist accommodation service' comprises the provision, for a fee, of sheltered overnight accommodation in appropriately equipped rooms, including at least a bed, offered as a main service to tourists, travellers and lodgers. The provision of overnight sheltered accommodation may include the provision of food services (e.g. breakfast), fitness and leisure activities (e.g. saunas, swimming pools) and/or green areas (e.g. parks and gardens which are open to guests) (Art. 1, 2).

In order to be awarded the Community eco-label for tourist accommodation service under Regulation (EC) No 1980/2000, a tourist accommodation service has to fulfil all of the following requirements: (a) it has to fall within the product group 'tourist accommodation service'; (b) it has to comply with each of the criteria set out in Section A of the Annex to the Decision; (c) it has to comply with a sufficient number of the criteria set out in Section B of the Annex to the Decision, in order to acquire the requisite number of points as referred to in paragraphs 2 and 3.

The scoring is increased by any of the following, if provided under the same management or ownership of the tourist accommodation service: (a) three points for food services; (b) three points for green/outside areas available to guests; (c) three points for leisure/fitness activities or five points if the leisure/fitness activity consists in a wellness centre. (Art.2). These criteria aim to set limits on the main environmental impacts from

[7] «Preventing negative effects on the climate is an integral part of the Eco-label scheme.» Amendment 1, Proposal for a Regulation, Recital 4, Report of the European Parliament, A6-0105/2009, 25.2.2009, RR\418115EN.doc.
[8] OJ L 198, 30.7.2009, p. 57-79.

the three phases of the life cycle of tourist accommodation service (purchasing, provision of the service and waste). In particular they aim to limit energy consumption, limit water consumption, limit waste production, favour the use of renewable resources and of substances which are less hazardous to the environment, promote environmental communication and education.[9]

In order to apply for the eco-label, the applicant must comply with Community, national and local legal requirements. In particular, it shall be guaranteed that a) the physical structure is built legally and respects all relevant laws or regulations of the area on which it is built, especially any related to landscape and biodiversity conservation, b) the physical structure respects Community, national and local laws and regulations regarding energy conservation, water sources, water treatment and disposal, waste collection and disposal, maintenance and servicing of equipment, safety and health dispositions and c) the enterprise is operational and registered, as required by national and/or local laws and its staff are legally employed and insured.

The mandatory criteria include, inter alia: energy, water, detergents and disinfectants, waste, general management, information to guests. The optional criteria include, inter alia: indigenous species used for new outdoor planting, bicycles made available to guests etc. Each of the criteria set out has been attributed a value expressed in points or fractions of points. In order to qualify for award of the eco-label, tourist accommodations must score a minimum of 20 points.[10]

Moreover, the Commission Decision 2009/564/EC[11] of 9 July 2009 establishes the ecological criteria for the award of the Community eco-label for campsite service**.** For administrative purposes the code number assigned to the product group 'campsite service' is '026' (Art. 5). The Community eco-label may be awarded to a product possessing characteristics which enable it to contribute significantly to improvements in relation to key environmental aspects. Specific eco-label criteria, drawn up on the basis of the criteria drafted by the European Union Eco-labeling Board, are established according to product groups. It provides that the review of the eco-label criteria, as well as of the assessment and verification requirements related to those criteria, is to take place in due time before the end of the period of validity of the criteria specified for the product group concerned. In the light of that review, it is appropriate, in order to take account of scientific and market developments, to modify the definition of the product group and to establish new ecological criteria. For campsite service, the ecological criteria should be divided into mandatory and optional criteria.

The product group '*campsite service'* comprises, as a main service provided for a fee, the provision of pitches equipped for mobile lodging structures within a defined area. It shall also comprise other accommodation facilities suitable for the provision of shelter

[9] Annex, p. 60.
[10] Annex II, p. 68.
[11] OJ L 196, 28.7.2009, p. 6-58.

to lodgers and collective areas for communal service if they are provided within the defined area (Art. 1, par. 1).

In addition to this, for the purposes of this Decision, food services include breakfast, fitness and leisure activities/facilities (saunas, swimming pools) and all other such facilities, which are within the accommodation grounds and green areas such as parks and gardens, which are open to guests, and which are not part of the campsite structure (Art. 1, par. 3). In order to be awarded the Community eco-label for campsite service, a campsite service has to fulfill all of the following requirements: (a) it shall fall within the product group 'campsite service'; (b) it shall comply with each of the criteria set out in Section A of the Annex to this Decision; (c) it shall comply with a sufficient number of the criteria set out in Section B of the Annex to this Decision, in order to acquire the requisite number of points as referred to in paragraphs 2 and 3 (Art. 2, par. 1). For the purposes of paragraph 1(c), the campsite service shall acquire at least: (a) 20 points for the main service; (b) 24 points if other accommodation facilities, suitable for the provision of shelters for lodgers, are provided in addition (Art. 2, par. 2).

Mobile lodging structures as referred to in Article 1 are those such as tents, caravans, mobile homes and camper vans. Accommodation facilities suitable for the provision of shelter to lodgers are facilities such as bungalows, rental mobile lodging and apartments. Collective areas for communal services are such as washing and cooking facilities, supermarkets and information facilities.[12] The total score required shall be increased by 3 points for each of the following additional services which are offered that are under the management or ownership of the campsite — Food services (including breakfast), — Leisure/fitness activities, which include saunas, swimming pools and all other such facilities which are within the campsite grounds. If the leisure/fitness activities consist in a wellness centre, the score required shall be increased by 5 points, instead of 3, — Green areas which are not part of the campsite structure, such as parks, woods and gardens which are open to guests.[13]

These criteria aim to set limits on the main environmental impacts from the three phases of the service's life cycle of campsite service (purchasing, provision of the service, waste). In particular they aim to limit energy consumption, limit water consumption, limit waste production, favour the use of renewable resources and of substances which are less hazardous to the environment, promote environmental communication and education[14]. In order to apply for the eco-label the applicant must comply with Community, national and local requirements (see above "tourist accommodation").

Awarding and use of the EU Ecolabel

The logo of the EU Ecolabel, also known as EU 'flower', is a daisy surrounded by the 12 stars of the European Union. By establishing and using the specific logo, which

[12] Annex, p. 39.
[13] Annex, Section B, p. 47.
[14] Annex, p. 39.

denotes environmental issues (flower) and its source of origin (12 stars of the European Union), the public is able to identify it in an efficient way, as message and communicator are acknowledged at the same time. EU Ecolabel guarantees a high level of transparency, reliability and scientific credibility, which meets customers' green demands. And, unlike other environmental information or labeling, no technical understanding is required to read and understand the label. Its goal is to prove the reliability of the information provided by the European Union, with regard to its environmental performance, shows the commitment of the European Union to improving the environmental performance, and raise awareness among consumers, interested partied and organizations which are willing to enhance their environmental performances.

The EU Eco-label Flower labelling scheme is a voluntary system across Europe designed to encourage businesses to market products and services that are kinder to the environment and for European consumers-including public and private purchasers - to easily identify them through transparent procedures. Thus consumers gain more confidence about both the business and the product (Schulz, 2009:16-17).

With regard to the form of the EU Ecolabel, this can either take the form of a label or an optional label with text box The label, the optional label with text box and the registration number shall be printed either in two colours (Pantone 347 green for the leaves and stem of the flower, the 'Є' symbol, the web address and the EU acronym and Pantone 279 for all other elements, text and borders), or in black on white, or in white on black. (Annex II, Regulation (EC) 66/2010).

The EU Ecolabel may only be used in connection with products complying with the EU Ecolabel criteria applicable to the products concerned and for which the EU Ecolabel has been awarded. (Art. 9, par. 2) Moreover, Article 6 (par. 1-4) stipulates that: «EU Ecolabel criteria shall be based on the environmental performance of products, taking into account the latest strategic objectives of the Community in the field of the environment. EU Ecolabel criteria shall set out the environmental requirements that a product must fulfil in order to bear the EU Ecolabel. EU Ecolabel criteria shall be determined on a scientific basis considering the whole life cycle of products. In determining such criteria, the following shall be considered: (a) the most significant environmental impacts, (b) the substitution of hazardous substances by safer substances, (c) the potential to reduce environmental impacts due to durability and reusability of products, (d) the net environmental balance between the environmental benefits and burdens, (e) where appropriate, social and ethical aspects, (f) criteria established for other environmental labels, particularly officially recognised, nationally or regionally, EN ISO 14024 type I environmental labels, so as to enhance synergies, and (g) as far as possible the principle of reducing animal testing. EU Ecolabel criteria include requirements intended to ensure that the products bearing the EU Ecolabel function adequately in accordance with their intended use.

In addition to this, Article 7 provides that: «Following consultation of the EUEB, the Commission, Member States, competent bodies and other stakeholders may initiate and lead the development or revision of EU Ecolabel criteria. Where such other

stakeholders are put in charge of leading the development of criteria, they must demonstrate expertise in the product area, as well as the ability to lead the process with neutrality and in line with the aims of this Regulation. In this regard, consortiums consisting of more than one interest group shall be favoured.

The party which initiates and leads the development or revision of EU Ecolabel criteria, in accordance with the procedure set out in Part A of Annex I, has to produce the following documents: (a) a preliminary report; (b) a proposal for draft criteria; (c) a technical report in support of the proposal for draft criteria; (d) a final report; (e) a manual for potential users of the EU Ecolabel and competent bodies; (f) a manual for authorities awarding public contracts. Those documents are submitted to the Commission and to the EUEB.

The Commission no later than nine months after consulting the EUEB, has to adopt measures to establish specific EU Ecolabel criteria for each product group. These measures are published in the Official Journal of the European Union (Art. 8, par. 1, 2). So the Commission has to: (a) establish requirements for assessing the compliance of specific products with EU Ecolabel criteria ('assessment requirements'), (b) specify, for each product group, three key environmental characteristics that may be displayed in the optional label with text box, (c) specify, for each product group, the relevant period of validity of the criteria and of the assessment requirements, (d) specify the degree of product variability allowed during the period of validity referred to in point (c).

It should be noted that when laying down the criteria for the EU Ecolabel awarding, special care is taken in order not to take measures, the implementation of which might bring a disproportionate administrative and economic burden on SMEs.

A business wishing to use the EU Ecolabel should present an application to the competent body[15]. The application includes full details about the business, the product or service group, a full description of the product or service as well as any other information that the competent national body might request. Furthermore, all the documents defined in the Regulation, with regard to the award of the EU Ecolabel to the specific product or service group, are attached to the application.

Each applicant who has been awarded an eco-label will have to pay an annual fee for the use of the label to the competent body which has awarded the label.[16] This fee cannot exceed 1,500 euros.

[15] Article 4 par. 1, 2 & 7 par. 3 of the Regulation No 1980/2000 provides that: «[e]ach Member State shall designate the body or bodies, within government ministries or outside, responsible for carrying out the tasks provided for in this Regulation ('the competent body' or 'the competent bodies') and ensure that they are operational. […] The composition of the competent bodies shall be such as to guarantee their independence and neutrality and their rules of procedure shall be such as to ensure transparency in the conduct of their activities as well as the involvement of all interested parties.»

[16] Regulation No 1980/2000, Article 12 and Annex V, par. 2.

The eco-label may not be used, and references to the eco-label in advertising may not be made, until a label has been awarded and then only in relation to the specific product for which it has been awarded. (Art. 9, par. 2) Participation in the scheme is without prejudice to environmental or other regulatory requirements of Community or national law applicable to the various life stages of goods, and where appropriate to a service. (Art. 1, par. 3) The right for a product or service to use the EU Ecolabel does not allow its use as a constituent of its trade name[17]. Furthermore, any false or misleading advertising or the use of any label or logo which may lead to confusion with the Community eco-label as introduced by this Regulation is prohibited (Art. 9, par. 2). The competent public body has to check whether a specific product or service fulfils the EU Ecolabel awarding criteria and conduct periodical inspections in order to accomplish this goal. In case a complaint has been lodged, the competent body informs accordingly the user of the EU Ecolabel (product manufacturer or service provider) with regard to the complaint it has received and may request from them to reply to the complaint.

In case there is a breach of the Regulation provisions regarding the EU Ecolabel, member states are obliged to provide for effective, proportionate and discouraging sanctions and take all the necessary disciplinary measures in order to ensure its implementation and immediately inform the European Commission accordingly.

When an enterprise fulfils the terms of use of the EU Ecolabel, the competent body concludes a contract with that enterprise. To this end, a standard contract is used as it appears in Annex IV.[18] Only after this contract has been concluded, can the enterprise print the EU Ecolabel on its product or service along with its registration number. Then the competent national body which has awarded the EU Ecolabel to a product or service notifies the European Commission. The Commission keeps a common register, which is updated regularly and is publicized through the dedicated EU Ecolabel website.

Competent Body in Greece

Pursuant to Article 5, par. 1 of the Regulation (EC) No 66/2010 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 November 2009 on the EU Ecolabel,[19] the Commission has established a European Union Ecolabelling Board (EUEB) consisting of the representatives of the competent bodies of all the Member States and of other interested parties. Its aim is to contribute to the development and revision of EU Ecolabel criteria and to any review of the implementation of the EU Ecolabel scheme. It also provides the Commission with advice and assistance in these areas and, in particular, issue recommendations on minimum environmental performance requirements.

The Commission ensures that, in the conduct of its activities, the EUEB observes a balanced participation of all relevant interested parties in respect of each product group,

[17] Brand name is every sign which can be graphically represented and distinguish the products or services of a business from those of other businesses (Mylonopoulos & Mentis, 2010: 84)
[18] Regulation (EC) No 66/2010.
[19] OJ L 27, 30.1.2010, p. 1-19.

such as competent bodies, producers, manufacturers, importers, service providers, wholesalers, retailers, notably SMEs, and environmental protection groups and consumer organizations. (Art. 5, par. 2)

Pursuant to Article 2 (par. 1, 2) of the Commission Decision 2010/709/EU of 22 November 2010[20], the EUEB is composed of the representatives of the Competent Bodies of each Member State, of the representatives of the Member State of the European Economic Area and of the representatives of the following organizations: (a) Bureau Européen des Consommateurs (BEUC); (b) EUROCOOP; (c) European Environmental Bureau (EEB); (d) Business Europe; (e) European Association of Craft, Small & Medium-sized Enterprises (UEAPME); (f) EUROCOMMERCE. The Commission may amend the membership of the EUEB as appropriate (Art. 2, par. 3), while each member of the EUEB has to designate a contact person (Art. 3).

In Greece, the national body for awarding the EU Ecolabel is the Supreme Council for the Awarding of the EU Ecolabel (ASAOS). It was established by virtue of the Joint Ministerial Decision 86644/2482/93 (Gov. Gaz. 763/B), implementing Council Regulation (EEC) No 880/92 of 23 March 1992.

The use of the EU Ecolabel is governed by: a) the Greek Market Provision F1-218/30.01.1998 (Gov. Gaz. 139/B), according to which the use of the adjective 'ecological' or the prefix 'eco' in the Greek or foreign language is forbidden for every product to be sold, consumed or advertised, if this product has not been awarded the EU Ecolabel by the national competent body, b) the provisions of the new Regulation (EC) No 66/2010 (Article 10: Market surveillance and control of the use of the EU Ecolabel and Article 17: Penalties).

The Supreme Council for the Awarding of the EU Ecolabel (ASAOS) consists of eleven members, which include representatives from the competent ministries and other production and consumption-related bodies and organizations.[21] The President of the Board is the Secretary General of the Ministry for Environment, Energy and Climate Change. Pursuant to the Ministerial Decision, the competences of ASAOS are the following: (a) promote the planning, production, trading and use of products, which have reduced environmental impacts during their life cycle, (b) inform both consumers and businesses about the EU Ecolabel, (c) develop specific programmes for the definition of special ecological criteria for different product groups, by applying the Community legislation in force, so that the uniform and equivalent use of products is guaranteed in a precise and clear way, along with a high degree of environmental protection, (d) the selection of its technical and scientific support in the EU Ecolabel awarding procedures, (e) the selection of its technical and scientific support in the EU Ecolabel awarding procedures, in cooperation with the Greek Organization for Standardization (ELOT), the

[20] OJ L 308, 24.11.2010, p. 53.

[21] For example, the Hellenic Federation of Enterprises, the Union of Hellenic Chambers, the General Confederation of Greek Workers, environmental and consumer organizations, etc.

General Chemical State Laboratory, the Ministry for Environment, other public and private sector agencies as well as experts, in order to certify that the product for which there is a request for an EU Ecolabel award conforms to the criteria laid down by the European Union, (f) to take every necessary or useful legal measure in order to accomplish its mission, (g) to organize or participate in seminars, conferences, lectures or public debates about the development and dissemination of the applications of the EU Ecolabel Award Scheme, (h) to exchange or borrow research material with similar national or foreign agencies and institutes and, (i) to invite and host experts and scientists whose research focuses on issues related with the goals of ASAOS (e.g. environmental product impacts during their life cycle, policy development about eco-products, etc.).

ASAOS may accept complaints with regard to the illegal or wring use and application of the EU Ecolabel; however, it does not possess inspection or sanction competences. In such a case, ASAOS forwards the complaint to the Greek General Secretariat for Consumer Affairs, who is competent to check the complaints. ASAOS is a member of the network «Global Ecolabelling Network»[22], an international network for the promotion of ecolabelling.

European Union actions

The European Commission has undertaken a set of actions and activities, on an annual basis, in order to increase the visibility of the EU Ecolabel in all member states. As far as tourism is concerned, the following actions have been implemented.

EU Ecolabel Communication Award. The European Commission has launched the annual EU Ecolabel Communication Award, which aims to recognise the EU Ecolabel license holders who have excelled at increasing public awareness and knowledge of the EU Ecolabel through their promotional campaigns. The Jury, made up of representatives from the European Commission, three Competent Bodies, the press, NGOs and educational institutions) evaluates the following aspects: quality and creativity of the campaign; effectiveness of EU Ecolabel logo use; relevance of promotional activities undertaken; results achieved.

The award was established in 2009. Portuguese hotel, Jardim Atlântico, based in Madeira, won the service provider category, for the year 2010. The hotel was praised for its campaign to raise awareness of the EU Ecolabel using different types of media and activities involving the local community. The Jury panel was impressed by the tools used to raise awareness about environmental protection and provide information on the EU Ecolabel: (a) meetings and guided tours of the hotel's facilities in order to educate participants on relevant information regarding the EU Ecolabel, (b) the "EU Ecolabel Week" event, (c) children's artwork, (d) display of the EU Ecolabel logo in all the hotel's marketing materials, including leaflets and website.

"Flower" month. The EU Ecolabel Month is an EU campaign to promote the EU Ecolabel. It is held between mid-September to mid-October in several Member States

[22] See http://www.globalecolabelling.net, Access on 02.1.2012.

since 2006. The objective of this promotional campaign is to increase the knowledge of the EU Ecolabel and what it stands for among consumers, as well as to encourage its uptake in the manufacturing and tourism sectors.

For the year 2011, a typical example of EU Ecolabel month was that in the Piedmont region in north-western Italy, which included exhibitions, seminars and guided tours featuring EU ecolabelled products. Piedmont's EU Ecolabel Month featured diverse activities that engaged public officials, teachers, entrepreneurs, students and consumers at large. An exhibition that instructed participants on how to choose environmentally-friendly products was followed by an exhibition of some of Piedmont's own EU Ecolabel certified products. Moreover, in collaboration with the Chamber of Commerce of Vercelli, a guided tour of an EU ecolabelled soap plant took place and interested visitors were able to learn about the life-cycle of an EU Ecolabel certified soap.[23] It has to be noted that the region of Piedmont is actively engaged in the field of responsible and sustainable tourism and that it has the second biggest number of EU Ecolabel holders in tourist accommodation services in Italy and in Europe.

The internet shop for official Ecolabel products. Since 2009 the European Commission has undertaken action for the setting up of Europe's first Internet Shop for official Ecolabel Products. The web-shop[24] was launched in January 2000, featuring 300 products. This project aims to significantly improve the sale and visibility of ecolabel products in Europe, raise European citizen's awareness about these products and reduce the emission of greenhouse gases linked with transport, by means of performance indicators. With regard to tourism, at first the website focuses on the hospitality industry (inc. hotels, campsites and restaurants) in German speaking countries.

CONCLUSION

Tourism as an activity with a social, cultural, environmental and economic dimension, is based on two pillars: the natural and the cultural environment. However, as these two pillars are threatened by economic development, the European Union develops policies for sustainable development. As far as tourism is concerned, the EU, through its institutions, undertakes actions aiming at sustainable tourism development. An important tool towards achieving this goal is the EU Ecolabel, awarded to tourist accommodations and campsites, by virtue of Regulation No 66/2010/EC of the European Parliament and the Council. As there is a legal framework established concerning the awarding of the EU Ecolabel to tourism businesses in all EU member states, we suggest that an empirical survey be conducted in order to explore the degree of visibility of the EU Ecolabel in the tourism industry, including tourism entrepreneurs, tourism staff and users of tourist services.

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A PROPOSED SLOW FOOD AGRICULTURAL MODEL TO HELP THE POOR IN LATIN AMERICA THROUGH TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

Academics and tourism organizations have tried to put theoretical underpinnings of sustainable development into practice. Even though tourism brings positives economic impact to a destination, it is disparaged for dependence on increasing tourist arrivals as its core strategy, and damaging the environment. Literature has investigated the linkage between tourism and agriculture; however, few have assessed if tourism consumption of locally produced food commodities are economically efficient. Advocating a policy of eco-agriculture, Slow Food International emphasizes indigenous farming and places emphasis on traditional and regional cuisine. This study provides a blueprint to identify opportunities in the linking of local agricultural products, using a Slow Food Model, to help the poor in sustainable tourism destinations.

KEYWORDS: Slow food; tourism; sustainable development; poor; Latin America; agriculture

INTRODUCTION

For the past several decades, tourism has played an increasingly important role in the global economy, and it is now widely recognized as one of the largest industries in the world (Smeral, 2003; WTO, 2010).

The potential of tourism is the promotion of a positive economic impact for a destination. While tourism seems to be willing to meet the needs of the poor (Ashley et al, 2001; Encontre, 2001; Younis, 2004) and with almost a third of all expenditures being food, the creation of economic linkages and the union of agriculture to tourism is of great importance to the host destinations (Torres, 2003). Despite the potential to bring positive economic impact to a destination, the industry is criticized for reliance on increasing tourist arrivals as their core competitive strategy. Despite being considered a “clean

industry" (Van der Duim & Caalders, 2002), current socio-environmentalists classify it as a "double edged sword" industry, because increased tourism development potentially damages the environment (Collins, 1999). An example of this is negative effect of food consumption on agricultural biodiversity. Advocating a policy of eco-agriculture, Petrini (2007), founder of Slow Food International, indicates that agriculture today consists of intensification of a few crops to the detriment of genetic diversity, created through millennia of experimentation.

In Latin America and the Caribbean more than 33 percent (or 182 million) still live in poverty. This number is expected to grow due to the economic and financial recession. The poor have limited opportunities to do better for themselves. The consequences of this sad situation are not only vast human suffering but also substantial economic and social costs. The tourism industry has a great deal of untapped potential to help expand opportunities in local communities. This potential depends on integrating the poor into value chains not only as employees, but also as suppliers and customers. Integration would enable the poor to build their own human and economic assets. For example, sourcing products from local producers could be an effective way of expanding opportunities. Such products include fruits and vegetables, dairy products and cheese, meats, poultry and eggs. There is anecdotal evidence indicating that sourcing agricultural products from local farmers has had a significant impact on improving the lives of the local farmers and their communities.

Sourcing agricultural products locally not only improves the community, but also enhances the attractiveness of the destination to target tourism markets. Studies show that tourists seek authenticity in their experiences of a travel destination, including tasting indigenous foods and beverages (Sims, 2009). Tourists' desire for food products from local producers implies that sourcing agricultural products from local farmers would benefit the tourists, businesses and the destination in general. Local agriculture differentiates the perceived image of a destination, creates new and lasting local economic opportunities, and enhances the community pride of the host residents. However, there are some concerns regarding safety and illnesses for tourists when they consume local products while traveling to destinations in Latin America.

Tourists reported incidents suffered from gastrointestinal illness while traveling to developing countries including destinations in Latin America. The reports cast negative images of such tourism markets. Strategies can be developed and implemented to enhance the sanitation and safety standards; including the hygiene standards of the food handling process thus reducing food illness rates (Torres and Skillicorn, 2004).

Many academics and tourism related organizations have been attempting to put theoretical underpinnings of sustainable development into practice (Ko, 2005). A growing body of literature has investigated the relationship between tourism and agriculture (Mansury & Hara, 2007; Torres, 2002). However, few have assessed if tourism consumption of locally produced food commodities are economically and environmentally efficient. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate more systematically how tourism can expand opportunities to help lift the poor above the

poverty line in Latin America and how tourism can provide economic benefits to host residents and communities. More specifically, the study aims at identifying these opportunities in the sourcing of local agricultural food products using the Slow Food Model. Food and beverage expenditures represent a significant portion in the spending distribution of a tourist while vacationing. Opportunities exist to increase the linkage between the agricultural and the tourism industry (e.g., hotels and restaurants). Seizing these opportunities requires addressing issues such as quality, reliable delivery, sanitation, education, and water supply. This study will provide a detailed analysis of the extent to which hotels and restaurants use local food products, identify the issues and challenges that are hampering further integration between the two sectors, and devise a plan of how to overcome these challenges.

LITERATURE REVIEW

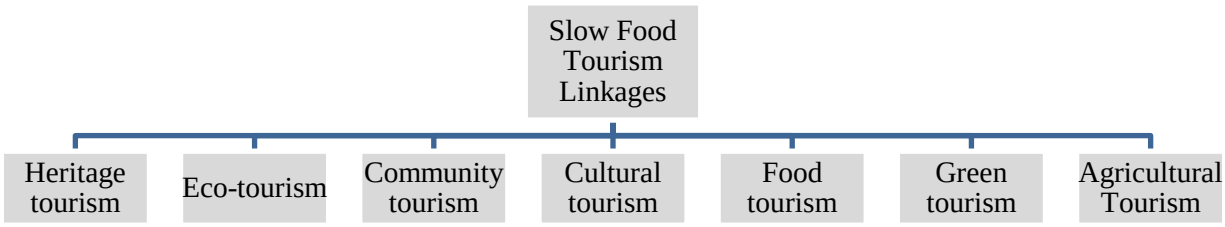
A Blueprint for Slow Food Agricultural Linkage to Latin America Tourism

Slow Food is a global movement founded by Carlo Petrini in 1986 (2006). Promoted as an option to fast food and industrial agriculture, it emphasizes farming of plants, seeds and livestock indigenous to the local environment and places emphasis on traditional and regional cuisine. According to Slow Food, the movement has expanded since its inception to over 100,000 members in 153 countries (Slow Food, 2011). Slow Food's goals of sustainable foods and support of local micro businesses correspond with its anti-globalization of agricultural products philosophy. The Slow Food movement incorporates a series of objectives within its mission, including; lobbying for the inclusion of organic farming concerns within agricultural policy; developing various political programs to preserve family farms; forming and sustaining seed banks to preserve heirloom varieties; developing an "Ark of Taste" for each eco-region, where local culinary traditions and foods are celebrated; preserving and promoting local and traditional food products, along with their lore and preparation; organizing small-scale processing (including facilities for slaughtering and short run products); organizing celebrations of local cuisine within regions; educating citizens about the drawbacks of commercial agribusiness and factory farms; lobbying against government funding of genetic engineering; lobbying against the use of pesticides.

Tourists visit Slow Food restaurants more than locals, but Slow Food and its sister movements are still young. In the U.S.A. the interest in Slow Food ideals is increasing rapidly, with large grocery store chains and restaurants all noting consumers demand for locally sourced organic foods. Farmer's markets, which had all but disappeared two decades ago, are sprouting up in cities and towns all across the U.S.A. According to the Organic Trade Association 2011 report, U.S. sales of organic food and beverages have grown from $1 billion in 1990 to $26.7 billion in 2010. Sales in 2010 grew 7.7 % over 2009 sales. The highest growth in sales during 2010 was experienced by organic fruits and vegetables, an increase of 11.8% over 2009 sales. The consumers that participate in Slow Food concept bring these ideals with them when they travel as various type of tourist (see figure 1 Slow Food Tourism linkages). These tourists are looking for authenticity when they travel, not just in their excursion experiences but in their food and beverage tourism. Global tourist are increasingly willing to pay premiums for safe, organic, and sustainable products that address their health concerns, as well as their

interests in preserving the environment and fighting poverty (Ptifzer & Krishnaswamy, 2007). Tourism can and does provide backward economic linkages to agriculture.

Figure 1: Slow Food Tourism linkages



Agricultural Products Linkages

High quality food, consistently, is vital to hotels, lodges and resorts. Frequently the food expenditures of a tourism site are huge in the context of the neighboring economy, but amazingly little is spent locally, even when agriculture is nearby. The difficulties of shifting food-sourcing to local farmers are substantial, however if it can be done in a way that meets the marketplace's needs and consumers preferences, this is one way in which tourism operations can drastically expand their involvement to local economic development. Common problems of using locally

Figure 2: Agricultural Product Linkages

sourced products are well recognized – inadequate quality, reliability, or volume of produce, exacerbated by poor transport and lack of communication and information between supplier and purchaser (see concept map 1).

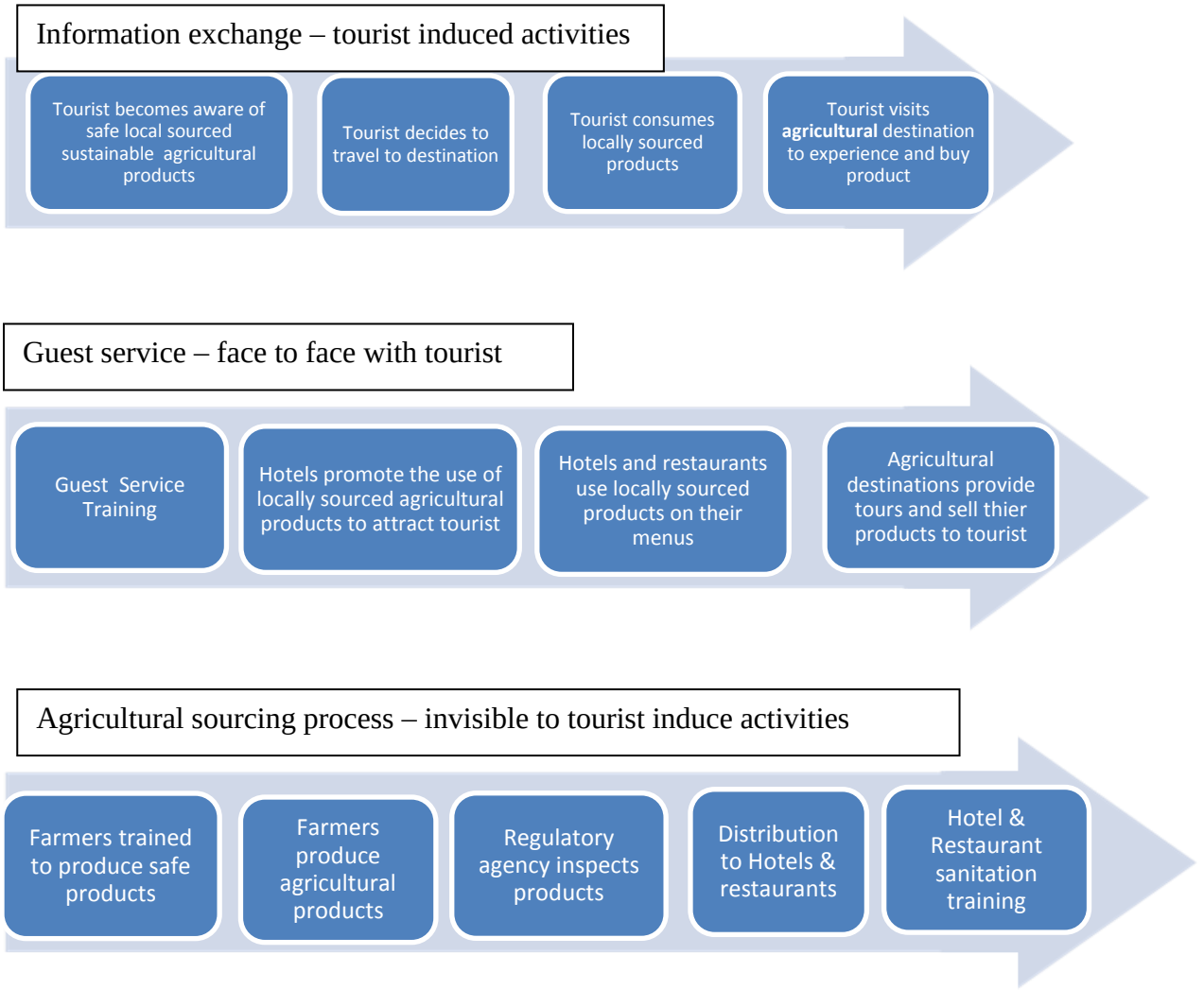
In order to create sustainable and beneficial linkages between tourism and agriculture all factors need to be taken into account. A common problem in expanding agriculture and tourism linkages is often the disparity between supply and demand and the lack of institutional support structures that enable buyers and suppliers to work together. The Farmers Program initiated and supported by the Sandals Group in the Caribbean is a good example of a Slow Food model whereby a private sector entity focuses on all three categories by becoming engaged in a) channeling and creating demand for local products among its staff and customers; b) supporting the supply side to deliver quality and quantity required; and c) establishing workable communication structures between supply and demand (Ashley, De Brine, Lehr & Wilde, 2007). Despite initial problems, progress was made. The project began with ten farmers supplying two hotels, but now involves 80 farmers across the island. Within three years sales had risen from US$60,000 to $3.3 million. Farmers' income had increased and is more reliable, while hotels have gained from a wider variety of good quality local produce and cost savings. The program has been expanded to St Lucia where it is still in operation. In St Lucia, Oxfam Caribbean is focusing specifically on agriculture-tourism linkages, and is working with farmers to increase their capacity to supply tourism businesses. To encourage hotels to purchase from local farmers, incentives are being developed including accreditation for hotels that buy locally, marketing material for hotels to put in their brochures about their local purchasing, and governmental incentives (e.g. tax benefits) for those that contribute to poverty-reducing objectives (Caribbean Policy Development Centre, 2008).

Torres, in a review of agriculture-tourism linkages in Cancun (Mexico), argues that '*creating tourism and agriculture linkages represents perhaps the greatest opportunity to channel tourism industry benefits to the rural poor living on the periphery*' (2004); however, the experience to date was disappointing. Although virtually all Cancun's procurement was from within Mexico, it was not local. At the time, only 4.5% of fruit, 3.4% of vegetables and 1% of meat consumed by hotels and restaurants was supplied by producers in Quintana Roo (the area adjacent to Cancun).The implications of the Cancun study is that to successfully stimulate linkages requires a coordinated effort across both the agriculture and tourism sectors (see concept map 1); intensive investment in agriculture; establishment of strategic alliances; establishment of marketing links that are robust enough to break into existing patterns and respected as fair and reliable; and an integrated approach that covers all aspects of production, producer organization, post-harvest handling infrastructure, and marketing. However, all these obstacles could be surmounted if agricultural development had been incorporated into the overall planned tourism development process (Torres, 2003).

When regional governments do not articulate a tangible strategy for integrated regional development, the notion that somehow poor local farmers can "rise to the challenge" and begin producing agricultural products for tourism is a fallacy. Without the

necessary capital investment, technical assistance, proper training, cooperative farmer organization, market access, and support programs, this is a near impossible feat for impoverished subsistence farmers. This study proposes an Agricultural and Tourism Linkage Blueprint (see figure 3) to address these issues.

Figure 3: Agricultural and Tourism Linkage Blueprint

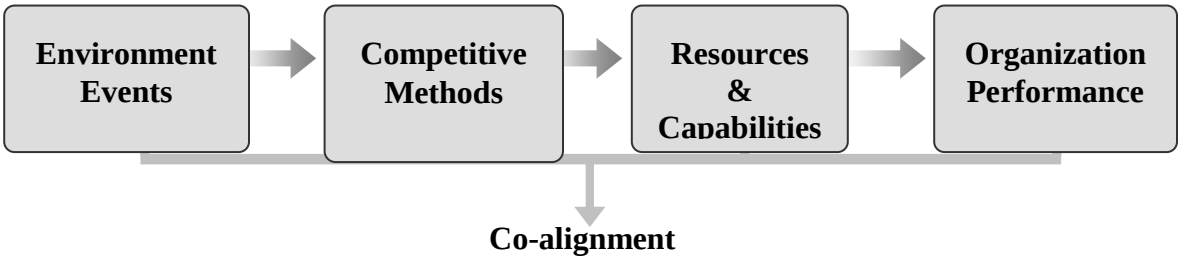


The proposed Agricultural and Tourism Linkage Blueprint has three mapping processes occurring simultaneously, agricultural and tourism linkage process (invisible to tourist), guest service (face to face with tourist), information exchange (tourist induced activities), that are required to function cohesively for the strategy to work. Knowing what products to produce, producing the correct product, distributing the product, and meeting the requirements of the end user and tourist, are all of equal importance. Without each phases of the process being implemented correctly the blueprint strategy does not succeed. By incorporating what has been learned in past studies and trials, the researchers hope to create and implement a successful new strategy based on the blue print and the hospitality co-alignment theory framework.

Co-Alignment Model to Promote Sustainable Local Agricultural Products in Latin America

The co-alignment theory is the framework for this research and conceptualizes the interaction between four constructs in the model (See figure 4, Co-alignment Model). Co-alignment is achieved when the four constructs (environmental events; competitive methods; resources and capabilities; organization performance) are brought into alignment with each other under the organizations overarching strategy (Olsen, West & Tse, 1998; 2008). The co-alignment theory posits if an organization is able to align itself with the opportunities that exist in the forces driving change in the environment, invest in competitive methods that take advantage of these opportunities and allocate resources and capabilities in support of the chosen competitive methods, then the organization will achieve the desired results.

Figure 4: Co-alignment Model



Environmental scanning is the first of the four constructs of the co-alignment model. Pinto and Olsen (1987) defined environmental scanning "as the process of probing an organization/s external environment for information which may be directly or indirectly relevant to top management in making decisions of a long term strategic nature" (p. 183). Environmental scanning is performed at multiple levels such as remote, task, functional and organization (Olsen et. al., 1998; West & Anthony, 1990).

Strategy choice, the second component of the co-alignment theory, is the organization's purposeful choice of the competitive methods to compete in the market place and should be reflective of the organization's intended strategy. Competitive methods are bundles of goods and services combined in unique ways so as to produce a sustainable competitive advantage. The entire set of an organization's competitive methods is their strategic portfolio of goods and services which should set an organization apart from its competitors.

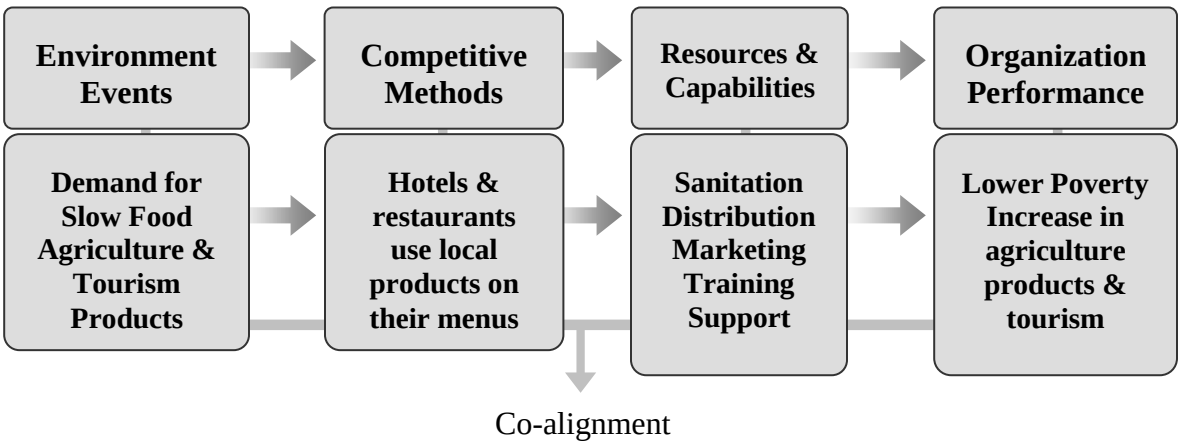
In order for an organization to achieve alignment it must efficiently, consistently and effectively allocate its scarce resources to the implementation of its competitive methods. To do this the organization must develop or already possess the resources and capabilities, the third component of the co-alignment theory, needed to carry this out (Olsen, West & Tse, 2008). The alignment of competitive methods and capabilities should produce a competitive advantage that cannot be easily copied or substituted and is sustainable. The essence of good strategy is to be able to position the organization to

achieve a sustainable competitive advantage in one or more areas, which will enable the organization to achieve the desire outcome (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990). To do this the organization must not only be successful in crafting a good strategy, competitive methods and capabilities, but the organization must be highly successful in the implementation phase of the plan.

Implementation is a process that occurs within the contextual environment of the organization and directly impacts the organization's performance (de Chabert, 1998). The circumstances of each organization are unique and this will affect the implementation process in different ways. This is part of the reason that organizations are successful in implementation to varying degrees. Therefore, the implementation of strategy is the outcome of the actions of the organization within its context, as those actions impact the activities of the process. The main contextual variables that impact the process according to Schmelzer and Olsen (1994) are perceived environmental uncertainty, organizational structure (decision making, formalization, and hierarchy) and organizational culture. The process variables that are involved in implementation are information systems, planning and control, project initiation style, resource allocation, method of training and the outcome variable of rewards. All of these variables can make for a highly convoluted process and a difficult measurement challenge.

The co-alignment model offers a more holistic approach to the study of agriculture and tourism linkages (see figure 5, Slow Food Agriculture & Tourism Co-alignment Model), both forward and backward, that extend outside the narrow analysis of restaurant, hotel and resort buying patterns to capture the true intricacy of their relationships. Research must draw on a broad range of stakeholders including farmers, agricultural institutions, chefs, suppliers, tourists, and government officials, among others, to understand the nature of these forward and backward linkages, as well as the constraints imposed by the contextual operating environment.

Figure 5: Slow Food Agriculture & Tourism Co-alignment Model



Multiple factors are identified in this research that clearly exerts substantial influence over issues that have not previously been explored in depth and which clearly merit serious academic attention. Specifically, some of the areas requiring more research include Slow Food tourist consumption patterns and preferences; the hospitality industry's perceptions of the local environment and agriculture; institutional infrastructure; the market place issues of distribution, corruption and monopolies; sanitation and safety training concerns; and agricultural support services. Lastly, examination of Slow Food tourism and sustainable agriculture must be studied within the context of the local farming community and ultimately, the business environmental context of the destination country. Analysis of hospitality purchasing patterns provides only a partial picture; while they are important for identifying linkages, they do not operate in a vacuum of the political economy of local agriculture.

The following research objectives are proposed:

1. Identify the perceived local produce from tourist perspectives regarding the sourcing of local food products to help the poor in Latin America through agritourism.
2. Assess the capability of Latin American destinations/communities providing produce for tourism and hospitality organizations (i.e. hotels, restaurants, attractions).
3. Provide specific recommendations for destinations to educate and promote the standards of food safety for destination community (farmers, fresh food and beverages providers) supplying the tourism industry.

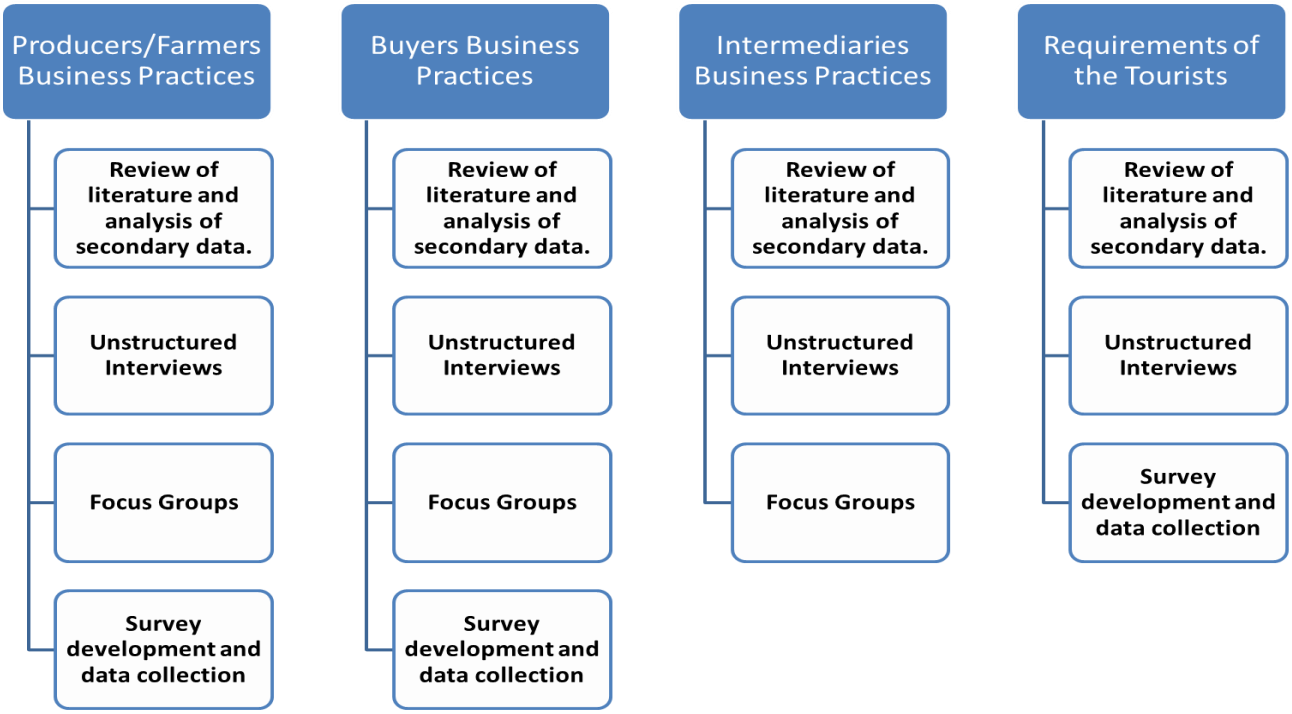
The following research questions are proposed:

1. How will improving tourism and agriculture linkages present an important potential method for stimulating local agriculture production and retaining tourism earnings in the region, while improving the distribution of tourism benefits to the rural poor and farmers?
2. Do transforming farmers and rural inhabitants into economic stakeholders and recipients of tourism represent an important opportunity to improve life for Latin America's poorest and most disenfranchised peoples?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The realization of the previously mentioned objectives is based on a rigorous research methodology. The methodology combines qualitative and quantitative research processes to ensure the validity of the findings (See figure 4). This process considers four constituents (Producers/Farmers, Buyers, Intermediaries, Tourists).

Figure 4: Proposed Methodology



Study Area

The three main tourism areas in Ecuador are Pichincha, Guayas and Manabi. These touristic areas also coincide with a high incidence of poverty. The study will mainly focus on these three areas as case studies applying the models discussed previously.

Review literature and analysis of secondary data

The research process will start with a review of relevant literature related to critical success factors and challenges faced by poor agricultural producers and farmers. Secondary analysis will be conducted in order to determine current levels of agricultural output and tourism output. Finally, the incidence of poverty among farmers in the three zones, as it relates to tourism, will be reviewed.

The review process and analytical documentation is a continuous investigation process, which means the time allocated to this step will extend to the end of the project. This stage of the project will include visits to Washington, D.C., and Quito, Ecuador for documentation analysis.

Unstructured interviews/site visit

A total of 30 unstructured interviews with producers/farmers will be conducted. The sample selection will be completed in consultation with local experts and recommendations made by survey interviewees. Participant population should include small, medium, and large producers/farmers. The sample selection process will consider

gender and ownership. This will take place for each of the zones identified (Pichincha, Guayas, and Manabi). A snowball sampling process will be followed where interviewees recommend others to be interviewed.

The objective of the unstructured interviews is to explore issues related to challenges and opportunities in the production system. In addition, these interviews will facilitate the recruiting for the focus groups. All interviews will be transcribed, translated and submitted for data analysis. This process involves cleaning, coding, content analysis, theming, and topic categorization. Triangulation procedures will be employed to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings.

Site visits to each of the three zones will coincide with the interviews. During these visits investigators will assess the living conditions of the poor and the infrastructure capabilities of the farmers/producers and tourism businesses. The site visits will expose opportunities and constraints, and aid understanding of the processes in place to help seize those opportunities and overcome those constraints.

Focus groups

A total of three focus groups with convenience samples of producers/farmers will be conducted in each zone identified (Pichincha, Guayas, Manabi). The sample selection will be completed in consultation with the local experts. The characteristics of the participants should include small, medium, and large producers/farmers. The sample selection process will consider gender and ownership.

The objectives of the focus groups are to further explore issues related to:

- Production systems
- Distribution challenges
- Business needs and opportunities

All focus groups reports will be recorded, transcribed, translated and subjected to data analysis. This process involves cleaning, coding, content analysis, theming, and categories of topics. Triangulation procedures will be employed to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings.

Survey development and data collection

Based on the qualitative information collected during the unstructured interviews and focus groups, a questionnaire will be designed for gathering information from the specific populations of farmers and producers. The questionnaire(s) will reflect differences in gender, geography, and culture. Sample size and data collection procedures will be determined in conjunction with local experts and accessibility considerations evaluated. Data collection will be conducted on-site as designated by local experts. This phase will consist of:

1) Producing the survey questionnaire: The survey questionnaires will be printed for data collection from selected farmers and producers.

2) Conducting on-site survey: The researchers will organize training workshops to ensure interviewer competency. The researchers will train nine Ecuadorian trainers on how to conduct on-site survey interview procedures and data management strategies. The nine trainers will then conduct training sessions to train Ecuadorian interviewers in on-site survey and probing methods for eliciting data and information from participants. Once trained, the interviewers, under the supervision of three trainers, will collect questionnaires from each zone. Pinchincha and Guayas respectively will be targeted for 65 useable producer/farmer surveys each. Manabi will collect 65 producers/farmers surveys as well. The completed questionnaires will then be coded and entered by the Ecuadorian interviewers into an IBM Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) database designed by the research team. The database system for data entry will be designed by Rosen College.

3) Data analysis and composition of the draft report: Collected data will be analyzed. A draft report will be completed and submitted for review by local counterparts.

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THE FREE PROVISION OF SERVICES IN THE FIELD OF GUIDED TOURS: A LEGAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

An important position is held in tourist activities by the profession of a tour guide. The role of the tour guide is connected with various and diverse social roles. Therefore, the profession of a tour guide requires high levels of qualifications, so that quality of services rendered can be safeguarded and public interest can be promoted. For this reason, pursuing the career of a tour guide in many countries requires special training. The European Standardization Committee has determined that the profession of tour guide constitutes a "local specialization" profession. This point of view forms the reason justifying the reaction of the Mediterranean countries of the European Union (EU) towards free provision of services of a tour guide. They maintain that their cultural heritage is particularly significant and the diffusion of its cultural dimension by a tour guide calls for skills to be obtained by special training at the host country. Thus, although freedom of movement of labour and provision of services constitute fundamental principles of the EU, they are both met with difficulties when applied to the profession of the tour guide. In the present survey, the institutional framework of practicing the profession of a tour guide in Greece is registered; EU's appeals against countries which regulate practicing the profession of a tour guide differently are analyzed and the efforts of the Greek state to comply with the EU directives while simultaneously protecting public interest are explored.

KEYWORDS**:** tour guide, cultural heritage, legal protection, free provision of services.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism, as a multifarious social phenomenon, comprises a multitude of activities, for its provision as a service. An important position is held in tourist activities by the profession of the tour guide. From an historical viewpoint, the role of the tour guide dates back to the Grand Tour of 18th and 19th century (Cohen, 1985; Brodsky-Porges, 1981; Hilbert, 1969; Lambert, 1935). Despite the seeming simplicity of the term, the concept of a conducted tour is a complex one. According to Oxford English

Dictionary, (1933:IV-490), a tour guide is "the person who leads or shows the way, especially to a traveler in a foreign country. Moreover, a guide is a person employed to lead a traveler or a tourist (i.e to a mountain, through a forest or a city or into a building) and to point out sights of interest".

According to the Association of Tour Managers and the European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (EFTGA) "a tour guide is the person guiding groups or individual visitors from abroad or from the home country around the monuments, sites and museums of a city or region; interpreting in an inspiring and entertaining manner, in the language of the visitor's choice, the cultural and natural heritage and environment" (EFTGA, 1998). The role of a modern tour guide, however, is connected to the various social roles he is expected to perform. Thus, he simultaneously plays both the role of the "pathfinder", which refers to the primary meaning, as well as the role of the "mentor", which refers to the secondary meaning of the term. Both these two roles, inextricably connected to each other, comprise the concept of modern guide. According to Cohen (1985:7), the role of a tour guide as a "spiritual" leader, dates back to antiquity and the need to lead pilgrims through a "spiritual journey". By analogy, the guide constituted the leader in an allegorical pilgrimage in space (geographical) and in time (spiritual). Nowadays, through the development of international journeys as well as technology, the concept of a tour guide evolves into new, broadened roles. Therefore, a tour guide is at the same time a leader as well as a mediator (de Kadt, 1979; Nettekoven, 1979:142; Pearce, 1982:73, Cohen, 1985:9-10), a middleman (van der Berghe, 1980:381), a "culture interpreter" and a "culture broker" (Smith, 1992; Mc Kean, 1976), since he facilitates and increases the intercultural communication and comprehension of the people and the culture of a place.

Since a great part of the services rendered by tour guides refer to the cultural environment of a country, they become its "ambassadors" in a certain way. Furthermore, it is claimed that tour guides do not restrict themselves in mere presentation of information, such as dates, numbers and events, but they also voice the official tourist policy of a state, thus creating a "tourist image". In countries with a non-liberal regime, they can create further socio-political impressions to visitors, as part of "national propaganda campaign" (Cohen, 1985:15). Consequently the profession of a guide requires high levels of qualifications, so that quality of services rendered may be safeguarded and public interest be promoted, as this is closely related to the preservation of the historical and cultural heritage of a country.

Therefore, pursuing the career of a tour guide requires special training in many countries. Moreover, the European Standardization Committee has defined the profession of a tour guide as a "local specialization"[25], requiring knowledge of the history and cultural heritage of a place and experience gained at educational excursions. The above view forms the reason justifying the reaction of the Mediterranean countries of the EU against the free provision of services of a tour guide. They claim that their cultural heritage is particularly significant, and the diffusion of its cultural dimension by the tour guide calls for skills to be obtained by special training at the host country. Thus, although

[25] Article 3, preamble to the draft of the bill for "functional arrangement and other regulations".

freedom of movement of employees and provision of services constitute fundamental EU principles, they encounter difficulties when applied to the profession of the tour guide. Free provision of services of tour guides is questioned when they temporarily move from one EU country to another, accompanying a group of tourists, and eventually return to their permanent place of residence.

METHODOLOGY

Since little has been written concerning the profession of a tour guide in EU member states, a survey was conducted in legal data banks, aiming at recording the existing institutional framework in Greece concerning practicing the profession of a tour guide. At the same time, the emerging tendencies within the EU framework were investigated through Treaties, Directives, appeals to the European Court, and decisions related to practicing the profession of a tour guide in EU member states[26]. Subsequently, an effort is made towards a legal interpretation and evaluation of the level of compliance or not, of the Greek state.

The Greek legal framework for services rendered by a tour guide

The basis for the legal framework for services rendered by a tour guide in Greece, is the Law 710/77 (Official Gazette 283/A) concerning tour guides. Specifically the Article 1, paragraph 1, states that "a guide or explainer is a person accompanying native or foreign travelers or visitors to the country, guiding them and pointing out the sights of the place, its ancient or historical monuments, its works of art of any period, expounding their significance to them, as well as their purpose and history, while providing further information regarding ancient and modern Greece". To pursue the career of a tour guide, the candidate is expected to be provided with the corresponding license, granted by the Ministry of Tourism, exclusively to graduates of the Schools for Tour Guides of the Organisation of Tourism Education and Training (OTEK). OTEK constitutes a legal entity of public law, and is under the supervision of the Ministry of Tourism. The purpose and mission of schools for tour guides[27] is to train students for the profession of a tour guide in Greece (Article 1, paragraph 1 and 2 of Law 710/77). Colleges for tour guides operate in Athens and Thessaloniki on a permanent basis. A three-year-tenure Scientific Committee in charge of scientific and educational issues is in operation, to ensure the smooth running of the college for guides (Mylonopoulos, 2011:104).

To be admitted to the College, candidates take exams in various subjects, such as essay writing, Greek geography and history. Studies at the College last for five semesters and the curriculum includes tuition of subjects, visits to museums and archaeological sites, training and educational guided tours, guided tours en route, attendance of

[26] LAW, legal data base at Lawdb.intrasoftnet.com, National Printing Office at www.et.gr, European Parliament at www.europarl.europa.eu, European Court, Case-law, at http://curia.europa.eu/juris/recherche.jsf?language=el

[27] With the decision No T/5030/2.12.98 of the Minister of Development (Official gazette 1258/B), "concerning approbation of the regulation for operation of the College for tour guides, by the Greek National Tourism Organization", and with the No T/7662 Joint Ministerial Decision of the Deputy Minister of Development and the Minister of Education and Religion (Official gazette 1375/B), amendment to the regulation for operation of the College for tour guides".

professional guided tours, as well as speeches and lectures. Subjects being specialized, emphasis is laid on Greek history (Ancient, Byzantine and Modern), history of art, Greek mythology, history of Greek literature, history of Greek music and dances, Greek geography, Greek archaeological and tourist legislation, etc. It is evident that the Greek state lays great importance on educating and training the guide in order for him to be able to illustrate the cultural heritage of the country.

Influence of the European Union law. Provision of services of a guide in the EU is regulated by provisions of the European Economic Community (EEC) Treaty bearing on the issues of prohibiting any discrimination based on nationality, unhindered movement of labour, free settlement and free provision of services. Significant amendments on the Greek legal framework took place, so that Greek legislation concerning guides would be adapted to the provisions of the Articles 7, 48, 52 and 59 of the EEC Treaty[28]. Article 2, Law 710/77 was amended by the Article 2 of the Presidential Decree 309/1987[29], according to which working license for a tour guide can also be granted to citizens of the EEC member states holding a degree of the College for tour guides by the Greek National Tourism Organization, on the same conditions. With Article 2 of the Pres. Decree 273/93, paragraphs 4 and 5 are added[30] to the Article 1 of Law 710/77. According to paragraph 4, a guide who is an EU member state subject, is entitled to provide the services of a guide in Greece when accompanying a group of tourists emanating from an EU member state conducting a guided tour, with specific duration and fixed route to sites other than museums and historical monuments. According to paragraph 5, the tour guide who wishes to exercise the above right should be equipped either with a working license, obtained as stipulated by the legislation of the member state of their origin or emanation, or with a certificate, granted by the responsible authorities of the member state of their origin or emanation, stating that the aforementioned person has practiced the profession of a guide for two years' full time employment, or for the equivalent of that period in part time employment during the past ten years, and is qualified with one or more degrees of post-secondary or tertiary education demonstrating knowledge of Greek civilization or long periods of it. In the above certificate, the following must be explicitly stated: a) the particular degrees held by the guide (full title, date, institution that granted them, etc.) and b) the course or the particular series of courses among the total of the subjects taught for the acquisition of the degree whose tuition certifies sufficient knowledge of Greek civilization. The above-mentioned guide must bear an official translation of those documents by the competent Greek consulate, obtained at the member state of their origin or emanation, which must be promptly displayed whenever required by a tourist police constable.
Paragraph 4 of Article 1, of Law 710/77 was amended[31] by Article 2, Pres. Decree 340/96, as it had been amended by Article 2 of Pres. Decree 273/93 (off.gaz.149/A).

[28] Today, in the Treaty of Lisbon in effect, these correspond to Articles 18 (citizenship), 45 (free circulation of employed persons), 49 (freedom of settlement), 56 (free rendering of services).
[29] Presidential Decree 309/87 (official gazette149/A) "Amendment of law 710/77 concerning guides".
[30] Pres. Decree 273/1993 (off. gaz. 117/A), "Amendment of stipulations of law 710/77 "Concerning guides" in compliance with Article 59 of the EEC Treaty concerning free provision of services".
[31] Presidential Decree 340/1996 (official gazette 225/A) "Amendment of Pres. Decree 273/1993 Amendment of regulations of law 710/1977 concerning tour guides, in compliance to Article 59 of the EEC Treaty, regarding free provision of services (official gazette 117/A)".

Thus a guide who is a citizen of a member state of the EU and a member state of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), apart from Switzerland, is entitled to providing the services of a tour guide in Greece when accompanying a group of tourists emanating from a member state of the European Financial Region, during a conducted tour with specific duration and fixed route, apart from museums and historical monuments. The above guide must bear an official translation of the aforementioned documents by the authorities of the member state of the guide's origin or emanation, which must be presented whenever requested by the authorized constable, in accordance with the currently valid legislation.

Provisions of Law 710/77 concerning guides were amended[32] by Law 3766/2009. Particularly Article 3 of the above law states that a working license for a guide is granted to:

a. Greek subjects or citizens of the EU member states, holding a diploma by the School for Tour Guides of the Organisation of Tourism Education and Training (OTEK), providing that they have accomplished their military obligations or have been legally exempted, on condition that they have not been irrevocably convicted for theft, embezzlement, fraud, extortion, forgery, perjury, lodging a false complaint against someone, libel, violation of the legislation concerning narcotics, smuggling, national currency and antiquities or crimes incurring even temporary loss of their political rights.

b. Citizens of the EU member states qualified with the post-secondary diploma required by the competent authority of their member state of origin for the practice of the profession of a tour guide, on condition that: aa) they are well versed in Greek civilization, Greek history and archaeology, which is proved by successful attendance of the relevant subjects within the range of post-secondary studies, bb) they have carried out sustained practice on educational tours in archaeological sites, museums and historical monuments of Greece, cc) EU state member candidates, apart from Greece, as well as non-natives of Greek origin must hold a "C" level certificate of knowledge of Greek, issued by the Greek Language Centre or the Institute for Greek as a foreign language, dd) they have completed their military obligations or have been legally exempted. No completion of their military service is required for the EU member state subjects who bear no such obligation in their country, ee) they have not been irrevocably convicted for theft, embezzlement, fraud, extortion, forgery, perjury, lodging a false complaint against someone, libel, violation of the legislation concerning narcotics, smuggling, national currency and antiquities or crimes incurring even temporary loss of their political rights.

Subsequently, a Joint Ministerial Decision was issued in 2010, regulating temporary provision of services in Greece by professional EU state member subjects, including Greek citizens, who have settled down in the above states and are qualified for practicing the profession of a tour guide[33].

[32] Law 3766/2009 (off. gazette 102/A) "Functional arrangement and other regulations".

[33] Joint ministerial decision 165255/IA/2010 (official gazette 2157/B) of the Ministry of Education and Religion as well as Ministry of Tourism and Civilization, "free rendering of services in Greece by professional subjects of EU member states, in compliance with the provisions of articles 5-9 of Pres. Decree 38/2010" and Presidential Decree 38/2010 (of. Gazette 78/A) "Adaptation of Greek legislation to Directive 2005/36/European Parliament of the European Parliament and the Council of September 7, 2005, regarding recognition of professional qualification". Articles 5-9 in Title II- Free Rendering of Services.

According to Article 2, tour guides traveling within the Greek state for temporary and occasional provision of services, are to submit to the respective authority (Ministry of Tourism) a written statement regarding the temporary provision of services in Greece, therein stating their personal details, ways of contacting them, as well as professional and insurance details. The Ministry of Tourism, following examination of the above documents, provides the applicant with the relevant certification, attesting that the requirements for the temporary and occasional rendering of services by the guide are met.

Based on Article 14 of the Presidential decree 38/2010, the 88985/IA/2011 Joint Ministerial decision was issued (official gazette 2047/B) on "terms and procedure of holding countervailing measures in conformity to Pres. Decree 38/2010 for the profession of a tour guide". In accordance with the above, the countervailing measures for the profession of a guide are either doing practical training for adaptation or being tested for adequacy, the choice made by the interested party. The Ministry of Tourism is in charge of the supervision of the countervailing measures. A *Coordinator for Practical Exercise for Adaptation* is appointed therein, regularly ensuring whether the exercise is carried out properly, and updating the "Record of Trainees" kept for that reason. This Ministerial Decision regulates all the details for the granting of the certificates of "Completion of Practical Training for Adaptation" and "Success at the adequacy test" so that the final decision of recognition of professional qualification may be issued, as stipulated in Article 54 of the Presidential Decree 38/2010.

Application of the Commission against EU member states. In 1989 an action was filed by the Commission before the Court against three EU member states (Greece, Italy and France) because these states required special training certified by a diploma for the practicing of the profession of a tour guide, in violation of Article 59 of the EEC Treaty. All three states were accused of causing legal hindrance to the activities of tour guides accompanying groups of tourists, coming from a different member state (Mylonopoulos & Moira, 2011:127; Pliakos, 2009:341).

The Court agreed that free rendering of services can be restricted by regulations justifiable on account of reasons of public interest[34] which are applied to all persons and businesses operating within the state where the service is provided (Pliakos, 2006:63). Public interest towards the right appreciation of points of view and issues of historical interest, as well as the optimum dissemination of knowledge of artistic and cultural heritage of a country constitutes peremptory reason justifying restrictions in free provision of services. However, a member state that makes services of a guide (accompanying a group of tourists emanating from a different member state, where those services consist in leading tourists around sites except for museums and historical sites to be visited only with a specialized guide) dependent upon possession of a license demanding special professional qualifications and is usually obtained by success in examinations, imposes limitations exceeding whatever is necessary for the protection of public interest.

[34] The Court established according to case law the possibility of non application of free circulations of employees for reasons of protecting public interest.

Case C-198/89 Commission against Greece. With a legal deed submitted by the Commission to the Court Secretariat on June 20, 1989, an action was filed[35], based on Article 169 of the EEC Treaty, requesting to be acknowledged that Greece breached its obligations stemming from Article 59 of the EEC Treaty. The reason for this being that Greece makes provision of services by guides accompanying groups of tourists from other member states dependent on possession of a license requiring special training to be certified by diploma, when those services comprise of guiding tourists round sites other than museums and historical monuments, where special professional guide is required (Case C-198/89:I-00727).

It is stressed on the grounds of the case that: a) Articles 59 and 60 of the EEC Treaty not only require the abolition of discriminations against a person providing services on account of their nationality, but also the abolition of any restriction to the free provision of services imposed because of the fact that the provider of services is settled in a member state other than the one where the service is provided, b) The obligation imposed by Greek legislation constitutes a restriction to the free provision of services, as it makes provision of services of a tour guide (traveling with a group of tourists from another member state) dependent upon the possession of specific professional qualifications. c) free provision of services, being one of the fundamental principles of the Treaty, can only be restricted by regulations justifiable on the grounds of public interest and are applied to all persons and businesses within the state where the service is provided, to the extend that this interest is not safeguarded by the rules which the provider of services is subject to, at their state of residence. d) The Greek Republic maintains that its respective legislation is justified on account of public interest, which is the proper appreciation of the cultural and archaeological heritage[36] of the country and the consumers' protection, all the more so, since profession of the guide is plied with no professional qualification in certain member states. e) Public interest concerning the correct appreciation of the artistic and archaeological heritage and the consumers' protection can constitute peremptory reason *justifying restrictions of free provision of services, but the requirements of Greek legislation exceeds the necessary measure towards safeguarding its protection,* as it makes the activities of a guide accompanying a group of tourist from another member state dependent upon possession of a license. A guide accompanying a group of tourists from another member state, operates under particular circumstances, with the result that tourists of the group become recipients of

[35] Prior to this, a letter of formal notice had been dispatched on behalf of the Commission, on February 23, to the Greek Republic for its non complicity to Community Law and in particular Article 59 of the EEC Treaty, as regards rendering of services of a guide traveling with a group of tourists emanating from another member state. The Greek Republic challenged the point of view of the Commission, by its letter of May 14 1987. On April 20 1988, the Commission issued a grounded opinion reiterating its view and requesting that the Greek State take the necessary measures in compliance to the above, within a deadline of two months. On ascertaining that the Greek Republic did not agree with its point of view, the Commission filed the aforementioned action.

[36] Within this scope, the fundamental difference between oral and written transmission of information regarding the aforementioned heritage is underlined. Greek authorities control the quality of the printed material circulating within the country, and make sure that the material distributed outside Greece presents the artistic and cultural heritage of the country in the right manner. On the other hand, control of information orally announced by the guide to a particular group of tourists during a conducted tour is difficult.

the services of a guide accustomed to their language, interests and specific expectations, f) regulation of the Greek legislation is disproportionate compared to the target, which is to safeguard correct appreciation of points of issue and items of historical interest, the furthest possible spreading of knowledge as well as the artistic and cultural heritage of the member state where the tour is conducted, as well as consumers' protection.

In the dictum, the Court states that the Greek Republic breached the obligations it is liable to, according to Article 59 of the EEC Treaty, by making the provision of services of a guide (traveling with a group of tourists emanating from another member state, where the above services comprise of leading tourists round sites other than museums and historical monuments, only to be visited by a specialized professional guide) dependent on the possession of a license requiring special training, certified by a diploma.

Case C-154/89 Commission against France. In a complaint lodged by the Commission to the Court Secretariat on May 2 1989, it filed an action based on Article 169 of the EEC Treaty, requesting acknowledgment that the French Republic breached its obligations stemming from article 59 of the EEC Treaty. This is due to the fact that it makes the provision of services by guides (accompanying groups of tourists from another member state, where those services comprise of leading tourists round sites in certain prefectures and municipalities, that can only be visited with a specialized professional guide) dependent on the possession of a permit requiring specific professional qualifications, usually obtained following successful partaking in examinations (Case C-154/89: I-00659).

The provisions under litigation are included in Articles 1 (c) and 10 of the Law 75 up to 627 of July 11 1975 "concerning determining the conditions for the performance of activities related to organization of journeys and tours" (Official gazette of the French Republic, 1975:7230 and its enforcement provision Official gazette of the French Republic, 1977:1890), the provision No 77-363 of March 28 1977, the way it was modified by provision No 83/912 of 13 October 1983 (Official gazette of the French Republic, 1983:3110). According to these provisions a guide is a natural person whose mission is to lead French or foreign tourists, and especially to conduct tours along national roads, museums and historical monuments, as well as public transport means. On November 21 1986, the Commission, based on Article 169 of the EEC Treaty, addressed a letter of formal notice to the French Government. According to that letter, France had not complied with the requirements of Community law, in particular Article 59 of the EEC Treaty as regards the provision of services by guides accompanying a group of tourists from another member state, on condition that the service is provided in certain areas or municipalities. By their letter of March 5 1987, French Authorities challenged the point of view of the Commission. On May 2 1988, the Commission issued a reasoned opinion, thus reiterating its point of view and requested the French Government to take the necessary measures to comply with it within a two-month period. On finding that no answer was given, the Commission filed an action.

***Case C-180/89 Commission against Italy*.** In a complaint lodged by the Commission to the Court Secretariat on May 24 1989, it filed an action based on Article 169 of the EEC Treaty, requesting acknowledgment that the Italian Republic breached its obligations stemming from Article 59 of the EEC Treaty. This is due to the fact that it makes the provision of services by guides (accompanying groups of tourists from another member state to sites other than museums and historical monuments, which can only be visited with a specialized professional guide) dependent on the possession of a license requiring specific professional qualifications, obtained after successful partaking in examinations (Case C-180/89:I-007709).

The provisions under litigation are included in Article 11 of the Law of 17 May 1983 (Official Gazette of the Italian Republic No 141 of 25 May 1983, p. 4091). According to those provisions, a guide is a person whose occupation is to accompany individuals or groups of persons on visits to places where works of art are exhibited, museums, galleries and archaeological excavations, as well as to provide commentary on points of historical, artistic or architectural interest and the landscape and natural environment (Official Gazette of the Italian Republic, 141/1983:4091).

On February 10 1987, the Commission, pursuant to Article 169 of the EEC Treaty, addressed to the Italian Government a letter of formal notice. According to that letter, Italy had not complied with the requirements of Community law, in particular Article 59 of the EEC Treaty, as regards the provision of services by tourist guides traveling with a group of tourists from another member state. By a letter dated 22 June 1987, the Italian authorities challenged the Commission's point of view. On April 20 1988 the Commission issued a reasoned opinion in which it reiterated its point of view and requested the Italian Government to adopt the necessary measures to comply with it within a period of two months. On finding that the Italian Government did not agree with its point of view, the Commission filed an action.

***Parliamentary questions*.** The issue of provision of services of a guide in a member state other than the guide's nationality or emanation has repeatedly occupied the Members of the European Parliament (MPs) by drawing up written questions[37]. As a rule, the questions raised to the Commission for an answer concerned the professional qualifications of a guide and eventualities in order for a common European adjustment to be reached, hindrance of practicing the profession of a guide, and imposition of a fine, as well as whether the various restrictions set by certain member states to foreigners, EU member state nationals who practice the profession of a guide, infringe on the freedom of provision of services.

CONCLUSION

Freedom of movement and free provision of services constitute fundamental EU principles. However, in practice their application faces difficulties stemming from the peculiarities and particular features of certain professions. The profession of a tour guide is included in them. It is evident that free provision of services of a guide is questioned

[37] See below Written questions

when the guide temporarily moves to a place, accompanying a group of tourists and subsequently returns to his place of permanent residence.

Specifically the Mediterranean countries of the EU (Italy, Greece, France, Spain) along with Portugal reacted to the free provision of services of a guide, as they maintain that their cultural heritage is particularly significant, and the diffusion of its cultural dimension by a guide calls for skills to be obtained by special training in the country of reception. It is supported that knowledge of the language contributes to that, since the language is an element of the cultural identity of each people, and consequently, by understanding the language of the country, the guide can convey its cultural dimension more convincingly. The guide is considered to be the "ambassador" of his country. His task is to initiate the guided into civilization, answer to all their queries, explain the history, the art as well as connect the remote past of the country with the present times.

By examining the judgments of the Court, it is evident that its settled case law accepts that the profession of a tour guide, in principle, falls into the range of application of free provision of services and that the state is appropriate to define the rules of admission to it, without unfavourable discriminations. Nevertheless, it acknowledges public interest, which is linked to the exploitation of the historical wealth and the optimum dissemination of information regarding the cultural heritage of a country, as a reason of exception from the principle of free provision of services. Therefore, it is explicitly stated that in museums and historical monuments, tours can only be conducted by a specialized professional guide, in accordance with the national legislation.

In conclusion, the point of view formulated is that the cultural heritage of every country has its particular dimension, which every state is entitled to protect. Therefore, every country forms its own suitable framework for the provision of services of a tour guide in museums and historical monuments, without exaggerating and extending this framework in the field of provision of services by a companion of tourists, which is wider than the concept of a tour guide.

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THE INTERNATIONALIZATION PROCESS OF THE BALEARIC HOTEL INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

This work analyzes the internationalization process followed by Balearic hotel companies, with particular emphasis in the origin, extent and nature of the expansion into Latin America and the Caribbean. We have examined the internalization process in terms of location and analyzed the reasons for internationalization and the ways of entry used. The results indicate that while from mid 1980s to 2002 the internationalization focus on LAC destinations, in the period 2003-2010 the Balearic hotel companies have risked to invest in destinations different from LAC countries to diversify risks. Furthermore, new features appear in the internationalization process such as a more oriented expansion towards urban hotels and new destinations. Balearic companies seem to have specialized in holiday hotels and larger size hotels. The main reason for the international expansion of the Balearic hotels companies was to increase profitability abroad. However, the reasons and the main factors for internationalization are changing as the companies acquire a greater international experience and brand positioning.

KEYWORDS: Balearic Hotel Industry; Internationalization.

INTRODUCTION

The potential weakness of mature destinations is due to many factors, mainly, mono-product strategy, undifferentiated products oriented towards a few markets, increasing seasonality, etc (Bardolet & Sheldon, 2008; Claver-Cortés, Molina-Azorín & Pereira-Moliner, 2007). As a result, these destinations have experienced a decrease on aggregate tourist expenditure, a reduction of business margins, the price become a key element and, in short, a loss of competitiveness. In some sense, this is the consequence of globalisation together with the consequent reduction of barriers to international investment and the introduction of new technologies that require an ongoing effort of adaptation of the economic agents. In this context, new tourism destinations appear which are characterised by a tourism product that belongs to the same segment: sun and sand niche; although they offer frequently a better relationship between price and quality (Groizard & Jacob, 2004).

Despite the Balearic Islands could be considerate as one of the best examples of mature destinations, or, using a very controversial expression, one of the best examples of "second generation" resorts (Knowles & Curtis, 1999; Morgan, 1991), the tourism continues being one of the most important economic sector for this region; it accounts for a larger proportion of GDP and employment than in other continental European areas. In fact in the Balearics it represents 43.3% of GDP and 30.3% of employment, in contrast to a 10-15% impact on the economy and life quality of continental Mediterranean regions. Indeed, the importance of tourism in the Balearic Islands is even greater than in other Spanish regions like the Canaries (27.8% of GDP and 32.8% of employment), Andalusia (12.5% and 11.9% respectively) or Valencia (12.8% and 12.6% respectively) (Exceltur, 2011). Besides, the Balearic archipelago still has a competition capacity, in terms of some competitive advantages (Aguiló, Alegre & Sard, 2005; Aguiló, 2010), such as insularity, excellent location in the Mediterranean, capacity to export hotel know how to other countries, diversity of complementary tourism products or a significant percentage of their landscape well preserved. However, the globalisation is a business opportunity for the Balearic hotel chains and they have taken profit from it in order to increase their market share and their profits.

In general, the process of internationalization of the Spanish tourism industry is fairly recent, it began about 35 years ago, and it is also a relatively low internationalized sector when compared with traditional industries (Such, 2007). Within the Spanish hotel industry, the internationalization of hotel chains of Balearic origin has led the process, establishing as a world leader in traditional market segments, but also opening new niches that were previously reserved for European and/or American companies. The expansion began in the Caribbean in the holidays segment but soon spread to other parts of Latin America and to other areas and in other niches, such as the urban hotels.

Since the mid-1980s Balearic hotel chains have experienced a process of internationalization of a great intensity (Jacob & Groizard, 2007). In 1985 Barceló Hotels & Resorts, the pioneer in this process of internationalization, started its international operations opening a hotel in Dominican Republic. Today the number of hotels operated by Balearic hotel chains worldwide is almost one thousand; more than half of them are located in foreign countries and one fourth in Latin American and Caribbean countries. This internationalization process is growing in last years, in the period 1990-1995 new hotel operations were three times greater than in 1985-1990, and since 1995 there are, on average, 17 new hotels operated per year.

The highest concentration of Balearic hotel chains is found in Latin America and the Caribbean, mainly in Dominican Republic, Mexico and Cuba[38], which tourism technological development was medium and low in comparison to the level of the Balearic hotel firms (Groizard & Jacob, 2004). This technological gap and, therefore, the superiority of the Balearic hotel companies can induce long-term development of the local economy. The market share of Balearic companies in the tourist destinations in Latin America and the Caribbean is not negligible and is comparable to that held by other tour operators from Europe or North America. Thus, the most relevant contributions of

[38] - Accounting for more than 190 hotels in 2010

the Balearic hotel chains are those which involve the actual transfer of knowledge and technology to the local economy from the multinational companies (Jacob & Groizard, 2007).

This work tries to analyse, in a descriptive way, the internationalization process followed by Balearic hotel chains, with particular emphasis to the four major Balearic hotel chains: Meliá Hotels International, Barceló Hotels & Resorts, Iberostar Hotels & Resorts and Riu Hotels & Resorts. After the introduction, the rest of the paper is structured as follows: the second section describes the process of internationalization of the Balearic hotel industry, emphasizing the origin, extent and nature of the expansion into Latin America and Caribbean countries. The third section describes the reasons for deciding the company's internationalization in Dominican Republic, bearing in mind that it was the first country where the Balearic hotel chains operated in the international arena and it continues being one of the main destination of this strategy, and the modes of entry used in that Caribbean island. Finally, the last section discusses conclusions and policy implications.

THE MAGNITUDE OF THE PHENOMENOM OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

Barceló Hotels & Resorts was the first Balearic hotel chain internationalized in Latin America and Caribbean (LAC) countries, when it opened its first hotel, the "Hotel Bavaro Beach" in Punta Cana (Dominican Republic) in 1985. In the same year (1985), Sol Meliá began its international expansion, but in Indonesia, opening its first hotel abroad, "Sol Melia Bali Hotel". Two years later, the Group Meliá followed to Barceló group with the internationalization in LAC, when it opened its first hotel in Dominican Republic. Between 1985 and 1995 almost all Balearic hotel chains opened their first hotels abroad; all of them share the same destination: the Caribbean. From then on, the international expansion intensifies with the opening of new markets and the diversification of supply to other niches (Jacob & Groizard, 2007).

This process of internationalization, taken into account the evolution of the worldwide market share of the Balearic hotel chains, is relatively recent and is going on very quick (Table 1). Thus, meanwhile, in 2002 48.1% of the 782 hotels, operated by Balearic companies in the world are located abroad (187 hotels in LAC countries and 189 hotels in the rest of the world), seven years later, in 2010, there were 52.7% of 912 hotels operated by Balearic hotel companies in the world operating in foreign countries. Therefore, the internationalization process has enlarged in a short period of time: 2003-2010.

The degree of internationalization experiences is quite different from one company to another (Table 1). In 2003, taking as a measure of internationalization the weight of the hotel establishments abroad over the total hotel supply of a company, Barceló was the Balearic hotel chain with a higher internationalization rate (78%), followed by Iberostar and Meliá (58.8% and 50.6% respectively). Later, in 2010, Oasis/Globalia occupied the first top position with 87.5%, followed closely by Piñero and Barceló ,with an internationalization rate of 75% and 72.7% , respectively. The comparison between both years concludes that Iberostar (65%), Riu (59.4%), Hotetur (43.5%) and Fiesta (34%) have increased their supply of hotels abroad.

At least three stages can be identified in the international expansion process of the Balearic hotel industry. The first stage, from 1985 to 1995, started when Barceló and Meliá groups, the leaders in the process, opened its first hotels abroad with great care and on an experimental basis. At this early stage they elected the Caribbean in order to reproduce the type of business in which these companies were specialized in the Spanish market: holiday hotels and resorts. However, they began to offer "sun-plus" holidays, such as sun plus nature and environment. These two companies defined a success path that is soon taken advantage of by followers, such as groups Riu, Iberostar and other smaller companies. In this first stage, all groups opened hotels in the Caribbean, especially in the Dominican Republic and Cuba.

The second stage took place from 1995 to 2003, when the Balearic hotel chains suffered a process of internal transformation due to changes in their organizational structures and management models. Meliá went public in 1996; it meant an increase of financial resources, partnerships and agreements with tour operators and the adoption of global distribution systems. Meanwhile, in 1996 Barceló established an alliance with the tour operator First Choice Holidays and in 1998 established a joint venture with BBVA and FCC (a construction holding) to get funding sources to support the international expansion of the group and, at the same time, it brought major technological changes in their processes of service delivery. In this second stage Riu group added to the changes of the two leaders, and after an alliance with the tour operator TUI, created a joint venture and expanded into new markets where they have been the pioneers, as the case of Jamaica (Groizard & Jacob, 2004). In addition, Hotetur (later BlueBay) started an internationalization process in 1998 when it opened 5 new hotels in the Caribbean.

The third stage takes place from 2003 on; in fact from 2003 to 2008, the annual growth rate of internationalization by hotel firms has slowed down, despite the internationalization degree continues growing. Thus, the overall internationalization rate of the Spanish firms was 67% while the hotel companies[39] presented an internationalization rate of 6.67%; therefore, they were participating in the international expansion to a lesser extent than all the Spanish companies.

Location: Diversification of destinations 2003-2010.

In 2010, 47% of hotel establishments abroad managed by Balearic companies are located in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) countries.However, in recent times there is a growing trend to open hotels in other foreign countries. Europe and the USA have turned, the main markets elected by Balearic hotel chain to operate in the international arena, through the purchases of urban domestic chains, which has allowed them to extend their diversification, becoming detached from the vacation segment in order to diversify risk (table 1)

[39] The majority of Spanish hotel companies internationalized are of Balearic origin (more than 75%).

Table 1. Evolution of the number of hotel establishments managed by Balearic chains, 2003-2010.

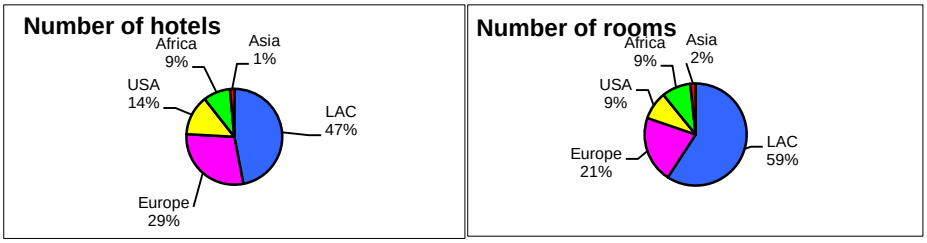
Distribution of hotel establishments of Balearic chains, 2003

FIRM	LAC	Spain	Other countries	World Total	Internationalization in LAC (%)	Internationalization in Other Countries (%)	Internationalization Total (%)
Sol Meliá	83	173	94	350	23,7	26,9	50,6
Barceló	42	31	68	141	29,8	48,2	78,0
RIU	19	58	9	86	22,1	10,5	32,6
Iberostar	15	32	18	65	23,1	27,7	50,8
Hotetur	12	46	0	58	20,7	0,0	20,7
Fiesta	6	34	0	40	15,0	0,0	15,0
Piñero	4	10	0	14	28,6	0,0	28,6
Blau	3	5	0	8	37,5	0,0	37,5
Sirenis	2	11	0	13	15,4	0,0	15,4
MAC	1	6	0	7	14,3	0,0	14,3
TOTAL	**187**	**406**	**189**	**782**	**23,9**	**24,2**	**48,1**

Distribution of hotel establishments of Balearic chains, 2010

FIRM	LAC	Spain	Other countries	World Total	Internationalization in LAC (%)	Internationalization in Other Countries (%)	Internationalization Total (%)
Sol Meliá	65	163	79	307	21,2	25,7	46,9
Barceló	35	50	98	183	19,1	53,6	72,7
RIU	31	43	32	106	29,2	30,2	59,4
Iberostar	29	35	36	100	29,0	36,0	65,0
Hotetur (BlueBay)	10	13	0	23	43,5	0,0	43,5
Fiesta	15	33	2	50	30,0	4,0	34,0
Piñero (Bahía Príncipe)	15	5	0	20	75,0	0,0	75,0
Blau	4	5	0	9	44,4	0,0	44,4
Sirenis	6	6	0	12	50,0	0,0	50,0
MAC	0	4	0	4	0,0	0,0	0,0
HM	1	4	0	5	20,0	0,0	20,0
Oasis/Globalia	7	1	0	8	87,5	0,0	87,5
Batle	2	9	0	11	18,2	0,0	18,2
IBB	0	2	5	7	0,0	71,4	71,4
Valentín	1	9	0	10	10,0	0,0	10,0
Globales	2	18	2	22	9,1	9,1	18,2
BQ	1	8	0	9	11,1	0,0	11,1
Pollensina	1	9	0	10	10,0	0,0	10,0
EIX	0	4	1	5	0,0	20,0	20,0
Blue Sea	1	14	0	15	6,7	0,0	6,7
TOTAL	**226**	**431**	**255**	**912**	**24,8**	**28,0**	**52,7**

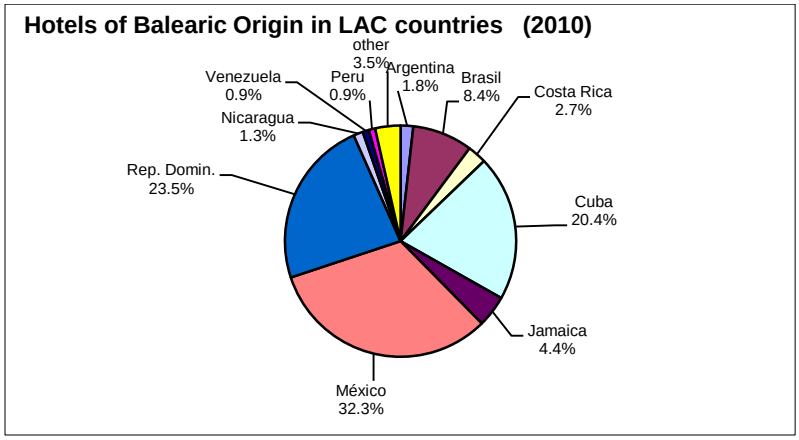
Source: Own elaboration based on data from companies' official websites and Hosteltur (2011).



Source: Own elaboration based on data from companies' official websites and Hosteltur.

Figure 1. Distribution of the Balearic Hotel chain into foreign countries, by geographical area.

Despite this diversification, LAC countries continues being an important area for the Balearic hotel chains investment abroad, in terms of number of hotels (47%), as well as in terms of number of rooms (59%) (Figure 2), especially in the Caribbean countries.



Source: Own elaboration based on data from companies' official websites and Hosteltur.

Figure 2- Distribution of the Balearic hotels in LAC countries

The geographical location analysis of the Balearic hotel chains in LAC countries points out, on the one hand, that it concentrates mainly into three countries: Mexico (with 71 hotels), Dominican Republic (with 54 hotels) and Cuba (with 46 hotels), which represent 76,2% of the total number of hotels in LAC area managed by the Balearic hotel chains. On the other hand, in the period 2003-20120 it is noteworthy that the internationalization process has opened up to new markets in LAC area, some in the exploration stage, such as Aruba, Ecuador or Guatemala, but others clearly growing, as Jamaica that has multiplied by five the Balearic hotel supply, Mexico where the Balearic hotel supply has grown by more than 50% or Argentina that has experienced an important growth going from one hotel in 2003 to three hotels in 2010. As shown in Table 2, Brazil and Costa Rica have also lost interest for the investment of the Balearic hotel multinational chains and thus, the supply in both countries has decreased significantly.

Focusing on the four major international Balearic hotel chains (Meliá, Barceló, Iberostar and Riu), it results pparadoxical than, even though Barceló and Meliá, the two largest hotel chains and the two pioneers in the internationalization process, have reduced their presence in LAC countries (Meliá, 83 vs. 65, and Barceló, 42 vs. 35), they have increased it into other countries; in other words, both companies have diversified their market. In fact, in 2010 Barceló concentrated a higher proportion of its hotel supply in the USA (35%) and Meliá had its major proportion of hotels outside Spain into other European countries (48%), in order to diversify risks. The other two Balearic hotel chains, RIU and Iberostar, have followed a different path, increasing their investments in LAC countries, as well as in other foreign destinations (Table 3).

Despite this process of market diversification, the Dominican Republic, which was the first destination for the investments of the Balearic hotel companies, continues

being an interesting destination for the Balearic hotel multinational chains[40]; thus, it results interesting analyse why the Balearic hotel chains choose this country to develop internationalization strategy.

Table 2 Distribution of Balearic hotel chains in LAC counties, 2003-2010.

2003	Number of hotels	Sol Melià	Barceló	RIU	Iberostar	Hotetur (BlueBay)	Fiesta	Piñero-Bahía Príncipe	Blau	Sirenis	MAC
Aruba	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Argentina	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bahamas	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Brazil	30	29	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Colombia	7	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Costa Rica	12	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cuba	36	22	2	2	4	3	0	1	2	0	0
Ecuador	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Guatemala	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Honduras	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Jamaica	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mexico	40	11	7	7	5	6	2	2	0	0	0
Nicaragua	1		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Panama	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Peru	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dominican Rep.	45	3	17	8	5	3	4	1	1	2	1
Uruguay	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Venezuela	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
LAC	**187**	**83**	**42**	**19**	**15**	**12**	**6**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**

2010	Number of hotels	Sol Melià	Barceló	RIU	Iberostar	Bluebay (Hotetur)	Fiesta	Piñero-Bahía Príncipe	Blau	Sirenis	MAC	Oasis-Globalia	Batle	IBB	Valentín	Globales	BQ	Pollensina	EIX	HM	Blue Sea
Aruba	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Argentina	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Bahamas	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Brazil	19	14	0	1	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Colombia	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Costa Rica	6	1	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cuba	46	26	5	0	6	4	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Jamaica	10	0	0	4	3	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ecuador	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Guatemala	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Honduras	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mexico	71	8	13	15	11	4	7	3	0	2	0	7	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nicaragua	5	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
Panamá	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Peru	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Puerto Rico	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dominican Rep.	54	6	9	8	6	2	5	11	1	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Uruguay	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0
Venezuela	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
LAC	**226**	**65**	**35**	**31**	**29**	**10**	**15**	**15**	**4**	**6**	**0**	**7**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**1**

Source: Own elaboration based on data from companies' official websites and Hosteltur.

[40] - Concentrating almost a fourth part (23.5%) of the hotel investment in the region (Figure 2).

Table 3. Supply of hotels of the four top Balearic companies by geographical area, 2010.

	Barceló		Meliá		Riu		Iberostar	
Geographical area	**Number**	***%***	**Number**	***%***	**Number**	***%***	**Number**	***%***
Spain	50	*27,3%*	163	*53,1%*	43	*40,6%*	35	*35,0%*
Rest of Europe	25	*13,7%*	69	*22,5%*	13	*12,3%*	22	*22,0%*
LAC	35	*19,1%*	65	*21,2%*	31	*29,2%*	29	*29,0%*
Africa	9	*4,9%*	3	*1,0%%*	18	*17,0%*	14	*14,0%*
Asia	0	*0,0%*	7	*2,3*	0	*0,0%*	0	*0,0%*
USA	64	*35,0%*	0	*0,0%*	1	*0,9%*	0	*0,0%*
Total	183	*100,0%*	307	*100, %0*	106	*100, %0*	100	*100, %0*

Source: Own elaboration based on data from companies' official websites and Hosteltur.

2.2- Characteristics of Balearic hotel supply: size and age.

Hotel establishments of Balearic firms in LAC countries are mainly formed of large hotels, which have more than 250 rooms each; they represent 57.4% of total Balearic hotels in that region Meanawhile small hotels, defined as them with less than 101 rooms, represent 12% of the Balearic hotels in lAC area, and medium size, with 101 to 250 rooms, represent the 30.6%.

These hotels are quite young, all of them begun business after 1985. A 29.4% of them stared up between 2001 and 2003, 48.1% started operations in the period 1999-2003, and the other 22.5% have a start up date between 1996 and 1985.

THE MAIN MOTIVATIONS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL EXPANSION OF THE BALEARIC HOTEL INDUSTRY IN DOMINICAN REPUBLIC AND WAYS TO ENTRY.

In the Balearic Islands, the hospitality sector is the first tourism sub sector that decided to expand internationally, while others, such as tour operators, travel agents, the air transport sector or the restaurant and catering sector, took many years to do so and it was carried out with a much lesser intensity. Durán Herrera (1996) argues that the company's internationalization is closely related to the competition factors of a country and with the rivalry and depends on the reactions in the markets. The maturation of the Balearics destination and its identification in international markets as a mass tourism destination have brought about two qualitative changes: the first one, an improvement in the scale and quality of public infrastructures in the Balearics to reach a market segment of higher income and profitability for the industry and the second one, the international business expansion to other markets not as mature as the Balearic Islands, where they could export their know how and, at the same time, exploit the competitive and location advantages, such as the exploitation of virgin lands, a cheaper labour force, cheapest providers and the infrastructures built by the host governments reducing, ultimately, the installation costs (Groizard & Jacob, 2004). Despite the dependence generated on tour operators, the companies that have internationalized have been able to innovate in processes, products and organization much more in the new destinations than in the Balearic Islands (Jacob & Groizard, 2007). The main effects of this intense innovation

activity in the LAC destinations have been the loyalty of customers, an increase in service quality and in workers' productivity.

The interest in understanding what has driven companies to venture internationally has led to different theories (Ramón Rodríguez, 2000). It is commonly accepted that when speaking of business internationalization, we find that the so called internal and external organizational factors are determinant. For example, in the internal dimension of the firm, changing the perception of firms' managers and executives to have a more international vocation and with a larger experience gained abroad, may have facilitated or encouraged the international expansion of a company. Externally, factors such as the facilities provided by a number of agents (businesses associations, government agencies) or, in recent years, the influence of globalization and the diffusion of new technologies have clearly diminished the perception of barriers and costs of this strategy.

Table 4. Reasons for Internationalization

Reactivate Reasons	Proactive Reasons
• Competitiveness Pressures • Overproduction • Fall in domestic sales • Saturation of the domestic market- Life cycle of the product • Proximity to customers (follow-up)	• Development of unique products • Technological Advantages • Seek of efficiency

Source: Pla & León (2004).

Along with these factors, some other elements are required, taking into consideration that this is a strategy that determines permanently the entire business organization. What are then the drivers? The driving forces can be classified into two groups: push factors and pull factors (Table 4).

- The push factors are associated with the difficulties existent in local markets. A company chooses to internationalize because in their home market it has no chance of development, or in other words, because their productive capacities are underutilized. Thus, internationalization emerged as a reaction to cope with these restrictions.
- The pull factors are those associated with a proactive vision of management regarding international activities. Although the company has options to grow in the domestic market, the managers consider the need to exploit certain opportunities in the international markets.

Key factors to understand the Balearic hotel chains' internationalization in Dominican Republic.

There are different push and pull factors which would explain why the Balearic hotel chains have opted for the internationalization strategy and, at the same time, they would explain why the Dominican Republic was the first destination for Balearic hotel chains when they decide to expand into foreign markets.

Among the push factors, it could be mentioned:

- The intense competition in the domestic market and difficulties to growth. The hotels supply in the Balearic Islands is very extensive; by late 2010 there were 419.983 rooms. Taking into account the reduced dimension of the Balearics and the building restrictions existing, there were high barriers to grow into this market, in this context the Balearic hotel chains were required to seek other new markets in order to grow its global market share.

- Unfavourable conditions in the domestic market to grow. From 1984[41]on, the Balearic Government passed legislation on environmental issues that that hindered the construction of hotels and other tourism infrastructures in the archipelago. In this context, the Balearic hotel companies considered other markets to grow its global market share[42]. Besides the substantial increases in Balearic land prices and construction (Batle & Robledo, 2000) encouraged to seek new environments in which they operate to achieve a higher return

The pull factors, which contribute to explain the internationalization process initiated by the Balearic hotel chains in Dominican Republic, can be grouped into four major groups (Pla & León, 2004):

- Reasons related to the market (the market seekers). The emergence of Dominican Republic as a new market, with a high growth rate of profitability, meanwhile the hotel company that operates in the Balearics is registering a continuing decline in profitability (ROI); its asset turnover declined from 74% in 1990 to only 33% in 2004; in other words, a hotel in the Balearic Islands has an investment equal to three times its turnover. Moreover, the return on equity (ROE) has declined dramatically since 1998, which means that the net benefit is insufficient to remunerate capital. Consequently the hotel industry that operates in the Balearics it does with negative risk premium (Martorell & Mulet, 2009). To some extent this reduction in profitability can be explained by the high seasonality in Balearics. So, while in the summer months the occupancy rates exceed 90% in the winter months only 20% of the total hotel remains open, with occupancy rates of 40%.

Bearing in mind that the size of the Dominican hotel industry was relatively small, when Balearic hoteliers started their adventure in the Caribbean island, the possibilities to explore a new market attract the interest of performing there (Ramón Rodríguez, 2002). Thus, in 1984, a year before the hotel investment process by the Balearic hotel chains began in that country, Dominican Republic had a short hotel supply of 5,394 hotel rooms[43], given business possibilities.

- Reasons related to the acquisition of resources (the resource seekers). Balearic hotel chains were looking for more favourable resource endowments in Dominican Republic; meanwhile some resources, like land, was very difficult to obtain at reasonable

41 - The Decree 30/1984, 10th may and 103/1987, 22nd.october.

42 - Blasco, A. (2010) do an extensive review of territorial plans approved in relation to coastal tourism..

43 - In 1984 there were one hotel in Punta Cana, the Club Med (with 300 rooms), three hotels in Puerto Plata, the Casa de Campo in La Romana and 2,000 rooms located in urban hotels at Santo Domingo.

prices in the Balearics, in Dominican Republic the Balearic hotel chains have good opportunities to get it at good prices. The active policy developed by Dominican Government, to incentive tourism and provides legal certainty for foreign investors (CEPAL, 2008), became a key factor to understand the internationalization in that country, taking into account that the Balearic hotel firms initially developed the strategy of internationalization through the acquisition of land or buildings. In fact, the Dominican Republic's government passed different laws to attract hotel investments in order to generate wealth and create infrastructure. So from 1971[44] to nowadays there have been numerous regulations that have encouraged international tourist investment in the Dominican[45].

In addition to the legislation, the government introduced new conditions to attract investment Dominican, such as a high investment on airport infrastructure. In this sense, the construction of international airports in some major coastal tourist areas, such as Santo Domingo, Punta Cana, La Romana, Puerto Plata and Samana, which facilitated rapid access of foreign tourists to the island. At the same time, the government collaborated with hotel companies in order to overcome the existing shortcomings in terms of road infrastructure, water pipes and other infrastructure. All of them are key factors to explain the Dominican Republic as a destination for their investment (Hostelmarket, 2007).

- Reasons related to the look for efficiency (the efficiency seekers). Through the internationalization processes many Balearic hotel firms seek to obtain profits from the management of assets geographically disperse, derived from the existence of scale economies or risk diversification. In addition to access to land at relatively low, Dominican has a climate that avoids high tourist seasonality. Tourism in the Balearic Islands is characterized by being highly seasonal (Poon, 1993, Aguiló and Sastre, 1984, among others). Thus, over 80% of tourists visiting the Balearic Islands they do in the period between May and September. This reality involves a set of problems for the hotel company itself. The profitability obtained by hotel companies reduced, because of the difficulty to repay its operating investments, while it is difficult to maintain an optimal occupancy rate throughout the year, consequently there is an underutilization of available resources and infrastructure, as shown the low rate of turnover of assets In order to avoid

44 - The Law on Promotion and Encouragement of Tourism Development which provided a tax exemption of 100% of tax paid on income and on construction activities, establishment of commercial companies or capital increases in tourist companies, while exempting 10% of all duties and taxes import and other charges related to tourism.

45 - For example, in 2001 it was established the Law of Tourism Development (Law 158 - 01) and various regulations which were promoting tourism development in priority regions and were introducing corporate tax exemptions up to 50%. This tax package attracted interest from major Balearic hotel groups to that country.

In the same direction, Dominican law provided facilities for the construction of hotels, restaurants, aquariums, amusement parks and golf courses (law, No. 158 of 2001, as amended by Act 184, 2002), as well as real estate activity (Act 108, 2005), and the promotion of tourism in underdeveloped areas (Act 198 of 2002). Additionally Council was established to promote tourism (CONFOTUR), conformed by public and the National Association of Hotels and Restaurants (Asonahores) and an Official Tourism Promotion Fund; All these legal measures were valued by the Balearic hotel industry when choosing Dominican Republic as a destination of its international investment.

these problems, Balearic hotel chains chose a tourism resort which allows to be opened at high occupancy rates, such as Dominican Republic and other Caribbean countries. In this sense, the average temperature of about 25 ° C (77 ° F) all year, which is defined as a warm tropical climate, become Dominican Republic as a tourist destination. The investment on this area allow to stabilize the revenue stream to throughout the year, especially during the offseason mature destinations, as may be Balearics, allowing a reduction of the risk inherent an economic activity concentrated.

The geographic location, in the centre of America, at four hours by plane from 300 million inhabitants from Canada to Brazil, was another element which explains the Balearic hotel investment in Dominican (Morales, M, Ruiz, JL, 2008), favoring the reduction of risk by means of demand diversification. In fact, 34.6% of international tourists came from USA and 18.8% from Canada, and 32.4% from European countries[46] in 2010.

- Strategic reasons (the strategic asset seekers). The internationalization can emerge as a response to consumer demands. In last years the consumer behavior changes is another element with repercussion on the decision taken by Balearic hotel chains relative to internationalization (Vanhove, 2005). In this sense, the greater appreciation of the environment by the tourist could be a contributing factor to consider Dominican Republic as a place to develop new types of tourism, such as nature tourism, ecotourism, etc. Another important social element with potential impact on hotel investment decision to develop in that Caribbean country is the availability of leisure and entertainment by the tourist potential. As the number of holidays are greater (Mullins and Pigliucci, 2003), greater could be the chance of enjoying a vacation into a place far from their origin country, as may be Dominican for European workers, which are one of the most demanding hotel services in that country.

The interest from Balearic hotel companies into the Dominican Republic is also linked to the language used (Bardhan et al, 2008). Thus, Spanish firms privileged Spanish speaking countries of the Caribbean, such as, Dominican Republic and Cuba, to develop, initially, their internationalization strategy, while hotel portuguese companies exploited the Brazilian market such as the U.S. Pacific coast of Mexico and some Caribbean islands, as Aruba, Bahamas, Puerto Rico and St. Kitts and Nevis. It demonstrates that cultural affinity plays an important role in international hotel expansion (Kogut and Singh, 1988, Weinstein, 1977, Erramilli and Rao, 1990).

Recent trends in the population at many industrialized countries have a potential impact on the development of Dominican hotel. Thus, on the one hand, the increase in retirees and, on the other, the increasing importance of the baby boom generation, offers significant opportunities for tourism (Bardhan et al, 2008), Balearic hoteliers are interested in capturing these market segment.

The sum of all these factors have influenced on the decision of the Balearic hotel chain Barceló to inaugurate the hotel "Bavaro Beach" in Dominican Republic in 1985, as

[46] - France (6.6%), Spain (5.4%), Germany (5.1%), United Kingdom (4.6%) and Italy (2.7%).

well as on the other 11 Balearic hotel chains in considering this country as a place for developing the internationalization strategy

A recent study by Valls (2008) analyses which are the reasons for Spanish hotel companies to become international; it concludes that the first reason was to get a higher profitability abroad. The fact that from the 1980s on, Balearic destination began to enter into a mature phase of the lifecycle and, consequently, profitability started to decline, was the main driver of the hotel internationalization. In the second place, in the Balearic Islands they could no longer grow, especially in the sun and sand tourism segment. In the third place, they wanted to be international leaders. And finally, the 33% of companies wanted to go where the leaders were.

Ways to entry into foreign markets: the Dominican Republic case.

When a company becomes international, an important issue to be considerate is the route of entry into foreign markets (Brookes and Roper, 2011, Pla-Barber et al, 2011, Guillen, Garcia-Canal, 2010, Berbel and Ramírez, 2011). In fact this decision is very critical, since it will greatly influence its business success (Berbel and Ramírez, 2011; Young et al, 1989). The set of options is very wide, such as ownership, management contract, franchise, joint venture; each one of them involves differences in the degree of control exerted by the matrix on the external operation, the resources it must commit and the potential profit it may obtain (Buckley, 1995; Root, 1987). According to Sánchez and Pla (2003), as the degree of control exerted by the company on the external operation increases, the assumed risk increase due to the increment of responsibility in decision making and to the greater resource commitment and, therefore, medium- term potential profits also tend to be greater. In contrast, the methods that involve a low control level minimize the assumed risk, but usually at the expense of medium-term potential profits.

In this section, we are going to make reference, in a descriptive way, which has been the entry mode chosen by the Balearic hotel chains in Dominican Republic. Bearing in mind that this Caribbean island was the first destination elected by the Balearic hotel companies to develop their internationalization strategy, and it continues, nowadays, being one the main international investment destination, the analysis will refer to this country.

By late 2010, Balearic hotel chains had a joint portfolio of more than 480 hotels outside Spain and over 152,000 rooms (see table 1). Of this total number, 54 hotels and 24,801 rooms were located in Dominican Republic. This in turn accounted for 11.3% of all hotels and 16.3% of all rooms run by the Balearic hotels sector into foreign countries. As a result, this country has become a favourite destination for the Balearic chains when expanding into foreign markets, due to the experience that the Balearic hotel trade has built up in the sun and sand market, allowing them to develop a holiday product with which they are closely familiar albeit with the natural characteristics of the host destination.

In order to carry out our study[47], the four major Balearic hotel chains has been considerate: Meliá Hotels International, Barceló Hotels & Resorts, Iberostar Hotels & Resorts and Riu Hotels & Resorts. These four companies account for 44.4 % of the total number of hotels and 57.7 % of all rooms run by Balearic chains in Dominican Republic. In short, they cover a total of 14,319 rooms which in turn represent the 23% of hotel rooms in Dominican Republic.

The analysis concludes (table 5) that the mode of entry chosen, in the case of Dominican Republic, by the practically 100% all the analysed Balearic hotel chains, is the direct investment. The little use of modes with lower control on the activities, like franchise or the shared ownership ways is stated.

The specialist literature offers a set of works which could justify this election[48]. As it was marked out by Pla and León (2004) this election may be due to the poor development of strong brands in the Spanish industry, recognized abroad, and the predominance of resort hotels, much more difficult to use no-equity formulas due to problems of management and control of the typical activities of this type of establishments. In this context the Balearic hotel chains are investing into create a powerful brand image more recognized worldwide, as well as, into search for management and control systems in order to implement new formulas to favour their internationalization.

Table 5- the four major Balearic hotel chains characteristics in Dominican Republic

HOTEL CHAIN	HOTELS	PLACE	CATEG.	All Inc. .or no	ROOMS	WAYS TO ENTRY
BARCELÓ	**Barceló Capellá Beach**	Juan Dolió	4*	A.I.	497	Ownership
Barceló HOTELS & RESORTS	**Barceló Puerto Plata***	Puerto Plata	4*	A.I.	585	Minority Ownership
	Barceló Bávaro Beach	Bávaro/Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	391	Ownership
	Barceló Bávaro Palace Deluxe	Bávaro/Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	1.600	ownership
	Barceló Dominican Beach*	Bávaro/Punta Cana	4*	A.I.	732	Minority Ownership
	Barceló Punta Cana*	Bávaro/Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	798	Minority Ownership
	Barceló Santo Domingo	Santo Domingo	4*	No	216	Ownership

[47] - we have used information provided by the journal: Hostelmarket, Hosteltur, which gather almost all the movements within the sector, complemented with the on-line information from web's chains and with other information supplied by the managers of the chains.

[48] - Berbel and Ramirez (2011) offers an extensive review

MELIÁ	**Meliá Caribe Tropical All Inclusive Beach & Golf Resort**	Punta cana	5*	A.I.	1.138	Ownership
MELIÁ HOTELS INTERNATIONAL	**Meliá Santo Domingo**	Santo Domingo	4*	NO	245	Managemen t Contract
	Paradisus Palma Real Golf & Spa Resort	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	496	Ownership
	Paradisus Punta Cana Resort	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	689	Ownership
IBEROSTAR	**iberostar Hacienda Dominicus**	Bayahibe	5*	A.I.	506	Ownership
IBEROSTAR HOTELS & RESORTS	**iberostar Costa Dorada**	Puerto Plata	5*	A.I.	516	Ownership
	Iberostar Bávaro	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	598	Ownership
	Iberostar Dominicana	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	503	Ownership
	Iberostar Punta Cana	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	427	Ownership
IBEROSTAR HOTELS & RESORTS The Grand Collection	**Iberostar Grand Hotel Bávaro**	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	274	Ownership
RIU	**ClubHotel Riu Bachata**	Puerto Plata	5*	A.I.	610	Ownership
RIU	**ClubHotel Riu Merengue**	Puerto Plata	5*	A.I.	998	Ownership
	ClubHotel Riu Bambu	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	560	Ownership
	Hotel Riu Naiboa	Punta Cana	4*	A.I.	362	Ownership
	Hotel Riu Palace Punta Cana	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	612	Ownership
	Hotel Riu Palace Bavaro	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	610	Ownership
	Hotel Riu Palace Macao	Punta Cana	5*	A.I.	356	Ownership

* Minority interest in the property of the Playa Hotels & Resorts company

Source: Own elaboration

More recent studies, such as the one carried out by Mulet (2009), taking as a starting point the factors that play a decisive role in the decision process of Balearic hotel chains when choosing a growth strategy for expansion into the Caribbean or Gulf of Mexico, reveals other reasons which help to explain why the Balearic hotel chains performing in Dominican Republic prefer equity-based growth strategies, such as: a secure investment, uncertainty with regard to the transfer of specialist know how, training costs, the importance of economies of scale and culturally similar from the hotel chain's own country. In fact, all of these factors are present in Dominican Republic: So, on the one hand, this Caribbean island is characterized by a reduced (political, economic or financial) risk, however there is a greater risk that local operators will fail to meet skill staff and the quality standards of the Balearic hotel chain where the transfer of know how involves higher costs for the company, key factors to explain that Balearic hotel companies tend to maintain a higher level of control over their investment. On the other hand, the high possibilities of getting economies of scale in Dominican Republic, taking

into account the high occupancy rates, and the fact that this country is well known by the Balearic hotel chains, they operates there for more than twenty years, are also key variables to understand why Balearic hotel chains prefer equity-based strategies in this country.

Bearing in mind that Balearic hotel chain are already beginning to operate in new markets, such as Aruba, Ecuador, Cabo Verde, etc. and into new segments, urban versus holiday, as it was pointed out in the section two, it would be interesting to compare, in future research works, the differences used by Balearic hotel chains when they performance into these unknown environment or niches; it would be expected that modes of entry used differ from those obtained in a well-known environment, such as Dominican Republic. Besides, the recent investment by the Balearic hotel companies in brand image, it would be more useful to use other modes of entry, such as management contracts or franchise. Furthermore, in recent times of difficult access to financial resources, consequence of economic crisis, it would be more likelihood that the owner of the hotels chains are turning to modes that involve lower levels of investment in resources in order to accomplish the internationalization of their business.

CONCLUSIONS

This work analyzes the internationalization process followed by Balearic multinational hotel chains since the beginning till 2010, with particular emphasis in the origin, extent and nature of the expansion into Latin America and the Caribbean first and later in other destinations. Furthermore, we have examined the internalization process in terms of location, specialization or hotels' characteristics and analyzed the reasons for internationalization.

The results indicate that while from mid 1980s to 2002 the internationalization focus on LAC destinations, in the period 2003-2010 the Balearic hotel companies have risked to invest in destinations different from LAC. Balearic companies seem to have specialized in holiday hotels and larger size hotels. Furthermore, new features appear in the internationalization process such as a more oriented expansion towards urban hotels and new destinations. The main reason for the international expansion of the Balearic hotels companies was to increase profitability abroad due to the reaching of a mature phase of the life cycle of the Balearic tourism sun and sand product. However, the reasons and the main factors for internationalization are changing as the companies acquire a greater international experience and brand positioning. These results can help policymakers to define a more adequate policy for promoting investment and knowledge transfer of the Balearic hotel companies to other destinations.

Finally, in future works, further analysis would be interesting in order to understand how these multinationals companies have changed their strategy due to the economic crisis in the Spanish economy and if their behaviour has been different to other multinational hotel companies.

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AN INVESTIGATION: IF STUDENTS RESIDE ON FACEBOOK, SHOULD FACULTY RESIDE THERE TOO?

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ABSTRACT

College instructors know their students reside online. They also understand the use of social networking sites such as Facebook can increase cohesiveness in their classrooms. However, when faced with the decision to interact with them or engage with them using Facebook, research shows they reluctantly decline because they fear the unveiling of personal opinions will lessen their control, power, or credibility in the classroom. The purpose of this ex post facto, causal comparative study was to determine if joining students on Facebook would result in a significant difference in tourism and recreation students' self-reported sense of community. Social Learning, Constructivism, and Connectivism theories served as the theoretical framework for the study. The data originated from 105 tourism and recreation students at a public university in the Midwestern United States. Fifty-three students assigned to the control group became "friends" on Facebook with an instructor but had limited access to comments, photos, videos, and links; 52 students assigned to the treatment group had full access to an instructor's profile. Both groups completed surveys that measured sense of community. Data were analyzed using ANOVA. Results indicated no significant difference in the self-reported sense of community between the groups. This study may contribute to the existing literature on Connectivism as an alternative learning theory. Implications for positive social change include increasing instructors and administrators' understanding of social media as a catalyst to increase cohesiveness and enhance sense of community in the classroom.

KEYWORDS: Tourism, Sense of Community, Facebook, Connectivism

INTRODUCTION

Students today are wired, connected, and mobile. They represent an emerging stereotype of consumer (Durden, 2005) that has high expectations (Taylor, 2006) and specific characteristics separate from other generations. Born between 1981 and 2000, this generation is typically referred to as the millennials (Nicholas, 2008). They are marked by their increased use of technology (Howe & Strauss, 2000) and communication predilections (Taylor, 2006). They use social networking to connect, and they desire immediacy (Tapscott, 2009); fast technology; and access around the clock (Shih & Allen, 2007).

Online social networks (e.g., Facebook) are the collaboration tool of choice for the millennial generation. On Facebook, the Wall, is the space allocated for open commentary on each user's profile page (Facebook Statistics, 2008), and friends can

write dated messages to the user in an open forum. It also serves as a catalyst to the formation of sense of community as defined by McMillan and Chavis (1986) which includes *membership* [Facebook Friend Suggestions], *influence* [Facebook Likes], *integration and fulfillment of needs* [Facebook Groups], and *shared emotional connections* [Facebook Timeline] between and among the users.

Research has shown that the formation of community has significant impacts on collaborative learning (Chen, Kinshuk, Wei, & Yang, 2008; Yang, Chen, Kinshuk, & Chen, 2007). It is through dialogue, classroom activities, and group discussion that students have opportunities to become more cohesive. Researchers also have proposed the integration of social media, suggesting significant implications for learning and the formation of community (Charnigo & Barnett-Ellis, 2007; Hewitt & Forte, 2006; Mathews, 2006; Mazer, Murphy, & Simonds, 2007; Selwyn, 2007; Towner & VanHorn, 2007). However, despite the findings that tie student connections to learning, there has yet to be a study that measures sense of community as defined by McMillan & Chavis (1986), as a result of using resulting social media in the classroom.

Ironically, the integration of social media in the classroom has been cited as a modern educational practice aligned with policy initiatives specific to (a) the appropriate use of and skill levels of the learners, (b) the development of teachers' critical Internet literacy, (c) solid infrastructure and demonstrated support from administration, and (d) the provision of an environment that allows students to be creative when using the web (Crook & Harrison, 2008). Some reasons include the fast pace of change in the consumer market (Lee, 2010) or the assumption that faculty do not belong on Facebook (Hewitt & Forte, 2006). Others might perceive social networking as not academic (Charnigo & Barnet-Ellis, 2007; Selwyn, 2007) and label attempts to use social networking with students as inappropriate (Young, 2008). However, according to Baker, Wentz, and Woods (2009), teaching environments that are able to use social networking have the potential to establish an emotional connection as strong as, if not stronger than, a traditional face-to-face learning environment.

The collision between students who use these tools to form community and instructors who do not has created "the perfect storm" (Lee, 2010, p. 11). In the hospitality industry, where employers are valuing such skills as creativity, communication, presentation skills, and team building, faculty are feeling the pressure to shift the paradigm and think about how they can prepare young professionals for the future workplace. However, taking the initiative to embrace social media and use it in the classroom is a different story. Should we go there? And, if we do – will we be sorry? Should we join our students where they reside? And, if we do – will the industry be the benefactor? It is a tough choice. After all, as stated by Fisch and McCleod (2007), "We are living in exponential times…preparing students for jobs that don't exist yet, using technologies that haven't been invented, in order to solve problems we don't even know about" (p. 1), and it is the combination of things instructors do with content that creates learning platforms (Brown, 2008) for future instruction and learning activities.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Although previous researchers have focused on the relationship that students have with technology (Siemens, 2008; Taylor, 2006); the defining traits of sense of community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Sarason, 1974); and the attributes of the millennial generation (Coates, 2007; Schroeder, 2004; Taylor, 2006), to date, no researchers have investigated the inclusion of the social networking tool Facebook as a catalyst to increasing a sense of community at the university level, specifically measured using *membership, influence , integration and fulfillment of needs* and *shared emotional connections* as defined by McMillan & Chavis (1986).

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there was a difference between the self-reported sense of community from students who had limited access to an instructor's Facebook content and students who had full access to an instructor's comments, photos, videos, and links. Additional demographic data in the previous study included participants' background variables (e.g., gender and ethnicity). The participating students were enrolled in tourism and recreation classes at a 4-year public university in the Midwestern United States.

This study was necessary because Facebook is viewed as a social networking tool, not an instructional tool. In addition, there has been a lack of knowledge about the relationship between students' use of social networking in the classroom and increased sense of community in the classroom. A quantitative study was appropriate because the inquiry was specific to the statistical differences between two groups and the archived data used for analysis were quantitative.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study highlighted McMillan and Chavis's (1986) model of sense of community, which includes the four components of *membership, influence, integration* and *fulfillment of needs*, and *shared emotional connection.* The literature review is structured around theoretical learning, sense of community, generational attributes, and social networking. The review of literature begins by focusing on theoretical constructs through which learning is achieved. Empirical research describing attributes of the millennial generation are found throughout. Finally, sense of community is introduced as a conceptual model, defined in a variety of ways by different schools of thought.

Theoretical Framework

The study was framed around the social learning theory, the constructivism theory of learning, and connectivism as pedagogical constructs through which millennial students achieve learning and experience sense of community. Under close analysis, many overlaps in the ideas and principles of these learning theories become apparent, specifically when attempting to draw correlations to the connections among people, the social and cultural contexts in which they interact, and the sense of community generated through their interactions.

Social Learning

The social learning theory supports learning that takes place during observation. According to Bandura (1977), learning that takes place during observation, or modeling, is done so through demonstration, verbal communication, or symbolic interaction. He noted the influences on learning to be intrinsic and specific to reinforcement as a form of internal reward, such as pride, satisfaction, and a sense of accomplishment.

Much of the research that includes social learning references the work of Vygotsky (1978), a theorist who described the learning process as dependent upon culture and social interaction. Vygotsky believed that it is imperative that students interact with other people in their environment and in cooperation with their peers. Vygotsky also felt it important that in pursuit of new content, participants in a social learning environment work in clusters and collaborate. The material they are charged with learning is structured to advance and encourage interaction and collaboration, resulting in a classroom of community learners.

Vygotsky (1978) believed that if instructors understood their students and the students' surroundings, the learning experience would be optimal. Seeing the instructor as the one with the tools to establish rapport and create invigorating learning environments supported his assertion that learning is social. Bandura (1977) further framed this theory by suggesting that students learn by watching each other or experiencing it for themselves.

Constructivism

The theory of constructivism posits that the role of the instructor is that of a facilitator of learning rather than a disseminator of knowledge. The constructivist learning theory (Papert, 1993) builds on learning as an active process in which students add new knowledge to an existing knowledge base. Constructivism endorses the social aspect of learning between students, and during their social collaboration, it positions the instructor in a more passive role, thus allowing students to evaluate themselves and others during the learning process (Bonwell & Eisen, 1991; Chapman, 2003).

In constructivist classrooms, learners are active rather than passive. New knowledge is not received from the outside or from someone else; rather, learners interpret and process what is received through their senses to create knowledge. According to L. Lambert et al. (2002), constructivist classrooms emphasize the social nature of learning, and shared inquiry is the central activity. Students in constructivist classrooms are active, social, and creative learners (Perkins, 1999) who engage in learning experiences as the result of their collaborative explorations within a social context.

The role of instructors in constructivist classrooms starts with making the learners the center of the learning process; the instructors play an advising and facilitating role. Constructivist instructors use this theory to make connections between facts and new learning. These instructors customize pedagogy to provoke students to analyze, interpret, and predict new information; they rarely use traditional assessments or standardized tests;

instead, they open up their classrooms by asking students questions that encourage dialogue and interaction (Maker et al., 2006).

Constructivist instructors also use groups to invoke learning, an approach built on the belief that members of the group are flexible, instructors lead and facilitate, and assessment is ongoing (Caldwell & Ford, 2002). The flexibility observed within the constructivist approach allows students to manipulate their own membership, interact with counterparts, work collaboratively within their membership, and maintain their membership risk (Wren, 2003). Instructors within flexible groups are able to isolate explicit student needs, respond quickly, specifically diagnose student problems or concerns, and administer ongoing assessment and student progress.

Connectivism

In 2008, Siemens proposed a new learning theory that represented the process of networked knowledge and learning. The theory of connectivism, although controversial, proposes that people learn as the result of technology and the formation of networks (Downes, 2007; Pettenati & Cigognini, 2007; Siemens, 2008). This new learning theory for the digital age explores the concept of learning that occurs during interactions with or exploration of technology; however, it lacks empirical research tying it to sense of community.

Based upon the premise that information is changing so rapidly that the linear fashion of learning is no longer necessary, the connectivist learning theory has evolved as an alternative to information storage and retrieval (Manz & Sims, 1981). Technology and the formation of networks have led to a paradigm shift from learning as a specific activity to learning as a process of understanding. It is within this shift that learners use the information acquired and apply it to future learning (Pettenati & Cigognini, 2007).

Siemens (2008) was curious about technology's ability to transform teaching, learning, and society. He suggested that current learning theories are not fully applicable to contemporary learners because technology is changing the way people live and learn. As the connectivist theory continues to penetrate the world of academia, and as organizations continue to measure the collective cognitive capabilities of their workforces, they will begin to understand the importance of cultivating and increasing the existing knowledge base that is exchanged between people (Kleiner, 2002). The evolution of well-connected groups of people who have the ability to harness and distribute information will replace traditional learning and training. These same individuals will help their organizations to remain current, not by what they know but by how well they can cycle information throughout the organization (Kleiner, 2002).

The nature of the learners in connectivist classrooms is such that they rely significantly on online profiles to represent themselves during interactions and online social networks to facilitate discussion. The learners also rely on other people within their networks to gain access to new insights and perspectives and to form new knowledge. Instructors in connectivist classrooms allow students to work independently, that is, by giving them autonomy and not discouraging access to online resources (e.g., Internet and

Wikipedia) that could be considered controversial or inauthentic. Instructors who are connectivist embrace the reality that information consistently changes. They understand that this process of change may result in the need for students to access different sources of information so that they can ultimately make individual determinations about what is important and what is the most current new knowledge (Siemens, 2008).

Studies conducted in the spirit of connectivism (Pettenati & Cigognini, 2007; Siemens, 2008) have begun to emerge; however, to date, no studies specifically measuring sense of community by aligning connectivist learning with Facebook have been conducted. The Internet and the impact of Web 2.0 and other social networking tools have lent credibility to connectivism as a learning theory. This study makes a contribution to the studies linking social networking to learning.

Millennial Generation

Students of today are different from the students who came before them, and as instructors continue to keep pace with this new generation of learners, the growing divide and mismatch between faculty and students as well as teaching and learning is becoming more evident (Coates, 2007; Schroeder, 2004; Taylor, 2006). Today's students multitask on demand; anticipate and expect academic programs that offer variety in offerings, formats, and resources (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Prospero & Vohra-Gupta, 2007; Senge, 2003); and seek out instructors who are entertaining and can parallel content with creativity (Taylor, 2006). This new generation of students brings social needs into the academic arena; expects to be entertained while learning; and purposely chooses instructors, colleges, and universities that keep pace with technological trends (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Prospero & Vohra-Gupta, 2007; Senge, 2003; Taylor, 2006).

Millennial students prefer technology to traditional learning mechanisms (Taylor, 2006); have a distinct desire for immediacy; and use technology to create, self-express, and form their identities (Rigby, 2008). In their lifetimes, they have experienced the evolution of cell phones to smartphones, compact disc players to digital media, and e-mail to text messaging; they are now living their lives online and publicly via Facebook (Wilson, 2008). Millennial learners are comfortable extending and directing personal attention on demand (Durden, 2005) and have grown up in an environment in which technology has not only surrounded them but also has become an integral part of their lives.

The mediation of technology gives millennials a sense of meaning and place in the world (Wells, 2010). However, according to Wells (2010), it does not exempt them from the desire to form social communities. According to Howe and Strauss (2000), millennials have an innate desire to collaborate. They desire social connections (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008) and are motivated by cooperative work environments (Wong, Gardiner, Land, & Coulon, 2008). Wells credited this desire for collaboration to a shift in educational practices that included group work and structured activity. Howe and Strauss attributed this shift to being raised by helicopter parents, that is, parents who were overinvolved, intrusive, and protective. They further indicated that this generation is "the most watched-over generation in memory" (p. 13).

Sense of Community

The sociologist Tönnies (1957) initially identified the differences between community and society in studies conducted in 1955. Tönnies labeled *Gemeinschaft* as family, friends, and neighbors, or groups formed by "natural ties of kinship" and those sharing beliefs, customs, or a "common way of doing things" (p. 224), and *Gesellschaft* as a group of people brought together by a common goal or need that they expect to be filled by the group. These groups exist separate and apart from each other because of essential human will (i.e., will that drives people) and arbitrary human will (i.e., will that is purposive and goal oriented), ultimately forming membership (Tönnies, 1957).

The idea of a sense of community and a corresponding definition were prompted by the work of Sarason (1974), who suggested that it is an interdependence between individuals and communities. Sarason's work prompted research on the correlation between sense of community and the successes of the studied communities. This research correlated neighborhoods and workplaces with greater participation (Hunter, 1975; Wandersman & Giamartino, 1980); an increase in interpersonal relationships (Ahlbrandt & Cunningham, 1979); perceived safety (Doolittle & MacDonald, 1978); sense of purpose and perceived control (Bachrach & Zautra, 1985); and an increase of charitable giving and civic contributions (Davidson & Cotter, 1986).

Early research involving sense of community focused on the neighborhood as the referent. Researchers often developed survey instruments and launched studies to determine whether there was a correlation between sense of community and the elements of participation, safety, ability to function competently in the community, social bonding, social fabric, greater civic contributions, greater sense of purpose, and perceived control (Bachrach & Zautra, 1985; Davidson & Cotter, 1986; Glynn, 1981; Riger & Lavrakas, 1981; Wandersman & Giamartino, 1980). These initial studies were based upon measures and lacked a theoretical definition of sense of community and a clearly articulated conceptual framework.

Theory of Sense of Community

In 1986, McMillan and Chavis researched sense of community in earnest and proposed theoretically based criteria for a theory of sense of community: membership, influence, integration and fulfillment of needs, and shared emotional connection. This theoretical understanding helps to explain community members' perceptions that the experiences they share together create worthiness to one another (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Peterson, Speer, & McMillan, 2008; Tartaglia, 2006).

Membership. According to McMillan and Chavis (1986), membership reflects the feeling that one is part of an important, larger network of relationships. The construct can include boundaries, emotional safety, a sense of belonging and identification, personal investment, and a common symbol system. Together, all persons in the group influence each other and become mutually and consistently more vested in identifying themselves with the group (McMillan & Chavis, 1986).

Influence. Influence is a strategically paralleled element that manipulates the larger group through individual voice and opinion. Although the group maintains control over its individual actions, members of the group voluntarily conform to group norms. This conformation creates the group cohesion needed for the group to experience increased loyalty and sense of ownership (McMillan & Chavis, 1986).

Fulfillment of needs. The third element of McMillan and Chavis's (1986) sense of community theory is the fulfillment of needs. This dimension is reflected through the perceived benefits that the members feel as the result of belonging to the group. This perception reinforces cohesiveness and ensures sustainability. Members of the community desire to be easily recognized as part of the group, and they want the group to establish credibility. The lack of this dimension could inevitably destroy the group construct.

Shared emotional connection. Shared emotional connection is the last element of sense of community and deals specifically with the length and frequency of positive interactions between and among group members. Members claim ownership of, protect, and commemorate interactions, recalling them to provide stability to the community's historical foundation. The individual historical contributions that the members provide determine the degree of emotional connection that cyclically determines the investment (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). The people involved in the group now feel more connected to each other, having identified common goals. In addition, they feel motivated to improve the welfare of everyone who is a member of the community (Fisher, Sonn, & Bishop, 2002; MacMillan & Chavis, 1986; McCarthy, Pretty, & Catano, 1990). The sense of community that results from these actions extends beyond the individual and is seen as a catalyst to further develop the community (Felton & Shinn, 1992).

Additional Studies on Sense of Community

Studying sense of community and its relationship to learning is an important area for research, and there appears to be a reemergence of the awareness to build sense of community at the academic level. This awareness is the result of the changing relationships and nature of experiences that students have with other students and significant adults at school (Evans, 2007; Whitlock, 2007). Evans (2007) studied sense of community using a convenience sample of students in Nashville to measure sense of community within a school neighborhood and city context. He then used in-depth interviews to better understand the findings. The 40 students involved in the study indicated feeling a stronger self-described sense of community in contexts where they experienced voice and resonance balanced with adequate adult support and challenge.

Although sense of community and its attributes have been applied in different contexts, the definition of sense of community created by McMillan and Chavis (1986) remains the genesis for most recent research in the field. Of the other definitions that extend among different schools of thought, the one most closely linked to this study was cited by Schuler (1996), who suggested that community is "a group of likeminded people, a state of group communion, togetherness, and mutual concern"

(p. 2). Ultimately, in the service of measuring sense of community, and from the literature, it appears that the most widely used and validated measure that has been employed when studying different types of communities is the SCI (Chavis, Hogge, McMillan, & Wandersman, 1986), based upon McMillan and Chavis's (1986) definition of sense of community.

Summary

Although there is a growing body of literature on sense of community, there also is an increasing interest in the Facebook communities and Web 2.0 tools used by the millennial generation. According to Lenz (2007), "Once you have the privilege to experience true community, you have the obligation to create it" (Classroom Activities and Community Meetings section). Students learn from each other socially, and the process involved in that learning is depending upon the culture in which they reside (membership) and the social interaction (shared emotional connection) around them. Students also learn best when they are the designers in a public forum (influence) or constructors of information, as indicated by Papert (1993). Finally, millennial students use technology to learn and rely on networks to facilitate their relationships with each other and build on additional learning (fulfillment of needs).

METHOD

Although other researchers (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Rovai, Cristol, & Lucking, 2001) have explored the sense of community in traditional cultures (e.g., community's organizations, and institutions), to date, no research has linked increases in sense of community to tourism classrooms that use Facebook. Sense of community is exhibited by a group of people who share common values and beliefs; interact with each other (Chavis et al., 1986); and ultimately learn from each other. It is this sense of community that not only provokes student learning and achievement but also encourages students to cultivate and provide higher levels of service and hospitality to the tourism industry.

Research Design and Rationale

The investigation of increases in sense of community among a sample of students who had access to an instructor's Facebook page was conducted. An ex post facto, causal comparative research design was chosen using archived data because the researcher was studying access to Facebook as a variable that was not manipulated. The archived data was used to trace the history of two groups of students, all of whom were included in a convenience sample of 105 tourism and recreation students at a public university in the Midwestern United States. This convenience sample comprised four classes: two classes represented Group A, the control group, and two classes represented Group B, the treatment group. All students became "friends" on Facebook with the instructor at the beginning of the semester; however, the 53 students in the control group (Group A) had limited access (i.e., ability to view comments, photos, videos, and links) to the instructor's profile until the study began. The 52 students in the treatment group (Group B) had full access to the instructor's profile the entire semester. Both groups completed surveys that measured perceived membership, influence, integration and fulfillment of

needs, and shared emotional connection that contribute to sense of community, as measured by the SCI-2.

During the semester, the instructor used Facebook to make random comments unrelated to class content, upload photos of classroom presentations and activities, and post links to random videos and articles. The instructor did not reference class content, but did include links to random videos and articles. Both groups completed surveys that measured perceptions of *membership, influence, integration and fulfillment of needs, and shared emotional connection* that contribute to sense of community, as measured on the SCI-2. The researcher also included additional demographic data found in the previous study specific to participant background variables (e.g., gender, age, and ethnicity). During the analysis of the archived data, a comparison of two sample means was conducted by using a one-way ANOVA test between groups.

Setting

The setting for this research was a 4-year public university in the Midwestern United States that offers baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral degrees. The university's enrollment for 2010-2011 was 21,290, the fourth largest in the state, with an additional 7,099 enrolled online at more than 60 locations throughout the world. All courses from which the data were collected were taught in January 2011 and met one and two times per week in 90- to 180-minute segments. The class size reflected the average, as reported by the university; the curriculum was specific to tourism and recreation students; and the instructional models included class discussion, group activities, and traditional assessment historically noted in the master course syllabi for similar classes in this program. Reading and integrative cases also were used throughout the semester.

Population and Sample

The target population found within the archived data represented undergraduate students in the tourism and recreation classes at a 4-year university in the Midwestern United States. In 2011, the registrar's office indicated a female-to-male undergraduate ratio of 54% and an average age of 21 years. Group A and Group B were representative of the university's student population. The sample in the archived data represented students pursuing careers in tourism and recreation. Other courses offered in this department include event management and core courses of commercial and community recreation.

The initial dataset had 111 responses, but because of incomplete responses, six were eliminated, resulting in 105 usable responses. Two of the classes were identified as Group A, the control group (n = 53) and two were identified as Group B, the treatment group (n = 52). Participants self-reported their ethnicity as 89.5% European American. The proportion of males to females was 30% to 65%, respectively, with the average age across the sample being 22 years. The archived data also included other participant background information considered to be additional variables (e.g., gender, age, and ethnicity). The demographic information was used to ensure that the sample was generally equal across the groups. Table 1 shows that 69 females participated in the study, which was 65% of the sample.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Recruited Sample

Demographic variables	Frequency (N = 105)	Percent	Cumulative percent
Gender			
Male	32	30.5 %	30.5%
Female	69	65.7 %	96.2%
Missing	4	3.8%	100%
Total	105		
Age			
20 years	12	11.4%	11.4%
21 years	19	18.1%	29.5%
22 years	40	38.1%	67.6%
23 years	22	21.0%	88.6%
24 years	6	5.7%	94.3%
25 years	0	0%	94.3%
26 years	0	0%	94.3%
27 years	2	1.9%	96.2%
Missing	4	3.8%	100%
Total	105		
Ethnicity			
European American	94	89.5%	89.5%
African American	0	0	89.5%
American Indian/Alaska Native	0	0	89.5%
Asian American	0	0	89.5%
Native Hawaiian American/	2	1.9	91.4%
Pacific Islander American	0	0	89.5.%
Mexican American/Chicano	0	0	89.5%
American	1	1.0	92.4%
Puerto Rican American	0	0	92.4%
Other Latino American	0	0	92.4%
Other	4	3.8	92.4%
Missing	0	3.8	100%
Total	105		

Instrumentation and Materials

The materials used in this study were random Facebook comments unrelated to class content, photographs of classroom presentations and activities, and links to random videos and articles. The materials used for the treatment were specific to the social media portal Facebook and included voluntary contributions (e.g., questions and comments) posted on the closed group wall from students. The SCI-2, the most frequently used quantitative measure of sense of community in the social sciences (Association for the Study and Development of Community, 2002), was used to measure the impact of this treatment of Facebook; however, threats to external validity because this instrument was constructed using a neighborhood sample but this study employed a sample from a college community.

Consideration was given to the validity of the survey instrument for use in this study. According to Fink (2006), a strategy for promoting the validity of a survey is to base it upon an already validated survey. This becomes more important if a researcher

wants to survey attitudes, emotions, health status, quality of life, and moral values (Fink, 2006). Concerns about instrument validity were reduced because results from previous studies using the SCI-2 demonstrated that the SCI-2 is a strong predicator of behaviors.

The SCI-2 has response options for the 24 items based upon a 5-point Likert scale that uses a clear ordering of the variables. The responses on the scale range from 0 (*not at all important*) to 4 (*completely important*). The scoring system was designed to place the least amount of value on the least favorable choice. The 24-item instrument results in scores between 0 and 72, with higher scores resulting in a greater sense of community. The SCI-2 covers all the attributes of a sense of community described in the original theory. The SCI-2 was tested through a pilot study with 36 culturally diverse participants representing seven different geographical areas from Maryland to Hawaii (Chipuer & Pretty, 1999). The SCI-2 also has been tested and used with a larger sample of 1,800 people (Chipuer & Pretty, 1999), resulting in a demonstrated reliability coefficient alpha of .94 and subscales indicating coefficient alpha scores of .79 to .86.

Protection of Participants' Rights

All aspects of the data analysis process were handled with the highest ethical standards. In preparation for this study, the researcher completed the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) training module on June 11, 2010 and submitted an application to the university's IRB requesting approval to proceed with the study. Once approval was received from the IRB, the final report was shared with the university where the study took place.

Analysis

To analyze the data, an ANOVA test was used to determine whether there are differences between two or more variables (DeCoster, 2006). Sense of community, the dependent variable, was reported using the SCI-2, a 5-point Likert instrument that uses an ordering of the responses ranging from 0 (*not at all important*) to 4 (*completely important*). The use of Facebook, the independent variable, had two levels (i.e., one group of students with full access to my Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links, and a second group with limited access to my Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links. SPSS v.16.01 was used to conduct all analyses, with $\alpha = .05$.

As with other parametric statistics, the researcher began the one-way ANOVA by testing assumptions that the data came from a population that followed a known distribution. There are three assumptions for conducting an ANOVA. The first assumption, which is specific to independence, was met through the design of the study. The second assumption tested for was normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test, which is tested at the $\alpha = .05$ level of significance. Table 2 shows that the *p* value was compared to the a priori alpha level (level of significance for the statistic), which means that the closer the value is to 1, the more normal the sample is. This allows a researcher to reject ($p < \alpha$) or retain ($p > \alpha$) the null hypothesis. The results of the test indicated $p = .071 > \alpha$).

Table 2

Results of the Shapiro-Wilk Test

Tests of normality

Shapiro-Wilk test		
Statistic	*df*	Sig.
.976	100	.071

N = 105

The third assumption tests for homogeneity of variance. Table 3 shows the results of the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances used to indicate whether the groups had approximately equal variance on the dependent variable. If the *p* value was less than .05, the two variances were significantly different. If the *p* value was greater than .05, the two variances were not significantly different. In this case, the *p* was .413, which was greater than .05; therefore, the assumption made was that the variances were approximately equal, which meant that the groups had approximately equal variance on the dependent variable.

Table 3
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Levene statistic	*df*1	*df*2	Sig.
.676	1	104	.413

RESULTS

The ANOVA was calculated based upon the participants' ratings of sense of community. The alpha was set at .05, and degrees of freedom were calculated. Table 4 shows that the main effect between groups was not significant, $F(1, 98) = .916$, $p = .341$, indicating that the students with full access to the instructor's Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links did not have significantly different levels of sense of community overall than students with limited access to the instructor's Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links. Examination of the means in Table 3 showed that students with full access to the instructor's Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links reported almost the same levels of sense of community as those with limited access. The *F* value was .916, and the significance value was .341. The significance was greater than .05, meaning that the test failed to show that the groups were different; therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis because $p = .341 > \alpha = .05$.

Table 4
Examination of the Means

ANOVA					
Total	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	Sig.
Between groups	111.352	1	111.352	.916	.341
Within groups	11913.648	104	121.568		
Total	12025.000	105			

SUMMARY

The purpose of this ex post facto study using archived data was to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the self-reported sense of

community by students who had limited access to the instructor's Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links and students who had full access to the instructor's Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links. To answer the research question, the researcher used the ANOVA to test for differences between the variables. The results revealed no statistically significant difference in sense of community for students who had limited access to the instructor's Facebook comments, photos, videos, and links and those who had full access. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

DISCUSSION

Creating a sense of community in the classroom is foundational to teaching, yet it is difficult to measure. Traditionally, sense of community has been viewed as a social group that advocates, embraces, encourages, and sustains with ties to a geographical community. Rarely has sense of community been studied under the microscope of an online social network such as Facebook, and prior to this study, not to the extent that an instructor would self-disclose in the context of a social medium. In fact, the literature indicated that many instructors think becoming "friends" with students and disclosing information online is neither appropriate nor professional. One might go as far to assume that accepting such an invitation from a student to connect online might be crossing the line and violate the teacher-student relationship. The literature indicated that we (i.e., educators) are divided on this issue. It is evident there is much work to be done.

Interpretation of the Findings

The literature review emphasized this generation's use of online social networking to connect, form communities, and pursue personal meaning and sense of belonging. The data also addressed the apprehension of teachers to connect with students using online social networking, citing concerns about self-disclosure and credibility (Mazer, et al., 2007). The goal of this research was to determine whether there were differences in self-reported levels of sense of community between a group of students who had limited access to an instructor's Facebook page and a group that had full access to comments, photos, videos, and links. The instrument used to determine these levels was the SCI-2. The analysis of this ex post facto study using archived data indicated no significant difference in the self-reported sense of community between the groups. With the alpha set at .05, the F value was .916, and the significance value was .341.

The results of this study suggest that an instructor's presence on Facebook did not generate a significant increase in cohesiveness for students. In other words, there is not a statistically significant difference in sense of community for students who have a Facebook relationship with their instructor, even those students in tourism, event planning, and recreation programs that historically attract collaborative students.

Implications for Social Change

Although researchers have supported the integration of social media as having significant implications for learning and the formation of community (Charnigo & Barnett-Ellis, 2007; Hewitt & Forte, 2006; Mathews, 2006; Mazer et al., 2007; Selwyn,

2007; Towner & VanHorn, 2007), research on the integration of social media as a catalyst to create or increase sense of community within the classroom has been lacking. To the point, there has not been enough research to substantiate whether sense of community increases, decreases, or remains the same with the integration of social media. The literature predicted a "collision between millennials who use technology and instructors who do not" (Lee, 2010, p. 11).

Encouraging educators to embrace new forms of technology and use them in the classroom is not a new discussion. For years, educators have been incentivized and supported, coached, and encouraged to move forward into new territory. The problems associated with adopting new technology often have been cited as lack of time and training, not credibility or self-disclosure. The very nature of online social networking and the casual nature of being "connected" may discourage educators from considering online social networking as a way to enhance the classroom, let alone increase cohesiveness and sense of community.

However, the issue remains that social networks, Facebook in particular for this study, are truly where students reside. This medium has created a community that advocates, embraces, encourages, and sustains; does not have ties to a geographic community; and is one that educators know very little about. The concern becomes the types and qualities of communities that are built using various social media, the tools researchers use to measure their investment to each other, and the definitions that educators use to define them. Chipuer and Pretty (1999) called for the integration of indexes to measure sense of community collectively. They also cautioned about weakening the overall research effort by using a range of definitions not grounded in a theoretical framework.

The results of this study can serve as a starting point from which to consider online social networking as an instructional tool that could help to build a sense of community in the classroom. The study might also influence instructors of nontourism, event planning, and recreation programs, as well as course that do not focus specifically on the people's business. This study could also be of interest to online teachers who desire to create more cohesive learning environments or instructors who do not use traditional methods of communicating with each other.

Recommendations for Action

It is important for instructors to consider the ways in which younger generations use technology to form relationships and stay current with trends in technology. It also is important for educators to consider the implications of connectivist learning and the ways in which they may correlate with social media such as Facebook. Building sense of community and leveraging technology to connect with students has positive results and helps to increase affective learning (Mazer et al, 2007); however, the results of this study also indicate that granting students access to full or limited Facebook content is not enough to increase sense of community. The question then becomes one of asking how educators can cultivate an increase in sense of community during the instructional process.

McMillan and Chavis (1986) emphasized the importance of shared emotional connections, as well as the integration and fulfillment of needs as key determinants of psychological sense of community. They also ascertained that (a) boundaries are marked by such things as language, dress, and ritual; (b) members of a group must feel empowered to have influence; (c) members of groups are seen as being rewarded in various ways for their participation; and (d) shared history becomes the community's story – the definitive element for a true community. If McMillan and Chavis were correct, then educators must consider the ways in which they connect to students in service of the cultivation of sense of community. This may mean that educators have to look "outside of the box" and seek new instructional strategies that are controversial, edgy, and not always embraced by the academic community. Continued research in this area will help educators to understand the implications of such actions.

Recommendations for Further Study

This research focused on archived data, which showed an increase in sense of community for students who had full and limited access to an instructor's Facebook page. Based upon the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered:

1. This archived data comprised four classes (N = 105 students) and measured self-reported sense of community over one semester. A study following a similar group of students for a longer period using two methods of data collection is recommended. In addition to the SCI-2 for quantitative investigation, the future study could conduct a qualitative exploration of students' perceived sense of community and group cohesion by using the 24-item SCI-2 and the Group Cohesion Evaluation Questionnaire (Glass & Benshoff, 2002).
2. Further research on this topic should focus on relational sense of community by using a qualitative approach that includes focus groups to facilitate further exploration of the participants' experience.
3. Research should be conducted outside the tourism, event planning, and recreation discipline, focusing on individual and group level effects of sense of community as well as sense of community in relational communities and nontraditional communities.
4. The study should be repeated using the Perceived Sense of Community Scale (Bishop, Chertok, & Jason, 1997) as an alternative to the SCI-2.

CONCLUSION

Diverse opinions on whether educators should be "friends" with their students or engage in social networking activities with their students have been expressed. The literature review revealed the desire that students have to connect, and the challenges that educators face in dealing with the increased use in technology. The literature also indicated that students are using online social networking, instead of the traditional methods of the past, to create and maintain relationships. The goal of this research study was to analyze archived data and evaluate Facebook specifically as a way to close the gap

in the literature.

Additional research is needed to determine whether online social networks can enhance or increase sense of community in the classroom for learners. Future efforts will include other forms of online social networking, and the research questions will continue to drive data collection and analysis. The ongoing objective for this research stream is to understand that social media are a mainstay for the millennial generation and those generations that follow. More important is the fact that educators need to find the balance between apprehension toward social media and a comfort level in building community in the classroom setting.

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PRO-POOR TOURISM VIA COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANIZATIONS: EVIDENCES FROM YUHU TOURISM CO-OPERATIVE

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ABSTRACT

A number of tourism co-operatives have been initiated in some rural areas of China. However, there is a lack of understanding of its role as an operating mechanism in poverty alleviation. In-depth interviews from Yuhu tourism co-operative in China suggest that tourism co-operatives can be an effective mechanism for achieving sustainable development in peripheral regions via balancing development for different stakeholders, strengthening bargaining power, and imposing democratic management. Reflections on tourism co-operatives and pro-poor tourism in the current study may provide useful information for tourism co-operatives and public agencies.

KEYWORD: Sustainable tourism, tourism co-operative, tourism development

INTRODUCTION

China has long been an agricultural country. The government has taken a series of measures to eradicate poverty in rural areas. Since 2004, the Chinese government has issued seven central NO. 1 documents (the first national document released annually with policy implications), and all of them have stipulated clear regulations for supporting farmer specialized co-operatives (P.R.C The Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and the State Council, 2004; 2005; 2006; 2007; 2008; 2009; 2010). The government pays much attention to co-operatives in rural areas. This paper intends to explore if and how such co-operatives contribute to poverty alleviation.

There is a lack of theoretical research on tourism co-operatives in China. Little attention has been received from academic investigations on such an initiative despite its fast growing prevalence in practice and abundant media coverage. So far, tourism co-operatives are only briefly mentioned in academic papers as a suggestion for poverty alleviation. Nevertheless, the role of tourism co-operatives in poverty alleviation remains unknown. This study explores if and how tourism cooperatives alleviate poverty in China.

Co-operatives and Pro-poor Tourism

Reducing poverty in China has been an on-going challenge. The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (2005) describe poverty in

three closely interrelated dimensions: “poverty of income and assets”, “poverty of access to essential infrastructure and services”, and “poverty of power and participation in decision-making.”

Efforts have been spent over the last decade to develop useful models for poverty-alleviation through tourism. Two international organizations, Pro-poor Tourism Partnership (Ashley, Roe, & Goodwin, 2001) and Sustainable Tourism - Eliminating Poverty (UNWTO, 2002), have been launched to identify strategies, principles, best practices, and challenges of using tourism as a poverty alleviation mechanism. ‘Pro Poor Tourism’ (PPT) in the current study refers to tourism that results in increased net benefits for poor people (Ashley, Roe, & Goodwin, 2001). Extant studies have been conducted and the study results were disseminated via various means including pro-poor tourism partnership on their website www.propoortourism.org.uk (Chok et al., 2007; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007), and in special issues of *Current Issues in Tourism* (Volume 10, issues 2 &3 , 2007), *Third World Quarterly* (Volume 29, issues 5, 2008), and *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research* (Volume14, issues 2, 2009).

The challenge to PPT is how and where to intervene in order to provide better opportunities, empowerment and security to poor people at the local level (UNESCAP, 2005, p. 8). According to the ST-EP (Sustainable Tourism - Eliminating Poverty) program (UNWTO, 2002) establishing and running of small enterprises represents one of the most important mediums for the poor to participate in and share the benefits of tourism development (UNWTO, cited in Zhao, 2009, p. 170). Small tourism enterprises has a significant role in pro-poor because this is where the poor are able to access the tourism economy (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). Zhao (2009) further demonstrates the positive role of local small tourism businesses in PPT with a set of indicators to evaluate its economic effectiveness.

However, small tourism businesses in real practice are facing several challenges particularly in rural and peripheral areas. Although there is fast development of rural tourism, traditional rural economic disadvantages, such as ineffective market information and weak market competitive power (Hu, 2009), are emerging and have blocked local small tourism businesses from participating in the tourism industry. The unorganized state, small size, weak competitiveness, and poor quality of market operation have become the main defects of rural tourism development and pro-poor tourism (Song, 2009). Wang and Li (2009) echoes this point based on their abundant first hand information. Therefore, the poor performance of small businesses, which has decreased its effectiveness in pro-poor tourism, alerts a need for solutions to improve small businesses competitiveness. Roger (2010) promotes the idea of small tourism businesses working together to enhance their competitiveness rather than competing against each other.

Farmer cooperatives have been proposed in agricultural studies to solve similar problems (Hu, 2009; Wang & Li, 2009). Song (2009) summarizes the reasons of forming such co-operatives: more effective use of resources, preserving farmers’ rights in marketing, protecting public resources, and decreasing cut-throat competition. According

to the International Co-operatives Alliance's (ICA, 2007), A co-operative is an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically-controlled enterprise. Based on this definition, this paper defines tourism co-operative as a voluntary association of persons in tourism industry united to meet their common economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically-controlled tourism organization.

There is no common "blueprint" or widely accepted model of pro-poor tourism (Sofield *et al*., cited in Suntikul *et al*., 2009, p.155), but two themes have been found to be fundamental – destination competitiveness and local participation (Zhao, 2009; Zhao & Riche, 2007). Achieving collective benefits is another major characteristic of co-operatives. Therefore, this study was designed to understand the pro-poor effect of tourism co-operatives.

METHODOLOGY

The study was taken place in Yuhu village, which is located at the foot of Jade Dragon Mountain and lies 15 KM away from Lijiang downtown. This village has been recognized as the original home of the Naxi ethnic group (Horst, Fredrich, & Su, 2006). Due to its peripheral position around Lijiang Basin, the traditional Naxi culture and distinct "monkey-head-like" stone houses have been completely preserved. In addition, in the early 20th century, Joseph Rock, of Austria-American ethnology, resided in this village to learn Naxi culture for 21 years (China Discovery, 2012). The above mentioned attractive tourism resources have driven considerable numbers of international and domestic tourists to this isolated village since the end of the 20th century. At first, local villagers provided food and guides to the tourists who visited their villages but now the tourism organization form in Yuhu has changed from individual operation to collective management. During this process, the village committee performed, initiated and supervised actions.

This study is exploratory in its nature due to limited research on pro-poor effects of community-based organization. Qualitative methods were employed to develop preliminary understanding of the topic. In-depth interviews with villagers (45), mangers of community-based organizations (5), and other stakeholders (10) were employed. Snowball sampling enable the researcher reach various stakeholders who play a role in those villages' rural tourism development. Beside these specific in-depth interviews, the author also held numerous conversations with local villagers. These informal chats helped to obtain valuable information and clarify confusions. Two field studies had been carried out in last August and December in 2011. A systematic coding procedure including open, axial, and selective coding were conducted with the software assistance of ATLAS.TI6.2.

FINDINGS

Perception of poverty

"Bitter" and "hard" were the major descriptors used by most villagers when they were asked to describe their previous life before the establishment of tourism co-operative. Their descriptions focused on the harsh natural environment and the difficulty of making a living. All the villagers agreed unanimously on their poverty when asked the follow-up question: "do you think your previous life was poor, And why?". Lack of financial income and making comparisons with others as well as between their present and past selves were the principle reasons offered for the hardships.

Lack of income is one of the arguments for the villagers who said that "we were very poor in the past". Financial income is restricted by the harsh environment, petty gains from farming, and the necessity to have more than one job. Like most other villagers in China, farming was their major livelihood in the past, an occupation that was largely controlled by the harsh environment in that the temperature in Yuhu is too low to grow plants. The barren soils, being sandy and rocky, further degenerate the output from field, allowing only 250 kilograms of wheat each Mu. Villagers used to make a living mainly based on farming that only brought in small profits. Only cold resistant species could be grown in Yuhu, such as wheat, potatoes, corn, and turnips, which are sold at low prices in agricultural markets. Rice is not suitable for growing in this village because of the weather so villagers bartered wheat for rice in the past. For most of the villagers, the outputs from their fields only made a bare subsistence living, while a few of them even had to depend on government relief food. Food not required for daily consumption was used for breeding pigs, chicken, horse, and cattle, the major sources of domestic meat.

The low returns from farming drove villagers to engage in some activities which may generate extra income, by taking advantage of natural resources provided by the mountains. Basket and broom making, snow herb collecting, illegal timber cutting, illegal mineral exploitation, and sand digging were among these alternatives that most Yuhu villagers engaged in. According to Horst, Fredrich, and Su (2006), "In Yuhu, villagers ventured into the forest to log at night, fearful that their neighbors would cut remaining forests (p.378)". The villagers, however, claimed that they had no choice since their income from farming was insufficient to cover their essentials such as education and medicine, and that this risky behavior was the only way to sustain their living. Their aggregate income, however, was still extremely limited. For example, a villager named Li suggested that his four-meter-length plank was only sold for about one Yuan. His workloads were heavy. The early years work in digging sand had left him many scars on legs. Although he put more efforts on farming, he lamented that the other supplementary jobs had been much more profitable than farming. In comparison with other off-farm work opportunities, tourism has been a lucrative alternative considering the amount of labor input and returns.

Few goods were affordable to villagers due to their lack of income as what they obtained from farmland only provided subsistence and anything requiring money to obtain was a luxury for them. Few families had color TV. Roofs were vulnerable to

strong winds. Prior to 2004, relatively few of inhabitants were able to afford to buy lime, with which they would have been able to strengthen the structures by cementing the tiles into place. Instead, they had to try to weigh the roofs down with heavy stones, an inefficient and ineffective substitute for lime. From the perspective of the modern peasant, chemical fertilizer can lead to a continual increase in yield and is helpful in agriculture. When detailing their lack of the means for meeting their material needs, participants pointed out that they were too poor to afford chemical fertilizer. Although growing numbers of agrarian researchers have concluded that artificial growth-factors such as chemical fertilizers and pesticides distant farming from nature (Jan, 2010), it is clear that the villagers quality of life was negatively impacted by their lack of access to items that cost money to purchase.

Pre and post tourism co-operative times

Balance: no tourist V.S. Too many tourists. Strong desires for equality in various dimensions of tourism participation have been noticed in the field. In the case of Yuhu, strong desires for sharing tourism profits have been displayed among majority of villagers. Such a desire derived them to jointly establish the tourism co-operative.

When asked about the number of tourists before the establishment of tourism co-operative, horse bosses and other villagers gave two obviously different answers. At first, only a small number of villagers, the so-called "horse bosses" (Ma-lao-ban, who organize horse riding activities for tourists), were able to earn profits from tourism, due to their strong business network and better communication skills. There were 7-8 significant horse bosses who could gain substantial tourists and employed other villagers to lead the horses to tourists. In peak season, there were more than 30 tourists approaching each of these horse bosses. There were 20-30 households acting as small horse bosses who had fewer tourists and employed smaller number of villagers. There were fierce completions among horse bosses. Both big and small horse bosses gave priority to their relatives and friends, and the payments of villagers depended on the closeness of their relationships. One participant, who was a significant hours boss stated that they earned more than RMB1000 a day and had build his new houses, furniture, and electronic appliances at that time. He expressed his resentment towards the tourism co-operative by claiming that he would have been a millionaire if he could run his horse guiding business in the individual way. The majority of the villagers were only able to perform laboring service for the "horse bosses" in the hope of being granted opportunities to offer services to tourists. Even so, only one third of village had the chance of service in tourism. Due to the monopolization of those horse bosses, most villagers perceived that there was no tourist in their village before the embellishment of tourism co-operatives in the same village under the same period.

The attractive tourism benefits, in comparison with dissatisfactory farming income, promoted the premium social position of the horse bosses and eroded the social interrelationships in this small village. Most villagers said that the relationship between their relatives and friends has come to be regarded as secondary to the importance of money. In 2004, the new village leader, elected by the villagers, noticed the great desire

for equality among the majority of the villagers and established the Yuhu Tourism Co-operatives. This collective organization has gained much support from the villagers. "Pooling resources together, sharing benefit equally; everyone participate; every household benefits," are the slogan of tourism co-operatives, clearly known by members.

Bargaining power. The establishment of Yuhu tourism co-operative jeopardized the profits of the "horse bosses" and other tourism intermediaries. Price had been regarded as the only way of attracting tourism intermediaries, who could bring substantial numbers of tourists by making preliminary contacts with them and influencing their purchase choices with exaggerated information, to their village. One driver boasted of his role in tourists' purchases by exclaiming "How can tourists who have no idea about our city know where to go? They will definitely seek our comments. The way how our drivers introduce different tourism service providers determinates the perceptions of tourists on them". In past literatures, the dominant position of tourism intermediaries has been recognized and pointed out the less mature of a tourism destination market, the stronger of that dominated power will be. Horse bosses cut their service prices to attract tourism intermediaries such as drivers and guest house owners in their fierce price competition with each other which had promoted the premium market position of tourism intermediaries. Consequently, the horse bosses lowered villagers' wages which were at the bottom of the tourism service chain and offered the hardest labor service. The tourism intermediaries benefited from this price competition among horse bosses while the poor villagers lost their bargaining power in tourism market, which they were not familiar with. During 2003, the negative effects of price competition on villagers were marked, and led some villagers to develop rude attitudes towards tourists because of their low payment.

Taking into account the complaints of the poor villagers, the newly established tourism co-operative employed totally different marketing strategies from previous horse bosses, who were only concerned with their own profits. In order to obtain substantial benefits for every villager, the co-operative set higher price for their services. The other tourism service providers, such as drivers and guest house owners, were not willing to accept this change, and this resulted in a tense relationship with the co-operative for two months. Only 2-3 tourists a day came to the village, and sometimes none at all. It was a period filled with challenges from both outside and inside the village to the newly implemented tourism co-operative which had claimed it would bring more tourists to all the villagers. In the village, the horse bosses, whose privileges had been taken by the co-operative were angry and spread rumors about the failure of the co-operative, claiming that no tourists had shown up at that time.

Emboldened by support from the majority of the villagers' the tourism co-operative, which represented the benefit of most villagers, gained more power to raise the payments for the villagers. The new tourism co-operative improved the communication with villagers and tourism intermediaries. The leaders talked with drivers and guest house owners about the stronger reliability of collective management to promote mutual benefit. They also persuaded the villagers to focus on long term profits by speaking out their price requirements on the tourism market. Most villagers did not have the opportunity of

becoming involved in the tourism which they had dreamed about. The strong desire for equality enabled the co-operative to gain support from the villagers and encouraged them to refuse to take orders from horse bosses and drivers. During the interviews, three leaders still appreciated the villagers' support, to which they attributed their own success. By the end of the confrontation, the requirement of the majority of the villagers had been achieved, with the service payment for every villager rising from its lowest point of 20 to as high as 100 Yuan. Villagers were able to protect their own profits and directly gain benefits from this confrontation. The rumors spread by the horse bosses failed to convince, and most villagers were witness to the success of the tourism co-operative. Most villagers are still proud of their persistence when recalling their memories of this episode. The united force enabled those poor villagers make their demands clear and gave them stronger bargaining power than they would have had operating individually in the market. In this way the poor people were able to deal with the dominant position of the tourism intermediaries in an immature market.

Democratic management. There were many new issues emerging with which the villagers had never encountered in their past farming activity when they first set up tourism co-operative. Meetings among leaders and with villagers were necessary for finding out implacable solutions. All of the twelve leaders discussed on the problems every day and got off work together until everyone had completed their works separately. Villagers had meeting in separate groups after the leaders achieved certain consensus. Mei explained the process of the villagers meeting: "Our group leader claimed with what the leaders had agreed at first and he asked us to point out the inappropriate part in his statements. Our suggestions were warmly welcomed and would be adopted because we villagers were the one who serve tourists so that we were familiar with tourists. The discussion process was magical because we normally found out a better collective solution together after everyone stated their own opinions. Most of us enjoyed this discussion process which even lasted to 12 pm sometimes. The group leader then collected our opinion to the leaders' meeting of co-operative by which the output of our discussion would be implemented officially." Being open and adopting certain suggestions stimulated mutual communication between leaders and villagers. Most rules of co-operatives had been figured out via villagers' discussion including prices of each route, the amount of commission, regulation on leading horse, sanitary of horse saddle, and personal dressing codes. Those rules were easy to implement because it was the consensus of most villagers. Those warm discussions act as catalyzer of inter-organization relationship as claimed by Mr. Zhao that "we became more united after frequent communication with each other and we tried to think in the shoes of each other after knowing how others think".

Besides the leaders' modest attitudes, combining village's development with tourism had been found as another main factor which increased the involvement of villagers. Collective development funds had been accumulated and could be used in village constructions. During the meeting with villagers, the discussion topic focused not only on how to serve tourists, but also about other village related issues, such as constructions, which had invoked the interests of villagers to participate in. Mr. Li from group 5 claimed that "It was difficult to walk in the muddy road while raining. So I took

the chance of group meeting to address the needs of harden the surface of road." Like Mr. Li, many villagers regarded those meetings as important channel to express their concerns. Attributing to this democratic meeting, constructions were undertaken on behalf of most villagers. The Ethnic and Religious Affairs Bureau of Yulong County had planned to build a dancing square with one million RMB for Yuhu, which was adjusted after the discussion with villagers. In comparison with dancing square, most villagers thought it seemed more urgent and practical to use that money on building activity room for elderly people, roads, and old resident house of Rock. Those democratic meeting had improved the positive impacts of co-operative on most villagers.

Growing expectations: Tourism incomes V.S. Wine and tobacco cost. To the authors' surprise, all the villagers realized that tourism has improved their living conditions in comparison with their past life without any cash income. Tourism incomes, however, were not able to bring big changes to their lives. Most villagers commented that tourism was just one of their part time jobs besides farming and they placed low expectation from tourism on improving their lives. For instance, Mei's family had suffered from family members' disease several times and her father lost the labor ability. Due to their financial difficulties, they were still using a 14-inch television and other poor condition furniture. Mei's grandpa claimed that "We merely get 20 Yuan payment for one tourist. That is able to cover a pack of 10 Yuan tobaccos and lunch. Where can I gain extra money for my breakfast, dinner, wine, tea, cloths, shoes, salt, and oil? I had to do other labor work to gain enough money in order to cover our cost of living. " The spending of large portion of income on tobaccos and eating out was in contradictory with traditional image of poor people in which the poor were perceived to minimizing their cost of living by purchasing nothing but necessities for sustain their living. Like the case of Mei's grandpa, most male informants asserted that the incomes from tourism were not able to cover their wine and tobacco costs.

One villager further added that the enthusiasm of villagers was not as strong as at the beginning stage of tourism co-operative. Villagers who have experienced the benefits of tourism co-operative are now alleviating their requirements more contribution of co-operative to their life. It is reasonable that they were not satisfied with degenerative income. According to the cadres, associating tourism incomes with money for wine and tobacco was common among villagers. However, one officer from local government presented different views by addressing the importance of wine and tobacco in Naxi culture. Naxi culture thinks highly of wine and tobacco in social relationships. There is a hundred-year-old tradition that everyone should bring along wine and tobacco and distributed them to everyone they know after they went to the center of Lijiang. Nevertheless, the growing dissatisfaction with tourism incomes presents an alert for the management team of tourism co-operatives as villagers might have upgraded their requirement in the process of tourism development.

DISCUSSIONS

Evidences from Yuhu suggested that tourism co-operatives not only provide access for the poor to participate in tourism but also empower them in decision-making.

At the very beginning stage of co-operatives, every member invests in this collective economy. A co-operative management board and rules are selected and discussed among the residents. The community leader who represents and makes daily decisions for the local community is a trusted individual by the local residents. This operation regulation is recognized by every member. Important decisions are made through democratic member control which can broadly encourage the participation of poor people in the decision making progress. Tourism co-operative is also a bridge between strong government and disadvantaged residents, elevating famer's negotiation position. As local residents join together for common development, their opinions on how a community develops are likely to be taken into consideration. The government can also utilize this pathway to understand local residents' mindsets.

In conclusion, tourism cooperatives improve the pro-poor significance of tourism via promoting local participation, improving businesses competitiveness, and balancing collusive development. Increasing individual revenue is the most eloquent action of reducing poverty. Co-operatives could be an effective strategy to achieve such a purpose. Generally, the farmers usually are weak at marketing their products due to a lack of market information. Co-operatives organize members to discuss their development together, which is also a chance for members to share their information with each other (Xu & Huang, 2009). Tourism co-operative is synonymous with collusive enterprise which helps small businesses to be more competitive in the market. Co-operatives often balance the interests of different sectors and the development of the present and the future. The individual small business narrowly concentrates on personal economic benefits. As the local community unites together, the social and the environment will be considered as a holistic development. As a collective organization, co-operatives play an important role in coordinating different stakeholders.

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Working Papers

Working Papers

AN OVERVIEW OF EDUCATION FOR AUSTRALIA: THE TOURISM HIGHER EDUCATION CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

The body of knowledge as to what constitutes sustainable education is garnering interest. Although the concept of sustainability can be viewed as an ideological debate with multiple meanings, it is evident that higher education has started to engage with the concept of education for sustainability (EfS). It is almost the end of the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNDESD) 2005-14, yet there is confusion about how to put EfS into practice within higher education. The literature discusses a number of barriers and challenges that universities experience as they seek to embrace sustainability. Campus 'greening' initiatives presently overshadow EfS progress as far as curriculum development and teaching and learning practices are concerned. This paper briefly reviews the key concepts underpinning EfS; that is, a whole systems-thinking, interdisciplinary approach which seek to achieve the goal of holistic understanding and deep transformative learning. Furthermore, the wider EfS literature promotes students learning alternative values to become critical and reflexive thinkers and, more broadly, to enable a resilient society capable of creative thinking and ethically responsible action. A snapshot of the EfS scene in Australia is provided, with particular attention given to the tourism (including hospitality, events, and leisure and sports management) education context. A number of suggestions are proposed to stimulate the uptake and further development of EfS in tourism education. The paper concludes with identification of potential research for EfS in tourism higher education.

KEYWORDS: Curriculum, Education for Sustainability, Higher Education, Learning and Teaching, Tourism

INTRODUCTION

The notion of sustainability, at least in the Western world, has been a topic of discussion since the modern environmental movement emerged in the 1960s. This movement saw radical changes in social thought, and a call to alter our worldview, including what it means to live life collectively as humans and in concert with nature. Supporters of the environmental movement hope an 'eco-philosophic' worldview is adopted in contrast to the anthropocentric 'dominant Western worldview and its environmentally destructive outcomes' (Fien, 2002, p. 149). The call towards a more sustainable living and working world is the aspiration that is being demanded by many (Eckersley, 2006; Sterling, 2010). Since its modern day ascendance from the Stockholm Declaration 1972 and later enshrined in the seminal Brundtland Report of 1987 (Our Common Future), the concept of 'sustainability' has become difficult to reconcile as multiple perspectives exist.

As educators of the 21st century we are firmly situated in the global sustainability discourse with ongoing discussion regarding the role education should play (Fien, 2002; Kearins & Springett, 2003). In response to concern over the rapid depletion of the earth's natural resources and urgent need to conserve for future generations, several international and national declarations have been made. Notably the 1990 Talloires Declaration (TD) created a ten point action plan for education institutions committed to promoting EfS and environmental literacy (Wright, 2002). To date the TD has been signed by 437 university leaders across 40 countries. Other official declarations pronouncing sustainability aspirations followed (Wright, 2004 for details) so by 2005 the global forum was well primed to welcome the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNDESD) 2005-14.

2015 will see end of the UNDESD decade, the goal of which is to integrate the principles, values and practices of sustainable development into all aspects of education and learning (UNESCO, 2005). Evidence of action towards these goals in higher education was slow at first (Fisher & Bonn, 2011; Pigozzi, 2010; Shephard, 2010). Presently there is still widespread differing of opinions over what the term 'sustainability' actually represents and how this can be achieved (Fuller, 2010). The concept of sustainability can be considered so overloaded with implications that it threatens to make the notion meaningless (Mundt, 2011). Particularly within the higher education curriculum and learning environment, the journey continues to be long and slow. The fundamental issue of what sustainability education should consist of is either not clear (Loader, 2010) or is contested (Shephard, 2010). The large number of academic papers discussing these issues reflects the struggle higher education has to connect with the principles of sustainability and the UNDESD goal. However the higher education literature demonstrates progress is taking place with campus sustainability, often referred to as campus 'greening' (recycling, carbon foot print mapping,) now widely pursued by many institutions (Leihy & Salazar, 2011; Shriberg, 2003).

The message underpinning international educational declarations, and supported by some higher education commentators, is that universities have an important role to play in shaping this societal change. The wider EfS literature contains a number of key concepts underpinning EfS which will now be discussed. A snapshot of the Australian EfS scene will then be described, with particular attention given to the tourism (including hospitality, events, leisure and sports management) education context. The paper concludes with identification of future research avenues for EfS in Australia.

EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABILITY (EfS)

A consensus is building in the general higher education literature around the need to change our view of the purpose of education (Fien, 2002; Kearins & Springett, 2003; Tilbury, 1995). Some authors believe education is a 'deeply moral enterprise' and 'should be about equipping people to lead good lives' (Kelly & Alam, 2009, p. 33) instead of merely training students with skills for the workplace (Inui, Wheeler, & Lankford, 2006; Lewis, 2005). More specifically there is criticism that the overall current education

regime is technocratic and reductionist, thus unsupportive of the principles of sustainability (Fien, 2002; Sterling, 2001). Furthermore, proponents of critical and radical education regard teaching as an overtly political act, whether one likes it or not (Springett, 2005). They urge educators to take responsibility to expose and discuss values and assumptions with students, considered necessary to engage them in learning about sustainability.

The term EfS is a relatively recent and predominantly Australian term based on the concept of 'education for sustainable development' which is used more globally (Leihy & Salazar, 2011). EfS is defined to mean education which requires a paradigm shift from traditional ways of thinking and acting upon environmental problems towards a new approach based on future-orientated thinking and acting (Tilbury & Cooke, 2005). EfS represents a move beyond education that is *in* and *about* the environment to one that is *for* the environment; an approach promoting critical reflection with an overt agenda for proactive and systemic social change (Tilbury & Cooke, 2005).

From a preliminary review of the literature conceptual papers abound about EfS. Some of the dominant themes currently permeating the literature associated with EfS are:

- A rethinking of the role of higher education. According to Wals (2011) the planet can no longer can afford the 'wait and see' attitude but requires action now at every level and in a way that brings about a new kind of thinking about what and how we learn. This involves a paradigm shift of thinking across the whole higher education institution where principles of sustainability are embedded in all practices and learning.
- Students require development of 'capacity building' skills of critical thinking, reflection, innovation and problem solving skills as advocated by Tilbury, Keogh, Leighton, and Kent (2005).
- 'Weak' to 'strong' approaches towards sustainability (Kearins & Springett, 2003; Sterling & Thomas, 2006) with the latter, although being the ideal one, hardest to achieve (von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2011). The former involves a tokenistic, add-on in the curriculum resulting in superficial understanding, or reflected in focus on learning about isolated tasks such as paper recycling.
- A whole systems-thinking approach is required (Sterling & Thomas, 2006) where there is interdisciplinary input achieving holistic understanding (Nowak, Rowe, Thomas, & Klass, 2008; Shephard, 2010; Sipos, Battisti, & Grimm, 2008; Sterling & Thomas, 2006). The importance of addressing the 'affective' domain of learning (Shephard, 2008; Sipos et al., 2008) allowing students to reflect on their values, beliefs and attitudes to generate learning about sustainability (Lewis, Mansfield, & Baudains, 2008; Nowak et al., 2008; Sterling, 1996). For example, Stibbe (2009) collates various skill sets deemed advantagous for sustainability literacy such as Gaia awareness, futures thinking and values reflection.
- Use of the Earth Charter as a source of inspiration and guidance to provide universal ethical principles for sustainable development (Preston, 2010; Sterling, 2010).
- Calls for a new form of pedagogy (Jamal, Taillon, & Dredge, 2011; Tooth & Renshaw, 2009) with a suggestion called ecopedagogy (Gadotti, 2010). This

includes deep learning (Shephard, 2010; Warburton, 2003) and an emanicaptory approach involving transformatory learning (Wals, 2011).

- The benfits of experiential and participatory social learning (Wals, 2007) using for example service learning as a vehicle for EfS in the curricula (Newman, 2008). Sibbel (2009) recommends curricula to include experiences that improve awareness of social and moral responsibilities to advance the 'new way of thinking' embedded in EfS.

The above list demonstrates there is active discourse about EfS generally within the education environment. Yet there appears to be little discussion around what being 'sustainable' actually means and what knowledge should inform it and how it is best learnt. Furthermore, research into academic perspectives identifies challenges at university prevail: perceived lack of expertise, paucity of time and crowded curriculum (Blincoe et al., 2009); concern with receiving criticism for indoctrinating students (Shephard, 2008); and confusion over what to teach and how to assess (Reid & Petocz, 2006). Generally the transition towards EfS appears to be contentious and difficult for most higher education institutions.

THE AUSTRALIAN UNIVERSITY IN THE CONTEXT OF SUSTAINABILITY

The Australian Government's National Action Plan for Education for Sustainability, Living Sustainably (Australian Government, 2009), provides a framework for national action to work towards the objectives put forward in the United Nation's Decade of Education for Sustainable Development. The focus for universities is to create EfS opportunities within their programs; building capacity and skills which prepare students to tackle the challenges they will face as society moves towards a more sustainable world (Tilbury et al., 2005; UniversitiesAustralia, 2006). Evidence so far suggests that similar to the higher education system elsewhere, Australian universities have been slow to adopt these shifts (Fisher & Bonn, 2011; Shephard, 2010; Sherren, 2005; Springett, 2005; Thomas & Nicita, 2002). Although EfS may be starting to gain traction in some disciplines (von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2011), there is still widespread general confusion over what the term 'sustainability' actually represents, and how it is to be manifested (Fisher & Bonn, 2011; Fuller, 2010; von der Heidt, Lamberton, Wilson, & Morrison, 2012). A number of academic papers written on the topic of barriers and challenges in Australia reflects the struggle higher education has in incorporating EfS at all levels, but particularly with EfS in curricula (Fisher & Bonn, 2011; Nowak et al., 2008; Reid & Petocz, 2006; Sherren, 2005; Sibbel, 2009; von der Heidt, Lamberton, Morrison, & Wilson, 2011). As observed by Shephard (2010) and Kelly and Alam (2009), the issue of sufficient resources particularly with regard to time allocations, and a disciplinary protectionist silo attitude, can prevail as deterrents for progress towards EfS.

One barrier may be that teachers in higher education do not hold sustainable development as a core value (Reid & Petocz, 2006). Furthermore, a recent study in the business discipline by von der Heidt et al. (2012) concludes that although many academics interviewed hold strong sustainability beliefs, this does not necessarily translate into curriculum and their own teaching practices. Another challenge, as Wright

(2009) argues, in the Australian context, is that students do not see sustainability issues as important either. Holdsworth, Wyborn, Bekessy, and Thomas (2008) advise professional development of academics for EfS should be an important first step. This can be followed by the adoption of innovative teaching and learning activities which demonstrates the link between critical values thinking and vocational and life skills to students.

Australian EfS champions are emerging nevertheless and making significant inroads towards interpreting the concept of EfS (Jennings, Kensbock, & Kachel, 2010). The following are some examples:

- The Australian Government funds the Australian Research Institute for Environment and Sustainability (ARIES) based at Macquarie University. It produces reports and resources aimed specifically at EfS in higher education (ARIES, 2009; Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2007; Hunting, May, & Tilbury, 2006; Tilbury et al., 2005).
- The Australian Learning and Teaching Council in collaboration with University of Technology Sydney have created a dedicated website 'Learning & Teaching Sustainability'. It is an online deposit for sharing of cutting edge approaches to EfS and provides information on programs and courses with sustainability focus (Australian Learning and Teaching Council, 2010).
- The Australasian Campuses Towards Sustainability (ACTS), an online non-profit member based organisation, brings together a network of people for positive engagement, capacity building and change (Australasian Campuses Towards Sustainability, 2011). Currently thirty three Australian universities are signed up as Institutional members.
- Twenty Australian universities are now signatory to the Talloires Declaration; almost half of the total number of institutions in the country.
- Three Australian universities offer a dedicated Bachelor of Sustainability course at undergraduate level.
- Finally, Australian university websites generally reveal acknowledgement of the notion of sustainability in various forms. Such as informal sustainability action groups, cycle-to-work programs, recycle and reuse initiatives and funding applications for sustainability projects.

While these initiatives show that genuine moves are taking place across Australia, more research is needed to ascertain how much traction EfS is making within the university curriculum. For example it is questionable whether universities are committed to using the Talloires document as an impetus and framework for steady progress toward sustainability, as for some, membership of the TD may be a symbolic act only (Sanders & Le Clus, 2011). A recent report by Leihy and Salazar (2011) on EfS in university curricula in the Australian state of Victoria, finds a mixed response in university policies and practice. Although evidence for education about campus sustainability represents a promising development, it presently overshadows progress of EfS in curriculum development (Leihy & Salazar, 2011).

In support of findings from other parts of the world, Australian research points to the following to encourage the take-up of EfS in universities:

- The need for whole of institution support to embed EfS throughout its universities. This requires both a top-down and grass-roots momentum of commitment (Sibbel, 2009; Thomas, 2004).
- Professional development for staff to learn about sustainability and guidance with how to embed sustainability principles within the curriculum (Sibbel, 2009; Thomas, 2004).
- Universities to become cooperative and less competitive (Gadotti, 2010) and encouraged to share EfS resources (Leihy & Salazar, 2011). Initiatives such as the ACTS organisation demonstrate this cultural change may be taking place. Through events organised by ACTS, universities in the Australasian region are collaborating together to form pathways towards sustainability.

SUSTAINABILITY IN TOURISM HIGHER EDUCATION

The importance of considering sustainability is deemed particularly fundamental in tourism (Sharpley, 2000). Tourism is highly dependent on natural resources, which are often scarce and fragile, and takes place in sensitive socio-cultural environments. Extensive research demonstrates the tourism phenomenon contributes to a wide range of environmental, social-cultural, economic and political impacts, both at a local and global level (Connell & Rugendyke, 2008; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). Tourism is an excellent vehicle through which to examine issues such as unsustainable development and ensuing impacts, for example socially on 'host' societies. Tourism commentators such as Sharpley (2000) believe for sustainable tourism development to be possible, tourism can no longer afford to focus on economics at the expense of ignoring the social-cultural, environmental and political influences and consequences. Therefore the consideration of sustainability is required in tourism education not just because it is deemed important generally for higher education and a UNESD goal, but because it is even more crucial in this area of study than many others.

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s Australia experienced rapid growth in the number of tourism higher education programs (Breakey & Craig-Smith, 2008). Many tourism courses sit within business or management schools and/or faculties, with business skills central to the curriculum, and a focus on promoting graduates to be 'job ready'. Research by Dredge et al. (2010) confirms that tourism education has adopted a vocational focus driven by a highly competitive consumer orientated market. Tourism research shows that many students just want to 'get a job' and industry wants graduates who are skilled for work (Dredge et al., 2010; Wang, Ayres, & Huyton, 2010; Zehrer & Mössenlechner, 2009). The results of an Australian case study by Wang et al. (2010) reveal a tendency by the tourism industry to place low value on subjects related to social development in favour of business skills subjects that can focus on economic profit.

Within tourism higher education there is discourse about what 'a tourism education' should represent and incorporate (Dredge et al., 2010; Fidgeon, 2010; Sheldon, Fesenmaier, & Tribe, 2011; Tribe, 2005). The approach taken seems to depend on the paradigm adopted by the school, the department and individual lecturers. Some commentators voice concern about tourism education's vocational perspective (Ayikoru,

Tribe, & Airey, 2009; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006). They argue this narrow approach limits the opportunity for students to gain broader perspectives and skills (Dredge et al., 2012), required to tackle the future challenges which face tourism. A move towards a more balanced liberal *and* vocational style of education recommended by Tribe (2002b) and Inui et al. (2006), may enable a holistic understanding of tourism as it relates to global and local social, cultural, environmental, economic and political issues. Students can question and reflect how issues relate to the responsibilities of tourism and think critically about the future of the industry (Inui et al., 2006). In line with the view expressed in studies by Sherren (2005) and Kelly and Alam (2009), the findings of a pilot study conducted by von der Heidt et al. (2012) indicate tourism teachers may perceive challenges with how to include wider social, cultural, environmental and political issues into an already crowded business focussed curriculum. In order to meet the challenges facing the tourism industry, fundamental changes are required of tourism education (Sheldon et al., 2011).

On reviewing the wider EfS literature a number of suggestions are relevant for tourism education's response to the need for embedding EfS within its higher education programs. Tourism curricula is encouraged to shift away from a passive, non-critical culture that is value-free to one that challenges current students' way of thinking, is value-laden and emancipatory (Springett, 2005). Evidence points to the benefit of a values-based education which refers to the importance of the 'affective' domain of learning (Littledyke, 2008; Shephard, 2008; Sipos et al., 2008) allowing students to reflect on their values, beliefs and attitudes to generate learning about sustainability (Lewis et al., 2008; Nowak et al., 2008; Sterling, 1996).

Similar to values-based education, the study of ethics is regarded as important in a student's higher education experience (Hultsman, 1995; Rundle-Thiele & Wymer, 2010; Tribe, 2002a). Ethical principles can be woven into the tourism curriculum via discussions about the role of corporate social responsibility, organisational behaviour, professional practice and the 1990 Global Ethics Code for Tourism (Kazimierczak, 2006). By discussing and reflecting on a range of different ethical standpoints this pluralistic approach enables students to develop a critical attitude (Ohman & Ostman, 2008). The Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI) framework for a values-based tourism curriculum (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, Cooper, & Antonioli, 2007) may provide guidance as to how to incorporate EfS. TEFI outlines five key values to be embedded into tourism curricula: ethics, stewardship, knowledge, mutuality and professionalism (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, & Tribe, 2009; Sheldon et al., 2011). Studies by Gretzel, Isacsson, Matarrita, and Wainio (2011) and Barber (2011) demonstrate successful application of TEFI values in teaching tourism by creating an innovative learning environment.

The use of experiential and participatory social learning opportunities within the tourism curriculum can improve awareness of social and moral responsibilities (Coll, Taylor, & Subhashni, 2003). Internship and other work-based learning is a common feature of tourism education which offers potential for harnessing EfS opportunities (Maclean & Fien, 2009). Students not only acquire vocational and technical knowledge,

but learn to understand and address ethical stewardship responsibilities by critical thinking and practical application (Wals, 2007).

Finally, it is important for tourism curricula to embrace a future orientation and enable students to think deeply and creatively about their vision of tourism (Ring, Dickinger, & Wöber, 2009). As the principles of sustainability are long term and slow to transpire (Wheeller, 2005) it is therefore necessary for tourism educators and tourism programs to equip students with the ability to undertake ongoing learning and development through life.

CONCLUSION

The principles of sustainable development are clearly of importance in higher education today, as revealed in the number of universities, teachers and degrees focussing on sustainability. Tourism is an important area of study socially, culturally and environmentally, and thus sustainability has a central role. The challenge before tourism educators is to respond and embed sustainability within the curriculum. The wider education literature suggests tourism education generally displays weak engagement with sustainability in the curriculum (Deale, Nichols, & Jacques, 2009). To date there is scant evidence of sustainability being clearly embedded throughout tourism education in Australia (Sanders & Le Clus, 2011), implying further research is required. Students need to learn alternative values and become reflexive to enable a resilient society capable of creative thinking and ethically responsible action (Wals, 2011). If EfS is guided by skills and capacity building then it is important to establish what this move toward sustainability entails from an ethical and values based perspective in tourism. The EfS literature offers an array of conceptual ideas and suggestions to engender sustainability education. Exploring 'how and why' EfS is emerging within the tourism university curricula in Australia is part of this drive, and ripe for further empirical research adopting an interpretive methodology.

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ECONOMIC IMPACT AND DESTINATION MARKETING COMPARISONS OF THE MOTORCOACH INDUSTRY IN MAINE

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ABSTRACT

The topic of this research is the Economic Impact and Destination Marketing comparisons of the Motorcoach Industry in Maine. The purpose of this research is two-fold as it attempts to help both the Maine Office of Tourism (MOT) and the Maine Motorcoach Network (MMN) determine how motorcoach tours and group business currently impact the state, and what can be done to further attract new business to the state.

This topic was selected for a variety of reasons, including the point of identifying travel and tourism practices that can be shared in their respective classrooms that relate to various business topics including marketing, finance, small business and tourism.

With thought-provoking, innovative ideas like sharing research results with tourism professionals, an opportunity exists for tour operators and escorts to create trendy explorations and itineraries that have the potential to increase the profitability for businesses inside and outside the State of Maine.

It is important to prepare students with current, relevant information that can be shared through class discussions, assignments, modern technology, and a hands-on approach to learning. If faculty members share best practices of research with students, they may better comprehend the rationale for analyzing data to enhance their understanding of the state of affairs pertinent to global, national, and local tourism practices.

KEYWORDS: Maine Motorcoach; Destination Marketing; Maine Motorcoach Economic Impact; Kaplan Research; Maine Tourism

HISTORY

Before motorcoaches and automobiles were invented, organized tours became part of the global landscape when in the 1840s, Thomas Cook, an Englishman, began escorting British travelers not only through Europe but to more exotic places like the

Middle East and Africa (Gagnon & Houser, 2005). Ninety-five years later, in 1935, Arthur Tauck, Sr., the son of a German immigrant to the United States, "secured the first tour broker license in the travel industry" (Tauck, n.d.).

While making his rounds as a traveling salesman in rural, northern New England in 1925, Tauck thought that others might enjoy the beauty he was admiring if they had a guide. This simple thought led to the birth of Tauck tours (Cushner, 2010, para 27). "Tauck advertised his first guided tour in a local New Jersey paper in 1925. The one-week excursion cost $69 per person, all meals and accommodations included; six people took him up on his offer (Cushner, 2010, para 28). The tour itinerary included coastal towns and villages of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Maine along with scenic-mountain drives in New Hampshire, Vermont, and Massachusetts (Cushner, 2010).

By 1951, Tauck created the forerunner to the National Tour Association (NTA) when he formed, the National Tour Brokers Association with 13 members ((Tauck, n.d.). By 1958, Tauck was expanding his business to include other modes of travel in addition to the motorcoach; Tauck Tours is now a full-service, global tour company.

Motorcoaches have come a long way since the days of Tauck carrying his passengers in an oversized automobile. The traditional United States motorcoach is designed to "accommodate anywhere from thirty-five to fifty-three passengers" (Mancini, 2001, p. 30) but some coaches are designed to accommodate more than 60 passengers (Mancini, 2001). In other parts of the world, however, motorcoaches are more luxurious and are equipped with amenities such as "sleeping quarters, showers, and cooking facilities" (Mancini, 2001, p. 30). Although those amenities are extreme, some modern coaches "are equipped with plush seats, restrooms, bars, and even video players with multiscreens throughout the coach. Specially designed coaches intended for a small number of passengers may have lounge chairs, sofas, and tables" (Gagnon & Houser, 2005, pp 142-143).

Motorcoaches have also become more energy efficient; MCI, a manufacturer of motorcoaches since 1933 "is focusing on merging luxury and eco-friendliness, with EPA-compliant clean-diesel engines with near-zero emissions and fuel savings along with hybrid and compressed natural gas (CNG) options" (MCI, n.d.).

In the State of Maine, Scott Riccio, president and owner of Northeast Charter Tour Company, and Jason Briggs, vice president of business development for VIP Tour and Charter Bus Company agree that there are four large motorcoach businesses in Maine who run 75 to 85 motorcoaches throughout the year. They are joined by a group of smaller operators who generally have smaller buses but will hire a larger motorcoach, if necessary, from one of the larger organizations (Personal Communication, August, 2010).

Although much of their business is local and includes day or overnight trips for youth summer camps, educational field trips, concerts and sporting events, and family party events, they still compete in greater New England, Washington, DC, and international tour markets (S. Riccio & J. Briggs, personal communication, August,

2012). The improved ferry terminal in Portland, Maine, Ocean Gateway, was completed in October 2005. The multi-million dollar project included construction of a marine passenger terminal and receiving station, a new berth and docking facility to accommodate international ferry service and cruise ship visits. This improvement to the oceanfront has boosted the Maine motorcoach industry (Portland Maine, n.d.).

Briggs and Riccio say that over the last 10 to 12 years, they have seen an increase in younger riders and fewer senior citizens. Younger riders want the convenience of attending functions without the issues that go along with it such as, finding a convenient parking space, driving after a long event, consuming alcohol at the event without fear of driving afterward. Younger riders also have the expectation of being entertained while on the motorcoach with amenities like videos and WI-FI (S. Riccio & J. Briggs, personal communication, August, 2012).

Improvements in technology have also played a key role in improving the efficiency of the motorcoach industry. Briggs says that costing out a trip now takes just a few minutes, whereas, prior to computer use, costing out that same trip might take all day. Email and websites have made it possible to work with more out-of-area customers as well as international customers (J. Briggs, personal communication, August 20, 2012).

Riccio has also streamlined business processes requesting information, booking and dispatching tours, and billing. He also underscores the importance of using social media to promote his business and to attract new customers. After all, he says, a group of 10 or more people is a business opportunity (S. Riccio, personal communication, August 22, 2012).

RATIONALE

It is important to consider, that the last time any research was conducted on the motorcoach industry in Maine, it was 1989, according to Briggs (J. Briggs, personal communication, August 20, 2012). At that point in time, travel, tourism and hospitality were enjoying a robust economy; a mobile senior population and lots of people who were willing to spend large sums of discretionary income. Groups and individuals alike, traveled for the pure pleasure of traveling on board a motorcoach for one-day regional trips to concerts and sports events in Boston to multi-day journeys throughout the Atlantic Provinces and even across the country.

Since the last study was completed, the world has been impacted by September 11th; an economy that has spiraled downward on a global basis and an aging population that has lived past the point of time when riding on a motorcoach is a gratifying experience. Considering the motorcoach business has a history of over 100 years in this state and encountered such major changes, research of this industry in Maine is long overdue.

The research is also important since there is a lack of current textbooks and materials for college and university faculty to use when teaching students, who aspire to

work in this industry. The typical text book available for use in many classes provides some understanding about the historical and economic impact of the motorcoach industry, but not to the extent needed. Most text books available were published or last updated in the 1990's and teach about the processes for negotiating and making reservations rather than how to understand the current economic impact of the business.

While the economic impact on this industry is the most significant aspect to study, there must be an inclusion of a marketing research component. The researchers determined that further information about marketing should be gleaned to really understand the evolution of this industry in Maine. The American Marketing Association defines marketing as "an organizational function and set of processes for creating, communicating and delivering value for customers for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organization and its stakeholders (Lamb, 2009). It also is described as "a process not just for selling goods, services or ideas, but leading to long-term, mutually rewarding relationships that connect stakeholders including employees, suppliers, stockholders and distributors with customers (Lamb, 2009).

The researchers were fortunate to have partnerships with members of the Maine motorcoach industry, as it has allowed them to initially obtain anecdotal information about marketing this industry. Recent conversations with Riccio and Briggs were helpful in this regard as they described the early use of channel interactions, which involve conversations with sales people, customers, all through personal visits or phone conversations (Lamb, 2009). However, the web has changed everything and the motorcoach industry parallels what other businesses are doing to market themselves. Briggs said that they have increased contact via e-mail; need to constantly revamp their websites, produce spots for cable TV, blog and instant message to reach all parties (J. Briggs, personal communication, August, 2012). Both Riccio and Briggs stated that they have moved away from person/person selling, discontinued direct mail and are using social media to reach out to customers (S. Riccio & J. Briggs, personal communication, August, 2012).

Additionally, the researchers are doing their own comparisons of the New England and tri-state region of New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania websites. They will be measuring the desirability of each states website to attract group business to their state. An excel spreadsheet was created to include top design categories and will be used for this portion of the study. This type of research has actually been suggested as a way to involve students in marketing research that is meaningful to both student and industry. Shared experiences in this manner can provide students with a greater understanding of the importance of research, while it benefits the states marketing group travel and the suppliers who wish to gain new business.

There are many ways to perform research which will explore the effectiveness of one's marketing efforts, but these seem to be most valid for the motorcoach study in Maine. Taking this point one step further is an article in Entrepreneur Magazine which reminds us that, "Failure to do market research before you begin a business venture or during its operation is like driving a car from Texas to New York without a map or street

signs," (Pyle, 2010). It goes on to say, "You have to know which direction to travel and how fast to go. A good market research plan indicates where and who your customers are. It will also tell you when they are most likely and willing to purchase your goods or use your services (Pyle, 2010)." The marketing research as described above will provide valuable information as it is combined with the economic impact research.

THE RESEARCH PROJECT

The Economic Impact and Destination Marketing comparisons of the Motorcoach Industry in Maine began in August 2012. The purpose of this research is two-fold as it attempts to help both the Maine Office of Tourism (MOT) and the Maine Motorcoach Network (MMN) determine how bus tours and group business currently impact the state, and what can be done to further attract new business to the eight tourist regions in the State of Maine.

According to the American Bus Association (n.d.) motorcoach based tourism generates as many as 1,056,750 jobs in communities across the United States, paying almost $40.6 billion in wages and benefits. In Maine, it is said that motorcoach services to tourists, travelers and commuters employ as many as 2,030 people in the state with an additional 10,170 people employed in companies that supply services to motorcoach passengers, such as hotels, restaurants and entertainment venues (n.d.).

Further to this information is the nearly $1.9 billion in total economic activity in Maine that can be attributed to the motorcoach tour and travel industry while generating revenues for state coffers including $127,753,581 in property, income, and sales based levies paid by employees of various travel and tourism related businesses (n.d.).

Electronic and paper surveys were modified and adapted from another study for distribution into four categories including: Tour Operators, Tour Escorts, current and potential Tour Takers. The results will be tallied, analyzed and shared with MOT, MMN and other appropriate parties.

1. The methodology has three main goals:
2. To provide a benchmark for MMN of the economic impact of motorcoach travel in Maine
3. To estimate the current total economic impact of motorcoach travel in Maine
4. To compare current tour takers to prospective tour takers

The individuals and groups targeted for the surveys include:

1. Tour operators from NTA (National Tour Association), ABA (American Bus Association), IMG (International Motor Coach Group), OMCA (Ontario Motor Coach Association), SYTA (Student Youth Travel Association), UMA (United Motorcoach Association), NEBA (New England Bus Association), and NAMO (National Association of Motorcoach Operators)

2. Tour Takers on, or scheduled to be on, coaches planning to visit Maine, as provided by the tour operators listed above
3. Tour Escorts- those who are on the above coaches or scheduled to be on those coaches to Maine, as provided by the tour operators listed above
4. Potential Tour Takers- people who live in the New England states as well as New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania and identified by the tour operators listed

Due to the scope of this research project, it has been divided into two parts. The first part is surveying the tour operators, and the second part is surveying tour escorts, tour takers, and potential tour takers. The preliminary data collected for this paper has targeted tour operators. An electronic survey was created and distributed to tour operators through Surveymonkey with a URL linking to the survey.

PRELIMINARY RESULTS

It is expected that the reliability and validity of the data to be collected using an electronic survey method will be dependable, accurate, and minimize bias. All human subjects were provided a statement regarding voluntary participation with no penalty for refusal to participate as well as explaining that the research team will protect the information gathered so as not to reveal the participants' identity. All data will be reported in aggregate to ensure participants anonymity.

Once the data is collected, it will be shared with interested parties from the Maine Office of Tourism, the Maine Motorcoach Network, tourism professionals, and Kaplan University. It is hoped that by sharing research results, an opportunity exists for tour operators and escorts to create trendy explorations and itineraries that have the potential to increase the profitability for businesses inside and outside the State of Maine.

The target population for the survey was a cluster sample based on their inclusion in certain associations or state web sites. Email addresses for tour operators were collected from the following web sites: American Bus Association, National Tourism Association, the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Vermont, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.

Surveys were emailed to 988 email addresses of the target population, 38 emails were returned as undeliverable leaving a total of 950 potential survey takers. The survey is designed to remain open for a period of thirty days. As of the 13th day after the survey was available, there have been seven responses. Based on information obtained during the undertaking of this research project, it was found that low response rates are typical for surveys of motorcoach industry tour operators. It is unclear whether low response rates lead to excessive surveying or excessive surveying leads to low response rates.

The survey has 68 questions, however, skip technology was used in the Surveymonkey platform to allow survey takers to leap forward to the questions that were most relevant to them. The average survey taker was asked to respond to 34 multiple

choice and short answer questions. The survey took no longer than 15 minutes to complete.

The questions focused on travel habits to and through Maine and New England and the costs associated with those trips. Nine states were included in the survey as potential destinations.

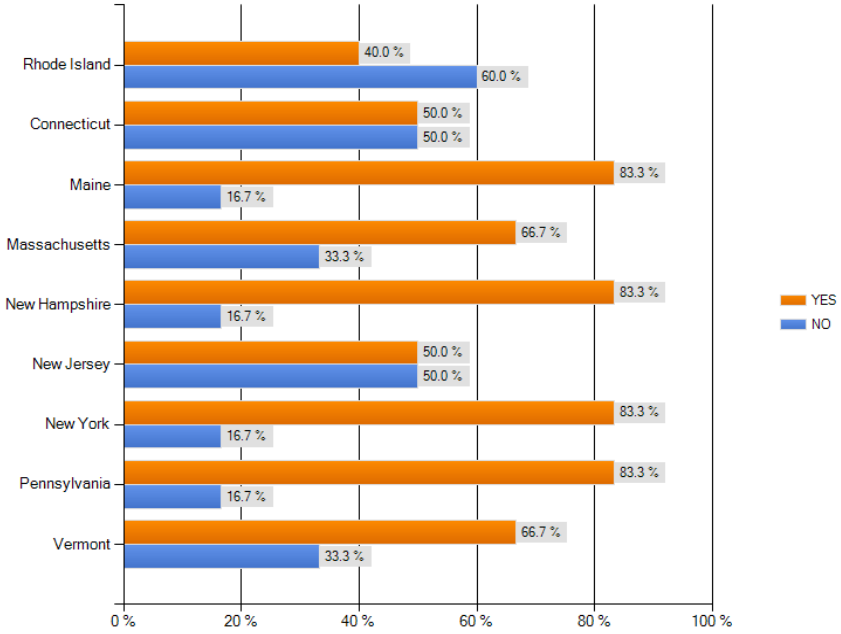

Figure 1: Percentage of Tour Operators Traveling to these States

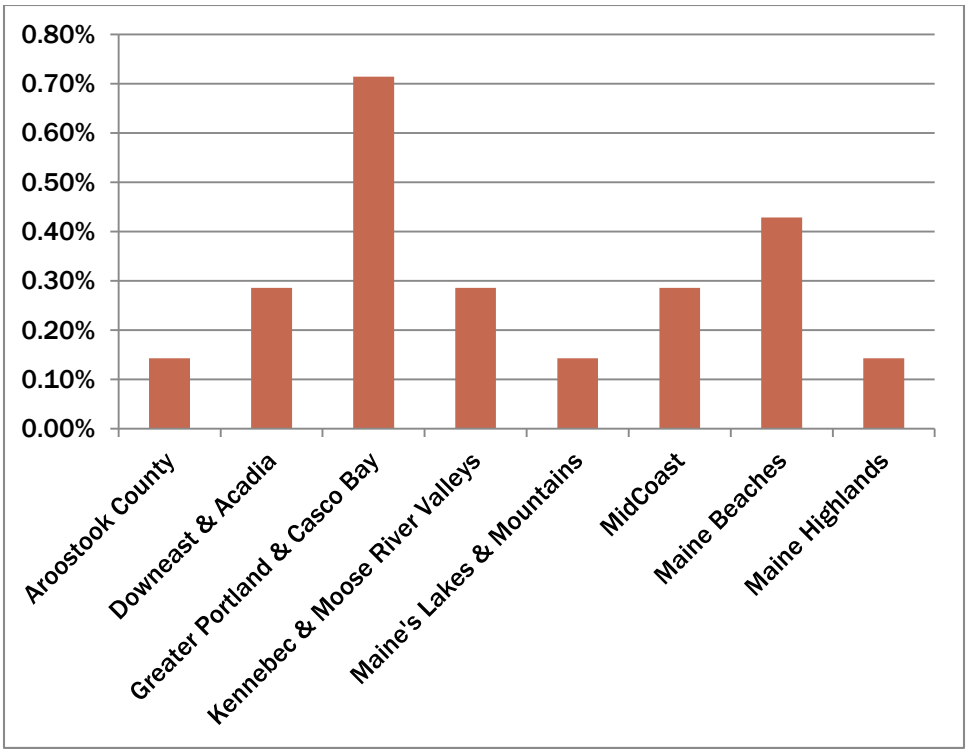

Figure 2: Regions Visited

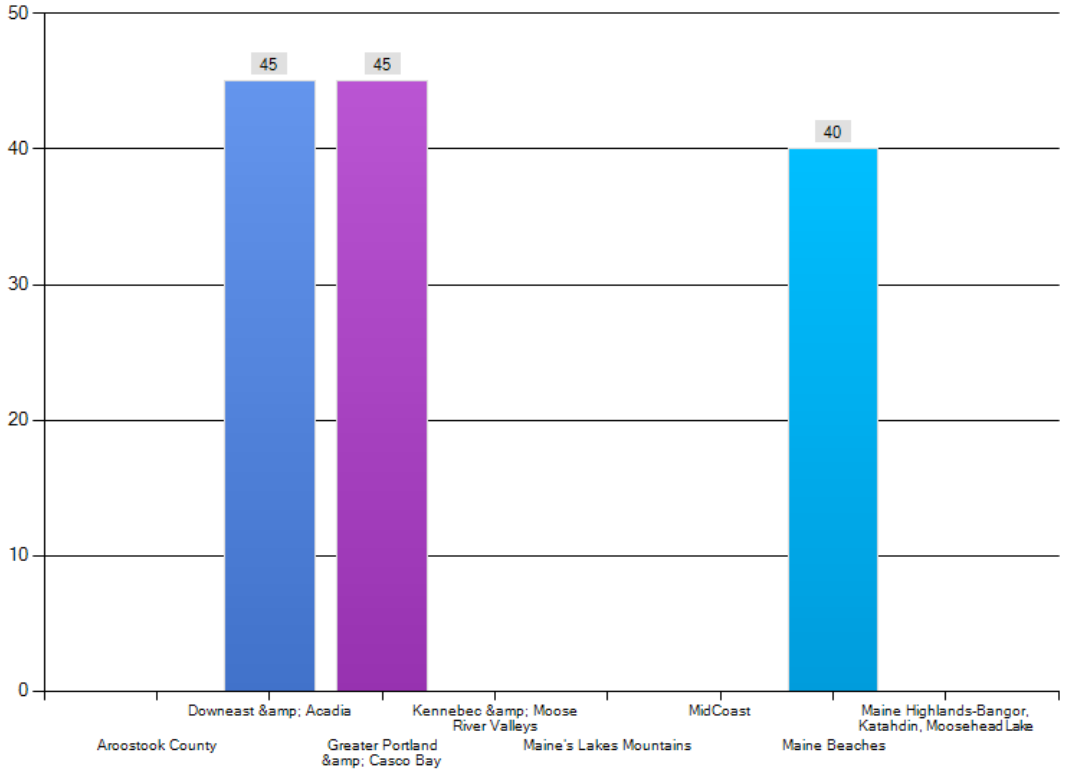

Figure 3: Number of Passengers Visiting by Region

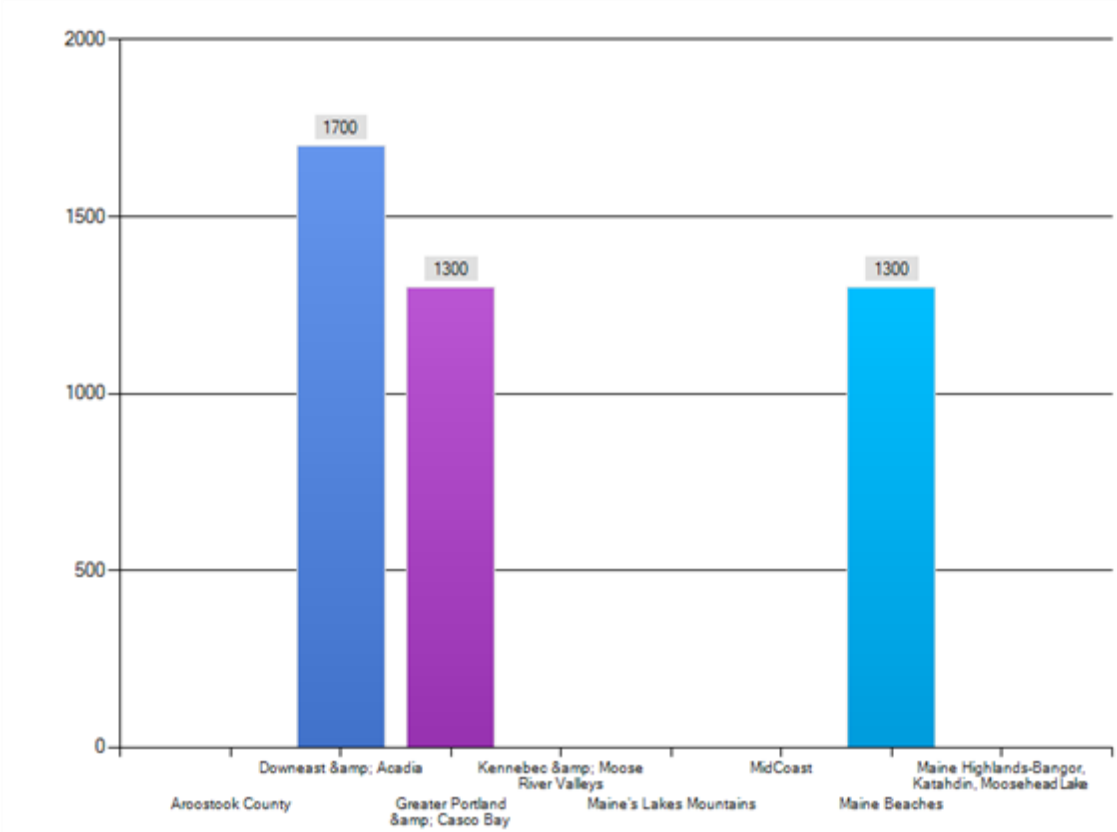

Figure 4: Amount Paid by Tour Company per Package per Person

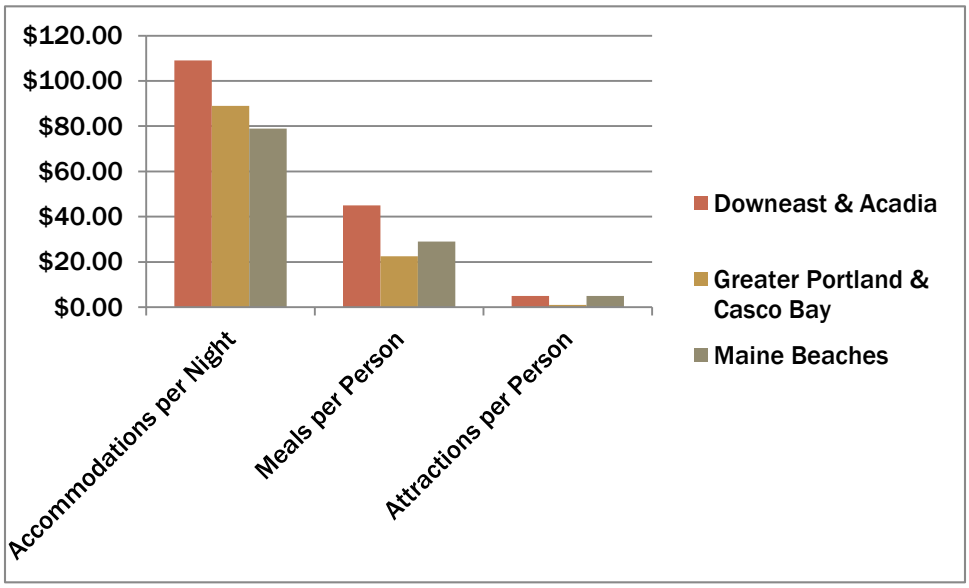

Figure 5: Expenes per Person

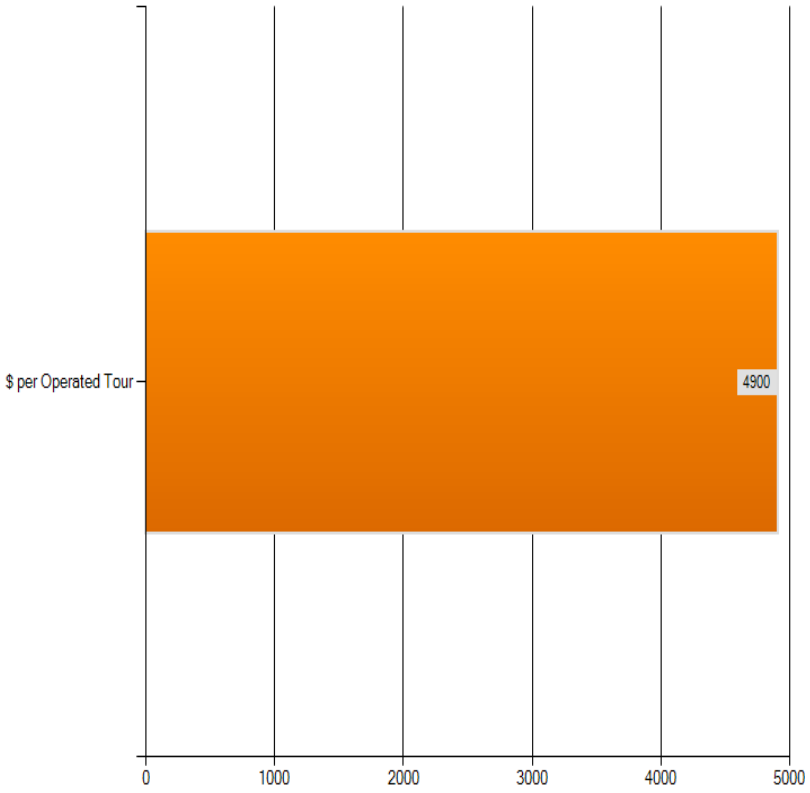

Figure 6: Average Dollars Spent in Maine per Operated Tour in 2011

PEDAGOGY

The information obtained during this research project can be most useful in further developing curriculum for colleges and universities, which may have broad appeal to international educators. Tourism is taught on a global basis, yet there are differences in teaching pedagogy from one classroom to the next. By recognizing that faculty researchers can acquire greater knowledge, in this instance, about the mindset of tour operators and tour takers, they will be more apt to teach students about tourism preferences. Students should expect to be prepared in their respective classrooms to understand specific tourism habits as they pertain to both domestic and international visitors. Ultimately, it is hoped that research knowledge can be shared with tourism experts who wish to find ways to attract new and returning visitors by creating unique itineraries.

Faculty should always be thinking about ways to better prepare students with current, relevant information and should at a minimum be sharing their work through class discussions, assignments, modern technology, and even having students participate in aspects of a research study. This tends to make graduates better qualified to be job ready through a hands-on approach to learning. Faculty members sharing best practices of research with students can help them comprehend the rationale for analyzing data to

enhance their understanding of the state of affairs pertinent to global, national, and local tourism practices.

An example of incorporating research into the curriculum would be by having students assist the researchers with comparisons of various websites, in this case, the New England and tri-state region of New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Students can learn to be analytical as they participate in the collection of data on excel spreadsheets, designed to compare and contrast information regarding design appeal, ease of use, link access, access for group planners and other relevant categories. This type of learning activity can provide students with a broader skill set to become more proficient in their cognitive domain. This also may make them better prepared to enter the industry as they have obtained higher skill levels in synthesis and evaluation.

CONCLUSION

The preliminary low response rate by tour operators to this survey contributes to the inability of researchers to extrapolate data and to draw firm findings and conclusions. However, out of the responses that were received, the data seems to support the anecdotal rhetoric that tour operators are concentrating their tour itineraries to the Greater Portland & Casco Bay, Downeast & Acadia, and Maine Beaches regions of the State of Maine. The survey allowed for tour operators to write about their experiences and preferences in all regions, which may have been a helpful resource for tourism professionals to try to meet the demands for activities and amenities of the customers of tour operators.

Further study is required to try to determine what would draw tour operators and their customers into the other five tourism regions in the State of Maine. Overall marketing efforts of the Maine Office of Tourism, Chambers of Commerce, Regions, cities, towns, and individual businesses could be analyzed for effectiveness on an international, national, regional, and local basis. Perhaps some regions would benefit from only advertising within the State of Maine in an attempt to attract visitors who already live in the state or who are visiting.

The preliminary economic impact of the motorcoach industry on the State of Maine is unclear because of the low response rate and lack of existing data. This is a benchmark study, but a higher response rate would have provided better insight into the economic impact. As of this writing, the survey is open for two more weeks and efforts will be made to increase the response rate.

The second part of this research project is surveying tour escorts, tour takers, and potential tour takers. It is expected that the rate of return on surveys will be higher because the researchers will be conducting primary data collection of the target market. Efforts will be made to eliminate or minimize survey bias by the researchers.

The entire research project is expected to be completed by December 31, 2012. The authors may be contacted for further information.

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"THE TRIP HELPED ME GROW AS A PERSON AND AS A FUTURE PROFESSIONAL": THE INFLUENCE OF A FIELD EXPERIENCE ON STUDENT ENGAGEMENT AND PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

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ABSTRACT

The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) proposes five benchmarks that contribute to student engagement: the level of academic challenge, active and collaborative learning, student-faculty interaction, enriching educational experiences, and a supportive campus environment. Student engagement may be improved by providing educationally purposeful activities that address these benchmarks. Increased student engagement may then lead to further success as a professional in the industry. However, many academic departments include multiple concentrations and finding pedagogical methods that engage students from each concentration simultaneously is challenging. Perhaps common competencies (e.g., communications skills, interpersonal skills, multi-tasking) that entry-level professionals should possess should be the main focus for pedagogy in academic departments with multiple concentrations. This study considers the influence of a three-day field experience on student engagement and professional preparation for undergraduates majoring in Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management. Data was collected and analyzed from journal entries submitted by students who had completed an immersion semester based on educationally purposeful activities. The results from the qualitative analysis reveal several findings concerning the students' engagement and professional growth during and following the field experiences. Students increased their knowledge of their future profession, improved their understanding of course content and the interconnectedness of the academic department, experienced opportunities to build relationships through networking, and opportunities to build skills and competencies required for their future professions. Implications of these findings are outlined for faculty, students, and industry professionals for how field experiences or similar activities that are educationally purposeful can maximize student engagement and professional preparation.

KEYWORDS: Field experience, Student engagement, Professional preparation

INTRODUCTION

Travel and tourism students are often joined into a recreation-related major with students from park management, recreation, therapeutic recreation, sport management, or outdoor recreation concentrations (Henderson et al., 2009), thus challenging faculties in higher education institutions to meet the academic needs of a body of students with a wide range of professional and personal goals. At the same time, there is a need to build connections among students in these different specialties in order to create a collective academic identity, thereby reducing fragmentation of specialties, breaking down "silos" in higher education, and minimizing deficiencies in these future professionals' knowledge on how to connect with various specialties in the recreation field in practice (Henderson et al., 2009).

Perhaps where common ground among specialties and concentrations can be found is in the need for professional competencies. Many recreation and tourism professionals have indicated the necessary skills or competencies they expect entry-level professionals to possess (e.g., Hurd, 2005; Tesone & Ricci, 2005). Although the order of importance for these skills is inconsistent across studies, there is some consensus that entry-level professionals should possess communication skills (self-presentation, customer service), interpersonal skills (able to form relationships, fun, patient, good attitude), knowledge of the profession (marketing, budgeting), be adaptable, know how manage multiple tasks, and maintain a level of responsibility and integrity (Chase & Masberg, 2008; Hurd, 2005).

Research has underexplored the pedagogical methods that help college students in Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management (PRTM) degree programs gain these skills. Additionally, the question remains on how to instill this wide range of competencies in students from multiple specialties while reinforcing the connectedness of those areas. The purpose of this study is to investigate reflections from student journals on an interdisciplinary field experience in order to examine the identification of professional competencies in their own words. Specifically, this study examined student engagement and professional preparation that was noted by students as a result of participation in the field experience and the resulting awareness of needed competencies and the building of relationships in a professional community.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Student Engagement

The need to support future professionals in their commitment to their organization and their profession can be addressed by increasing opportunities for student exposure to the various facilities, services, and most importantly, professionals in the field. This study uses the framework of student engagement to analyze the outcomes of a field experience. This framework is used by administrators in higher education to address students' involvement in educationally purposeful activities that ultimately lead to various desired outcomes and an overall satisfaction with the college experience (Zhoa and Kuh, 2004). The level of student engagement also contributes to growth in skills and dispositions

needed to be successful after college, including career-related pursuits (Kuh, 2003).

The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) has developed a systematic way to measure student engagement by outlining five benchmarks of student behavior and institutional characteristics that contribute to their student learning and development (Kuh, 2003). These benchmarks include the level of academic challenge, active and collaborative learning, student-faculty interaction, enriching educational experiences, and supportive campus environment (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009; Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh & Whitt, 2010).

Level of academic challenge. Creative and intellectually challenging academic work help promote and maintain student engagement (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). The level of academic challenge may be defined by the length of assigned readings or papers but can also be described as the amount of effort a student puts forth in his or her academic work. Pedagogical methods, such as a field experience, may help challenge students to use higher-order thinking skills as they experience the course content in applied settings (Kuh et al., 2010).

Active and collaborative learning environments. Active learning environments require students to think about and apply what they are learning in different settings (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). Higher levels of engagement were reported by students when they participated in courses that utilized active learning methods (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Field experiences take students out of the classroom and often present content in an applied manner. The knowledge acquired during discussions about community-based projects and problems help prepare PRTM students for work in agencies that require creative solutions to messy and unexpected problems (Kuh et al., 2010).

Student-faculty interaction. Professional relationships between students and faculty are important because students can find professional and personal mentors through interactions with their instructors. Faculty members who are available outside of the typical classroom environment, serve as mentors for career plans, and take on roles as advisors for co-curricular activities that can increase student engagement (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). During field experiences, students have increased opportunities to interact with faculty members in a setting outside of the classroom, thereby increasing the potential for mentorship and engagement (Kuh et al., 2010).

Enriching educational experiences. These novel learning activities often include unique pedagogical methods in the classroom or co-curricular activities outside of the classroom that support the goals of an academic program (Kuh et al., 2010; Stupans, Scutter, & Pearce, 2010). A field experience is one such example which provides students with opportunities to learn valuable information about themselves and others as they interact with their peers and professionals (Kuh, 2009).

Supportive learning environment. A supportive learning environment, often denoted as the campus, is defined by the quality of relationships students have with other

students, faculty members and administrative personnel and services (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). These relationships help engage students because they help them thrive socially. The cultures of PRTM academic departments themselves have been perceived to be positive, friendly and supportive (Henderson et al., 2009). Additionally, the curriculum of PRTM results in students taking multiple classes together and participating in group projects, thereby increasing students' perceptions of the department as friendly. However, there is a need to create an "academic connection" among different concentrations in addition to the aforementioned social connections among students in the department (Henderson et al., 2009, p. 34). Also, student engagement as a result of a supportive learning environment has only been addressed in a campus setting (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). Therefore, the literature on student engagement has failed to address student engagement with the professional community. Field experiences have the potential to be a context where students experience support from and engagement with their professional community. This study aims to investigate student engagement as a result of a field experience visiting multiple agencies in the PRTM profession.

Benefits of Professional Networks and Mentors

Specifically within the tourism industry, managers have reported the need for more graduates with formal educational training in the field (Tesone & Ricci, 2005). Employee turnover is a significant issue in the tourism industry and organizations are spending considerable time and expense finding appropriate candidates (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008) as the labor pool of candidates for tourism positions is becoming scarce (Bartlett & McKinney, 2004). A unique aspect of the tourism employee pool is that the labor market is shared with neighboring sectors and consequently, there must be an educational support framework in place to recruit and retain highly qualified candidates (Hjalager & Andersen, 2001). Employees have reported seeing tourism jobs as temporary and even those who have been formally educated in tourism management are open to positions in the neighboring sectors (Hjalager & Andersen, 2001). The tourism industry should consider formal education and other avenues to create and maintain repositories of knowledge and competence (Hjalager & Andersen, 2001).

High rates of turnover have been attributed to many issues including job dissatisfaction as dissatisfied employees are more likely to display high levels of turnover intentions (Karatepe, Uldag, Menevis, Hadzimehedagic, & Baddar, 2006). It has been found that job satisfaction can be increased by marketing tourism positions as a long term career rather than a temporary job to help attract self-efficacious employees (Karatepe et al., 2006). It is imperative for managers to maintain good relationships with these employees once they have been hired as employees who report better relationships with their managers also report higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions (Karatepe et al., 2006).

Organizational commitment is the psychological attachment between an employee and their employing organization (Bartlett & McKinney, 2004). Higher levels of organizational commitment are also found when employees are provided with quality mentors and job enrichment training (Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002). Training on job skills

alone is insufficient as employees who report a lack of supervisory support for career development tend to have lower organizational commitment (Bartlett & McKinney, 2004). Employees have an expectation that they will receive guidance in their professional development and organizations need to proactively provide opportunities for training to maintain positive workplace attitudes and commitment (Bartlett & McKinney, 2004). There is an advantage to retaining well-educated employees though this group tends to be more aggressive and have more unmet expectations than less educated employees (Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001). One possible way to maintain high levels of organization commitment from well-educated employees is to provide opportunities for these employees to be exposed to many different job functions to help them enhance their skills and prepare for future promotions (Lam et al., 2001).

Excessive employee turnover is difficult to quantify but does have both indirect and direct costs on an organization (Walmsley, 2004). Direct costs are mostly financial and examples of indirect costs include the reduction of employee morale, customer service standards, and productivity (Lam et al., 2002; Bartlett & McKinney, 2004). An organization with high turnover experiences a disruption in its operation and is often accompanied by lower levels of customer satisfaction (Walmsley, 2004). Tourism industry managers can avoid these costs and reduce turnover by providing career ladders and opportunities for development for each employee (Tesone & Ricci, 2005).

METHODS

The Field Experience and its Participants

In order to reduce fragmentation and overspecialization and increase students' understanding of the interconnectedness of recreation related fields, Henderson et al. (2009) suggested that faculty design curriculum and implement pedagogical and social experiences that highlight the interdisciplinary nature of recreation agencies. The focus of this study is the thoughts, observations, and perceptions of PRTM undergraduates at a land grant university with a large and diverse PRTM department. The total enrollment is over 500 students and this diversity offered a good sample of student groups that exemplify the range of PRTM foci.

Students in the study are also in a PRTM department that recently implemented field experiences into the core curriculum and the fourth semester of undergraduate instruction is structured as an immersive experience. In addition to group initiatives, a student conference, and activity facilitation, during the 2011 EDGE semester (students Engaged in Guided and Diverse Experiences), students also participated in a three day field experience. The students traveled and stayed overnight in a destination where they visited multiple agencies that provide PRTM services in one of five cities. Student groups represented all five recreation concentration areas: (1) community recreation, sport and management, (2) parks and protected areas, (3) professional golf management, (4) therapeutic recreation, and (5) travel and tourism. Table 1 below displays examples of the types of agencies that were visited that provide services related to the multiple concentrations in the PRTM undergraduate program.

Table 1. Example of Agencies and their Interdisciplinary Nature among PRTM Concentrations

	Community Recreation, Sport & Camp Management	PGA Golf Management	Park & Conservation Area Management	Therapeutic Recreation	Travel & Tourism
Professional sports arena	√			√	√
State park	√		√		√
Hotel, golf resort & spa	√	√			√
Morale, wellness and recreation center	√	√		√	
Aquarium	√		√	√	√

Data Collection and Analysis

Students in the 2011 EDGE semester were required to complete journal entries throughout the semester. The entries were graded assignments. The final prompt asked the students to reflect on the entire semester and explain the three substantive experiences that most contributed to their personal and professional growth. These journal entries were used for data analysis (n=114) in an effort to explore the student perceptions of the field experience when not directly asked about it, but volunteering the experience as meaningful two months after the experience. The majority of students selected the three day field experience as one of the substantive experiences that most contributed to their personal and professional growth. From the entries that included a discussion of the three day field experience (n=84), a purposeful sampling technique (Creswell, 2007) was applied to select the journal entries that contained rich text for analysis (n=32). The selected journal entries were transcribed and the transcriptions were coded for themes by two researchers using the qualitative analysis software MAXQDA. Intercoder agreement was estimated above 80% (Creswell, 2007).

As mentioned above, the journal data used for analysis was gathered from a graded assignment. In order to establish validity and reduce the risk of systematic bias of using a single source of data from a graded assignment (Maxwell, 2005), the initial results were triangulated with an ungraded assignment from the 2012 EDGE students the following year prior to their own final journal entries. The itineraries for the field experiences only had minor changes in 2012 and the researchers felt that a comparison across years was appropriate. The ungraded assignment asked the 2012 EDGE students to informally report how they felt the field experience contributed to their personal and professional growth. Students were not required to put their name on the document and were asked at the same point in the semester that the 2011 EDGE students had submitted their final journal entry the previous year. The results were consistent and all four of the original themes from the graded journal entries were represented in the ungraded

assignment. This verification strategy indicates that the initial findings are instrumental, despite the journal data being collected from a graded assignment.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Four themes emerged from the analysis of the journal entries concerning the influence of the field experience on student engagement and professional preparation. First, students increased their knowledge of the profession. Second, students made connections between specific classroom concepts. Third, students built relationships with professionals, their peers and faculty members. Fourth, students gained skills that may help them in their future careers.

Theme 1: Increased Knowledge of Profession

The 2011 EDGE students shared that the field experience provided opportunities to increase their knowledge of PRTM professions. Four subthemes emerged from within this theme: understanding the importance of the profession, ability to defend the profession, understanding the amount of work required in the profession, and preparation for future career.

The students' explained that the field experience demonstrated the importance of the profession. Student # 19 shared, "I have learned that it goes beyond your agency. It is important to understand that we are concerned with the big picture and making the quality of life better for the entire community." The field experiences also gave the students the ability to be able to defend PRTM professions to others.

> We realized from the trip that our profession matters. It would be hard to go through the EDGE semester and have the stigma of being a PRTM student and go through scrutiny. After the trip I can effectively defend the profession and its importance and I can tell anyone what the PRTM professionals really do and achieve. (#2)

Another way that the students expressed an increase in their knowledge of the profession was becoming aware of the amount of work that is required in PRTM professions. Students were surprised and impressed by the work ethic needed to be successful in the field of PRTM.

> Then he went on to tell us what he had to do on a daily basis and that is when I knew I had to work on some of my weaknesses. He explained to us how detailed he had to be in order to do his job the right way. I know my strengths and weaknesses better than anyone and one weakness I need to work on is how detailed I am. After visiting the [arena] something clicked in me and I realized that if I wanted to reach my career goals I had to be as detailed as possible in everything I do. (#28)

Students also explained that the field experience provided them with opportunities to be hands on and behind the scenes in the agency. Student #6 expressed, "It is one thing to go through and educate ourselves about the field and different aspects of the field, but

to actually get hands on experience and learn about real life situations really brought this semester to life for me." Increased knowledge of the PRTM profession was also seen in the students' awareness of the variety of job options in the field to help them make educated decisions about their future careers.

> Before this semester people asked me what kinds of jobs I could get with my degree and to be honest I could not really give them a good answer. My trip gave me an answer because of the variety of people and places we visited while we were there. (#21)

Theme 2: Improved Understanding of Course Content

Students shared that the field experiences allowed them to see class concepts in action as well as make connections between the class concepts and the real world. Student #24 explained the value of seeing class concepts in action, "Many of the stories and examples learned at sites we visited made more sense and stuck with me better than reading something out of a text book." Another student expressed that they were able to connect with course content once they saw how actually worked in the agencies:

> On this trip, I also learned that everyone has their own way of doing things, and the way they do things depends on their purpose as an agency along with their mission and vision. Of course, we were told this as a class several times, but it did not click until this trip. (#27)

Theme 3: Opportunities to Build Relationships for the Future

Students expressed that a key benefit of the field experience was the opportunity for networking. This theme emerged into three subthemes: networking with each other, networking with faculty, and networking with industry professionals. Student #29 expressed how the field experience provided opportunities to connect with their peers, "Prior to going on the trip, communication in class was at minimum. Going on the trip changed that. As a student I learned how to step out of my comfort zone and develop relationships with my classmates." The field experience also provided an atypical opportunity for students to build relationships with their faculty members as mentioned by student #2, "I also grew much closer to my faculty instructor. I love having a connection with the classroom leaders because it makes the classroom experience so much more enjoyable." Networking with professionals was another benefit of the field experiences. Student #13 found that, "I also got to have one on one conversations with some of the professionals there that gave me great insight and allowed me to start my professional network."

Theme 4: Opportunities to Build Skills for the Future

The students conveyed that the field experiences provided opportunities to polish valuable skills that can be used in their future careers. This theme emerged into five subthemes based on the different skills: group dynamics, critical thinking, confidence, public speaking, and leadership. Student #32 explained how they learned skills for group dynamics, "The first thing I learned on this trip was how to get along with my colleagues and work together. It helped me understand that everyone is different and that

I have the capability of compromising to achieve quality group effort." Student #7 was able to develop critical thinking skills, "I learned a lot about myself and felt like I had matured into thinking more critically about myself and my profession." Improved confidence, leadership, and public speaking skills were reported by student #6, "Coming into this semester I was not sure if I would be able handle my public speaking woes or my leadership woes, however this trip especially helped me gain the confidence I needed."

IMPLICATIONS

Faculty

Instructors are encouraged to use pedagogical methods that connect content across multiple concentrations while still preparing each of those concentrations for employment (Henderson et al., 2009). Many academic departments already do this by having an introductory course that introduces the types of career paths many earning a recreation-related degree may encounter. However, these classes often fail to include active and integrated learning elements which so many of the students in this study said contributed to their understanding of the profession. These active learning experiences may also help faculty form a feedback loop with agencies, thereby leading to improvements in the academic curricula (Chase & Masberg, 2008).

Students

Agency visits provide opportunities for students to be exposed to their chosen field and be connected to current professionals in ways that students without the field experiences typically don't encounter. In 2003, Petrova revealed a disconnection between tourism students and hiring managers in the tourism industry. The study found that tourism students had a high level of optimism for their future careers in the tourism industry, though hiring managers lacked confidence in the purpose and necessity of a formal degree in tourism management and did not favor tourism students over candidates with other degrees (Petrova, 2003). Students overemphasized the importance of their tourism knowledge while hiring managers were more likely to seek a specific set of skills and consequently, the hiring managers did not see the tourism degrees as giving the students an advantage and failed to capitalize on the students dedication to the industry (Petrova, 2003).

Students who have a higher degree of interaction with current professionals may have more realistic expectations for the future career in the field. For example, one element that has been found to influence future turnover intentions was that tourism students were not prepared for unfavorable characteristics of tourism positions such as wages, schedules, and tasks (Beggs, Ross, Goodwin, 2008; Petrova, 2003). Without a clear expectation of the job characteristics, students found it difficult to transition into a career in the tourism industry and were more likely to exhibit turnover intentions (Petrova, 2003). Field experiences provide students with a clearer picture of what the daily responsibilities are for professionals in their intended field and help them prepare for those careers by establishing reasonable expectations and developing their skill set.

Agencies and Professionals

The ability of agencies to open their doors for student visits to occur is highly relevant to student engagement. These visits are of no cost to the agency and require a limited amount of time for a large benefit to the individual students and the profession itself. Agencies can help students understand the interconnectedness of recreation-related agencies as they address more concentrations than they are often aware. Agency visits also connect professionals with potential interns and employees, thereby allowing the agencies to be more active in recruiting and more selective in hiring. These field experiences can instill needed competencies that ultimately affect the quality of employees and their commitment to the organization and the field (Chase & Masberg, 2008).

LIMITATIONS

The findings of this study suggest that field experiences have the potential to contribute to professional development for the purpose of needed entry-level competencies (Hurd, 2005). The practical implications suggest that while educational programs/courses may not have the resources to travel with students for three days, instructors should be encouraged to schedule guest speakers or take day trips to provide the students with an understanding of their profession in the "real world." One limitation of this study is that the students used in the sample were representative of several concentrations areas within the PRTM discipline and consequently this study is unable to generalize specifically to tourism students. Future research should consider the impact of field experiences on the different concentration areas, including travel and tourism to see if the results are consistent across areas of academic focus. Further investigation into the number and quality of internships completed as a result of student exposure to the professional community during the field experience is needed.

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A HOLISTIC APPROACH FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM EDUCATION: AN EXAMPLE FROM A EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

Many universities around the globe aim to integrate sustainability into their tourism and hospitality curricula following the need for sustainable tourism development. This paper argues that teaching sustainable tourism needs an adaption of our teaching strategies and calls for a holistic approach which involves the whole university. Learning for sustainable tourism is not only gaining knowledge about theories related to sustainable tourism but it also calls for changing mindsets and active engagement of the students in matters relating to more sustainable tourism futures. It is concluded that learning also takes place implicitly through the "hidden" curriculum. Staff and educators act as role models for education for sustainable development and students become inspired and motivated by their actions related to sustainability.

KEYWORDS: Education, Sustainability, Curriculum development, Holistic education

INTRODUCTION

The goal of this abstract is to discuss and suggest strategies for sustainable tourism education at the university level. The question addressed is whether or not it is now necessary to change or adapt our teaching strategies to be able to teach sustainable tourism at universities and other educational institutions.

There are two important aspects to consider when addressing education for sustainable development. First, currently there are several definitions of the concept of sustainability, but there are still no ideal strategies which would guarantee achieving the optimum state of sustainability. Yet, we still have to explore our tactics towards more sustainable futures as "there is international consensus that achieving sustainable development is essentially a process of learning" (UNESCO 2002, p.7). Second, sustainable development "requires a shift in the mental models which frame our thinking and inform our decisions and actions" (UNESCO 2005). It is necessary to question the assumptions on which our current thinking is based, and to contemplate different approaches.

An expert review done under the framework of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2004-2015) has identified certain learning processes and key pedagogical approaches to support education for sustainable development. These include "processes which engage the 'whole system', processes of collaboration and dialogues among multi-stakeholders as well as intercultural dialogue, processes which innovate

curriculum, as well as teaching and learning experiences and processes of active and participatory learning" (Tilbury, 2011).

In an attempt to explore strategies for implementing sustainable tourism education into the tourism and hospitality curriculum, MODUL University Vienna (Austria), which has implemented a sustainability strategy for its undergraduate and (post-)graduate tourism and hospitality programs as well as for the university as a whole, will serve as a case study.

The university is fairly young and was founded five years ago as a research-oriented international university with undergraduate, graduate and executive programs in the areas of tourism and hospitality management, public governance and new media technologies. Sixty international faculty and staff members currently work with and teach nearly 350 students, representing more than fifty different nationalities and cultural backgrounds. From its inception, the university adopted sustainability as a core value of its mission.

In order to imbed sustainability in teaching and learning the university decided to strategically place sustainability at the university and department level. A mission statement guides the decisions and actions of all academic and administrative units which are fully committed to learning for sustainable development. Deans and program directors were responsible for making decisions regarding the incorporation of sustainability within their educational programs and beyond. Furthermore, a democratic sustainability committee, which serves as an open platform for creative ideas and is responsible for practical implementation of sustainable practices, was established. The committee aims to communicate the idea of becoming a sustainable university to each faculty and staff member as well as to students and other stakeholders of the university and tries to engage all interested stakeholders in a participatory manner.

THE HOLISTIC APPROACH TO SUSTAINABILITY

An engagement of the whole university system in which the educational programs are based was seen as necessary. This holistic approach means that sustainable tourism education is not only a matter for the curricula or educational programs but also an issue to be implemented within the organizations which facilitate these learning processes. It reflects the notion that educational institutions and teachers are leading by example. In order to teach sustainability, institutions have to consider and reflect on their own practices in the context of sustainability as these indirectly inform teaching and learning.

The university has taken diverse measures to improve its sustainability practices. These include investments in infrastructure such as installing solar panels, a wood pellet heating system and a waste recycling system. Additional efforts entail providing fair trade products, engaging in social projects and charities as well as keeping sustainable development a core topic in the discussions with stakeholders and in the daily routines.

When looking at the curriculum of a sustainable tourism and/or hospitality program it is obvious that the concept of sustainability should be included in all courses, at all levels, with linkages between courses. Offering specific sustainability courses equates to treating sustainability as an isolated issue. On the other hand, following an integrated approach, where aspects of sustainability are incorporated in all courses, takes sustainability as an omnipresent topic which permeates all other teaching areas and can be further discussed in different contexts as an underlying philosophy. The curriculum of the BBA for Tourism and Hospitality Management follows this integrated approach encouraging all lecturers to include sustainable tourism issues into each of their courses. Content-wise, the underlying three pillars of sustainability - economic, environmental and socio-cultural issues - and their inter-relationship are addressed.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES FOR INCORPORATING SUSTAINABILITY INTO THE CURRICULUM

Education for sustainable development is strongly aligned with active and participatory learning processes, because "they encourage learners to ask critical reflective questions, clarify values, envision more positive futures, think systemically, respond through applied learning and explore the dialectic between tradition and innovation" (Tilbury, 2011).

Among the tools which have been successfully used in sustainable tourism education are group discussions, which encourage listening and self-reflection, debates for developing arguments, stimulus activities such as watching films or reading a newspaper article in order to stimulate discussion or the use of critical incidents allowing students to reflect their actions on the basis of their moral or ethical attitude.

Case Studies as a research strategy and fieldwork are other popular choices of pedagogy for teaching sustainable tourism. They provide the opportunity for students to investigate local issues and work collaboratively with local stakeholders in order to find solutions. Both serve as catalysts for developing students' critical thinking skills in order to understand the complexity of sustainable tourism. Furthermore they can help to influence students' emotions towards a more sustainable development. One example of fieldwork is the involvement of students in a community project with the aim of finding a way to engage community stakeholders in improving CSR practices in a hotel. Through their investigations the students learned about the different perspectives of tourism stakeholders in a particular location, how they were interconnected and what the challenges for sustainable tourism development were. They also developed strong opinions about the necessity of collaboration and this collaboration was seen as the crucial success factor in the sustainable development of the location and the hotel.

Active engagement of the student can also be realized in a virtual environment. Interactive technologies, social networking and the internet provide very important tools for engaging students in learning about and for sustainable tourism. The university participates in the development of the Sustainable Tourism Online Lecture Series, initiated by the BEST (Building Excellence for Sustainable Tourism) Education Network

and conducted in partnership with Innotour and several universities around the world. The online courses consist of a series of online lectures related to the concept of sustainable tourism and students engage actively through blogs and wikis to discuss the course contents and the underlying concepts. It is a collaborative learning approach involving lecturers and students from all over the world.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STRATEGIES

Learning for sustainable tourism development is not only a "process of gaining knowledge, values and theories related to sustainable tourism but it also calls for a changing of mindsets and active engagement of the student in matters relating to more sustainable tourism futures" (Tilbury, 2011). Current curricula and learning environments provided by universities generally do not implement this transformative approach toward education. Learning also takes place implicitly through the "hidden" curriculum. As mentioned earlier, staff and educators act as role models for education for sustainable development and students become inspired and motivated by their actions related to sustainability.

In addition to the integration of sustainability aspects in the curricula courses, the university has introduced a series of measures to stimulate action-taking and sustainable behavior among their students, faculty and staff, such as the Scholarship of Hope which is awarded to students who propose innovative ideas which contribute to the University's sustainable development, the Sustainability Award for faculty members or the University Cares program which engages students in social learning. Through the University Cares program students are stimulated to take responsibility for their student community and beyond, to initiate and engage in charity projects etc. This engagement in social activities contributes to changing their behavior and changing their mindsets.

This holistic approach in education for sustainable development shows that learning for sustainable tourism is not only a matter of introducing the concept of sustainable tourism into the curriculum, but also about the institutions' and lecturers' commitment towards sustainability, about using teaching approaches which not only create a knowledge base but which also enable social learning toward a sustainable tourism future.

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ESTIMATING INTERNATIONAL TOURISM DEMAND TO SPAIN SEPARATELY BY THE MAJOR MARKETS

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper is to estimate international tourism demand to Spain separately by major source markets (Germany, United Kingdom, France, Italy and The Netherlands) that represent 67% of the international tourism to Spain. In order to investigate how the tourism demand reacts to price and income changes, we apply the bounds testing approach to cointegration and construct confidence intervals using the bootstrap technique. The results show differences in tourism behavior depending on the countries of origin and corroborate the necessity of analyzing the source markets separately instead of focus on the estimation of a unique tourism demand from a number of countries to Spain.The number of overnight stays is more sensitive to income level in the source markets than to changes in the price levels. Income is the critical determinant of demand. International tourism behaves as a luxury good for visitors from each country of origin. The negative sign of price also corroborates the economic theory. Tourists from Germany and the Netherlands are more sensitive to income changes than citizens from Italy and the United Kingdom. Citizens from the last country react inelastic to price changes and the result is in line with previous studies that have analysed the outbound tourism demand in the United Kingdom.

KEYWORDS: ARDL approach; Bootstrapping; Income demand elasticity; Price demand elasticity, Source markets.

INTRODUCTION

The fast growing tourism streams in the world have caused high growth rates in the tourism industry. Spain is one of the countries with an important increase in the tourism industry over the last half century. The industry is an important sector in the Spanish economy. According to data of the Spanish National Statistic Institute (INE) more than 13 percent of the working population is employed in the tourism sector. According to the same source the contribution of Tourism to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) varies between 10 and 11.6 percent during the last ten years. In addition, it is an

important export sector. Nearly two-thirds of nights spent by tourists in Spain correspond to tourists coming from abroad. Moreover, the balance of payment of the Spanish economy shows that the tourism industry is the economic activity with the highest cover rate and consequently with the highest level of competitiveness.

The current economic crisis has risen sharply the unemployment rate in Spain to over 20%. Exceptionally in the Spanish Economy the tourism industry has reported positive results in recent years. In addition, the number of tourists in the world shows a positive development, i.e., the tourism demand increases. In these circumstances the tourism industry is considered a strategic economic sector for the economic growth in Spain: If more visitors come to Spain the tourism and travel activities will grow but also other sector will take advantage from it. Consequently, specific policies measures try to increase the competitiveness of the industry and attract more tourists. A better knowledge of the determinants of tourism demand can help policy makers and managers to take the right decisions. There are some papers that estimate the determinants of the international tourism demand for Spain, such as Gonzalez and Moral (1995); Garin and Perez (2000); Garin (2007) Alvarez et al (2010). This paper analyzes the factors that explain the demand separately by major source markets. We include Germany, United Kingdom, France, Italy and The Netherlands that represent 67% of the international tourism to Spain

The first contribution is that a tourism demand function is estimated for each country of origin. Garín (2007) is the closest work to ours. In fact, she explicitly recognized that there were several empirical works where the modelization of the tourism demand to Spain had been studied (González and Moral, 1995; Garín and Pérez, 2000). Most of these previous studies had focused on international tourism demand from all origin countries to Spain. Consequently, the elasticities to the main determinants had been estimated assuming that all the origin countries had the same pattern of demand behavior. She estimated the German demand for tourism and found that income and price were very important factors in determining the tourism demand to Spain. There are two key differences between the study from Garin (2007) and our. On the one hand she employs annual panel data from 1991 to 2002 for the 17 Spanish regions and we use monthly data from 1999 to 2011. On the other hand she has estimated the inbound tourism demand from a single country (Germany) whereas we estimate the inbound international tourism demand from five countries to Spain.

The Second contribution is the construction of confidence intervals that overcome the limited information provided in previous studies (Song et al. 2010). Point estimation only quantifies the long-run effect, but it does not give information about the level of variability associated with it. Consequently, the information contents are of limited usefulness if their statistical significance is not properly evaluated. Following Song et al. (2010) and Otero at al. (2012) the confidence intervals are calculated using Bootstraping methodology.

We examine the long-run relationship between the demand for stays spent in Hotels and similar establishments by non residents of each country and its most relevant

determinants, i.e. price level and income. The final objective of this work is to increase the effectiveness and accuracy of tourism policy strategies and promotional activities. For example, detecting countries where the income growth does not generates more tourism growth to Spain or those countries where tourism demand is more sensitive to price changes.

The analysis is based on a three-step procedure. First, we use the bounds testing approach proposed by Pesaran *et al.* (2001). That is, we make use of an autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) model in order to investigate whether a long-run equilibrium relationship exists between the tourism demand and income and price. If the long-run relationship is verified, in the second step we calculate the point estimates of the long-run effects of the price and income elasticity on tourism demand. Finally, in the third step we construct confidence interval estimation of the long run effects.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 contains the main results and discussion, and Section 3 concludes.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The ARDL approach to cointegration implies estimating the unrestricted error correction model (ECM):

$$\Delta Stays_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \alpha_i \cdot \Delta Stays_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \mu_1 \cdot \Delta Income_{t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \mu_2 \cdot \Delta \mathrm{Price}_{t-j} + \phi \cdot Stays_{t-1} + \vartheta_1 \cdot Income_{t-1} + \vartheta_2 \cdot \mathrm{Price}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

where the symbol Δ represents the first-difference operator, the parameters ϕ and ϑ are the long-run coefficients, α_i and μ_j the short-run coefficients and ε_t represent the residuals. *Stays* is the dependent variable and measures the number of overnight stays by Spanish no resident in hotels and other accommodation establishments located in Spain. This variable was seasonally adjusted using Census X12. *Income* and Pr*ice* are the independent variables. The variable proxy of *Income* is the Industry production index for France, Italy and Nederland (Eurostat). The IFO Business Climate Index (IFO Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung) for Germany and the services Index (Office for National Statistics) for United Kingdom. Both variables are adjusted seasonally. The proxy variable for Pr*ice* is the Consumer Price Index CPI Spain Package holidays, seasonally adjusted using Census X12 and corrected by the nominal exchange rate for United Kingdom. All variables are taken in logarithms. The simple period object of analysis covers the period from January 1999 to December 2011, therefore, the simple size has 156 observations. Except for Nederland, with 144 observations (January 2000 to December 2011).

The ARDL bounds testing approach allows us to analyze the existence of a long-run relationship in levels between international tourism demand for Spain and both explanatory variables. If the variables are *I(d)*, with $d \geq 2$, the bounds testing approach

to cointegration is not valid. For this reason, we apply ADF test (Dickey and Fuller (1981)) to identify the order of integration of the variables[49]. All variables for the different countries are I(1). Consequently, we verify that the ARDL approach can be applied to study the existence of a cointegration relationship between variables.

Another technical issue is how to determine an appropriate lag length p in the ARDL-Model. The value of p must be sufficiently large to reduce the possible residual serial correlation problem, but sufficiently small to avoid over-parametrization problems. Since we are working with monthly data and following the recommendation given in Pesaran and Pesaran (1997), we assume a maximum number of lags $p = 12$. In our case, the optimal number of lags (p) of the ECM is chosen using jontly the Akaike information criterion or the Schwarz criterion and uncorrelated residuals.

Table 1 shows that the estimation passes all the diagnosis tests commonly used to detect problems of serial correlation of the residuals (Bresuch-Godfrey LM test), White test for heteroskedasticity and Ramsey regression equation specification error of model misspecification at 1% level of significance.

Table 1. ARDL models

Countries	Lag	White	Breush-Godfrey	Reset
United-Kingdom	(1)	0.27	0.57	0.02
Germany	(8)	0.07	0.88	0.91
Nederland	(3)	0.01	0.22	0.96
France	(4)	0.02	0.47	0.02
Italy	(1)	0.69	0.75	0.67

Note: All entries for the test are the p-values. ***Indicates significance at the 1% level.

Table 2 reports the values of the bounds tests for Cointegration (Pesaran *et al*., 2001). As we can observe, the computed F-statistic and t-statistic are in all cases above their respective upper critical bounds, except for France. Therefore, the null hypotheses of no cointegration are rejected and we get conclusive evidence of a long-run relationship between international tourism demand for Spain and the income and price for all countries. For France, there is no evidence for the relationship of cointegration between the variables.

Table 2. Bound Test for Cointegration.

United-Kingdom	Germany	Nederland	Italy	France
F_{II}=6.09***	F_{IV}=5.14**	F_{IV}=6.71***	F_{IV}=22.6***	F_{IV}=2.21
F_{III}=8.12***	F_{IV}=6.58**	F_{IV}=8.90***	F_{IV}=30.14***	F_{IV}=2.72
t_{III}=-4.88***	t_V=-4.06**	t_V=-4.71***	t_V=-9.4***	t_V=-2.43

Note: **significance at 5%; ***significance at 1%.

[49] The results are not reported in this study, but they can be sent upon request.

As we can see in table 3, the income variable has a positive effect on demand while the price has a negative effect on it and both results are consistent with the law of demand. Table 3 also displays the 90% confidence intervals for long-run elasticities constructed using the bootstrap technique ((Efron and Tibshirani,1998). The income and price elasticities of demand are statistically significant for the four source markets (confidence intervals do not cover zero).

Table 3. Point and Bootstrap Interval Estimation of Long-run elasticities

Country	Point estimates		Bootstrap Interval Estimation	
	Income	Price	Income	Price
United-kingdom	1.02	-0.50	(0.57,1.47)	(-0.69,-0.33)
Germany	1.24	-0.88	(0.89,1.77)	(-1.43,-0.41)
Nederland	1.61	-1.57	(0.85,2.80)	(-2.57,-0.93)
Italy	1.07	-1.05	(0.84,1.27)	(-1.43,-0.74)

Note: The bootstrap confidence interval is constructed using the accelerated bias-corrected method considering 10,000 replications

In all the studied countries the inbound international tourism demand to Spain is a luxury good (confidence intervals do cover one). However,the number of nights spent by German and Dutch tourists in Spain, with 90% confidence intervals (0.89, 1.77) and (0.85, 2.80) respectively, is more sensitive to income fluctuations than in the United Kingdom and Italy (90% confidence intervals (0.57,1.47) and (0.84,1.27) respectively).

According to the results a price decrease in the vacation packages would lead to a higher increase in the nights spent in Spain by Italian (-1.43,-0.74) and Dutch (-2.57,-0.93) tourists than by citizens from Germany (-1.43,-0.41). The demand is inelastic to price changes for the United Kingdom (-0.69,-0.31). The result is in line with previous studies in the literature (Song et al., 2000; Song and Witt, 2003; Song, Witt and Li 2003, Song, Wong and Chon., 2003; Ouerfelli,2008; Song et al. 2010) that also have observed inelastic reaction of demand to price changes for Tourists from the United Kingdom. One possible additional explanation for the observed low price elasticity of demand could be the depreciation of the British Pound in relation to the Euro during the period of analysis. The increase in the amount of British Pounds necessary to get a unit of Euro raises the price of overnight stays in Spain but also in many substitute tourism markets (Greek, Italy, Portugal, France, Malta, Cyprus).

The confidence intervals calculated in this study for Germany and the United Kingdom are compared in table 4 with long-run tourism demand elasticities from previous studies for both countries. Specifically, we compare the point estimate for long-run price and income elasticities of demad for outbound tourism from the United Kingdom to Spain (Song, Romilly and Liu, 2000; Kuledran and Witt, 2001; Li, Wong, Song and Witt 2006) and the same elasticities for inbound tourism from Germany (Garin, 2007) to Spain with our results. Although all the studies estimate long-run elasticities for the same countries of origin there are significant differences between them. First, they use different data sources, period and frequency of analysis (annual, quarterly and

monthly). Second, they also use different methodology (Error Correction Model (ECM), Panel data model or Time Varying Parameter-Error Correction Model (TVP-ECM)). Moreover, whereas some studies take the number of holidays visitors as the measure for the demand, other authors measure it by the number of total visitors (holiday and business) or the expenditure generated by the visitors or the night stays spent.

There are very few similitude between the compared studies. Practically the coincidences are reduced to considering the same countries. In spite of the very few similitude the point estimation of the long-run elasticities of demand with respect to income obtained by Kulendran and Witt (2001) and the the point estimation of the long-run elasticities of demand with respect to price obtained by Song, Romilly and Liu (2000) are contained in the 90% confidence intervals constructed in our empirical work using the bootstrap technique. The existence of confidence intervals for the previous empirical works would enrich our comparison possibilities by analyzing if confidence intervals overlap.

Table 4. Income and price Long-run elatisticites of demand for source market

Data and methodology	Source Market	Dependent variable	Income long-run elasticity*	Price long-run elasticity*
Song, Romilly and Liu (2000)				
Annual 1965-1994 ECM	UK	Number of holyday visits	Real personal disposable income per capita (2.199)	CPI both countries adjusted by exchange rate (-0.496)
Kuledran and Witt (2001)				
Quarterly 1978-1995 ECM	UK	Holiday visits per capita	Real personal disposable income per capita (0.928)	CPI both countries adjusted by exchange rate (-2. 98)
Li, Wong, Song and Witt (2006)				
Annual 1972-2004 TVP-ECM	UK	Real tourism spending per capita	Real household disposable income per capita (2.22)	CPI both countries adjusted by exchange rate (-1. 23)
Garin (2007)				
Annual 1991-2002 Panel data	Germany	Nights spent	GDP per capita (5.4)	CPI both countries adjusted by exchange rate (-2. 23)
Present Paper				
Montly 1999-2011 ECM	UK	Nights spent	Services Index (0.57,1.47)	CPI Spain package holidays adjusted by exchange rate (-0.69,-0.33)
	Germany		IFO Business Climate Index (0.89,1.77)	CPI Spain package holidays (-1.43,-0.41)

*Elasticities and 90 % bootstrap confidence intervals in parenthesis

CONCLUSION

This paper studies the main economic influencing factors (income and price level) of the international tourism demand for Spain separately by source markets. Moreover, the use of the bootstrap technique provides more accurate results to policy makers and professionals. In other words, we overcome the shortcomings of both the limited information provided by point estimation and the assumption that all origin countries have the same pattern of demand behaviour. For this purpose, we followed a three-step procedure. In the first step, we applied the ARDL bounds testing approach to verify the existence of a long-run relationship between the number of nights spent by tourist in Spain and the level of income and price. Once the existence of a long-run connection between the variables was verified, the next step used the ARDL model to quantify the

long-run impact of these factors on the international tourism demand. In the third step, we estimate the confidence intervals associated with each impact.

Our empirical findings provide information of interest and represent important contributions to the existing literature. The main results and contributions can be summarized in the following points:

(1) The results reveal that the null hypotheses of no cointegration are rejected for all countries except France. Therefore, we have conclusive evidence that the income and price are relevant to explain the long-run dynamic of the international tourism demand to Spain for each origin country (Germany, Italy, Netherlands and United Kingdom).
(2) The sign of estimated coefficients in the ARDL model are in line with our a priori expectations. Moreover, these estimates allow us to quantify the long-run impacts of the explanatory variables on tourism demand. That is, we can calculate the point estimate of the long-run effects. Nevertheless, the point estimate provides only incomplete information concerning the long-run effects. Policy makers and entrepreneurs also need to know the statistical significance and the variability of these effects. For this reason and given the limitations of the classical statistics, we use a non-parametric and computational method known as bootstrapping to construct confidence intervals for each long-run effect. In our opinion, the inclusion of bootstrap intervals provides more relevant information and gives more consistency to our results.
(3) The number of overnight stays is more sensitive to income level in the source markets than to changes in the price levels. Income is the critical determinant of demand. International tourism behaves as a luxury good for visitors from each country of origin. The negative sign of price also corroborates the economic theory.
(4) The results show differences in tourism behavior depending on the countries of origin and corroborate the necessity of analyzing the source markets separately instead of focus on the estimation of a unique tourism demand from a number of countries to Spain.
(5) The price and income demand elasticities for Spain by origin could be useful to design and implement tourism policies and marketing strategies for each source market. Specifically tourists from Germany and the Netherlands are more sensitive to income changes than citizens from Italy and the United Kingdom. Citizens from the last country react inelastic to price changes and the result is in line with previous studies that have analysed the outbound tourism demand in the United Kingdom.

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HOW TO KEEP CUSTOMERS AND CFOS HAPPY: APPLICATION OF KANO'S MODEL IN TRAVEL AND TOURISM INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

This study addresses the limitations of Importance-Performance Analysis approach that conceptualizes the relationship between attribute-level performance and satisfaction as linear and aims to develop a framework that accounts for non-linearity and helps to optimize organizational efforts and improve customer satisfaction in the specific context of Travel and Tourism. For that purpose, a model developed by Kano et al. (1984) and approach suggested by Arbore and Busacca (2009) and Chen (2012) will be applied and tested in travel and tourism settings. Basic, performance, and excitement attributes will be identified based on the way they affect customer satisfaction. Consequently, managerial implications of the research findings will be presented.

KEYWORDS: customer satisfaction, multiple-factor theory, performance optimization, importance-performance analysis,

INTRODUCTION

In a highly competitive travel and tourism industry customer satisfaction (CS) is one of the most critical factors of organizational success. It is commonly agreed among both practitioners and academics that CS is positively associated with such outcomes as customer loyalty and organizational profitability (Oliver, 2010). Besides, measuring CS allows evaluating customers' experience as well as understanding its components or key drivers (Johnston, 1995).

It is commonly agreed that CS depends on a number of determinants – product or service attributes and measuring CS through attribute-level performance captures the complex nature of consumers' experiences and can provides high level of specificity, operational utility, and diagnostic convenience (Mittal, Ross, & Baldasare, 1998). Knowing what customers enjoy or dislike permits industry professionals to allocate organizational resources on what is truly critical, thus securing an advantage over competitors.

The most commonly used approach of CS operationalization is Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA). IPA's popularity stems from its ability to provide insights into which product or service components yield maximum value proposition for customers and also IPA's application simplicity. In this approach, a list of key attributes is generated first and, then, respondents rate an offering on the degree of how each of the attributes is delivered (Martilla & James, 1977). Additionally, respondents rate the level

of attributes' importance. Then, an overall score is calculated as a sum of individual attribute scores weighed by the level of their importance (Oliver, 2010).

In spite of its popularity, IPA approach has multiple limitations. Oh (2001) states that IPA does not specify whether the attribute is important for its presence or its absence. Another important weakness comes from the IPA's underlying assumption that importance and performance are two independent entities. However, numerous studies confirmed that the relationship between attribute performance and attribute importance is causal and attribute importance changes as attribute performance does (Matzler & Sauerwein, 2002; Matzler, Sauerwein, & Heischmidt, 2003). Furthermore, some attributes may be viewed as "unimportant" by consumers due to being consistently incorporated into all competing offerings. For example, how many customers consider if there are towels in their hotel room, but how would they feel if there none offered?

This last example points out one of the major limitations of IPA: it assumes that the relationship between CS and attribute performance is linear or symmetric, implying that improving performance will always lead to greater satisfaction and the relative change in CS will stay the same for corresponding positive or negative attribute performance (Oliver, 2010; Slevitch & Oh, 2009). Additionally, the customer's response to performance increments appears to have thresholds. CS can rise steeply when attribute performance reaches a certain threshold (Oliver, 2010). In contrast, when attribute performance falls below a different threshold, satisfaction can decline equally rapidly. However, between these thresholds, satisfaction can be relatively flat. In such cases, making investments to improve service may not result in profit gains, but rather be a waste of resources (Oliva, Oliver, & MacMillan, 1992).

To illustrate, if we take such an important feature as cleanliness, dining in a sterile restaurant should yield maximum level of CS, but it does not hold true on practice. Most customers would not be delighted by such environment, except for the small segment of germophobic customers. Such asymmetrical effects were empirically observed by numerous practitioners who have reported that equally investing in greater performance along all service attributes in order to increase satisfaction would not be effective and not justify additional investments (Hui et al., 2004; Kano et al., 1984; Mittal et al., 1998).

Another shortcoming of IPA is that it does not take into account interaction effects among attributes. Several researchers report that the way how performance of a certain group of attributes affects CS depends on the performance of another group of attributes (Hui et al., 2004; Slevitch & Oh, 2010). Core attributes (absolute musts) moderate the impact of facilitating attributes (unnecessary but delightful), thus explaining asymmetric performance-satisfaction relationships.

Nevertheless, being grounded in the linearity assumption, the IPA approach innately promotes performance *maximization* (Mittal et al., 1998). It does not allow for performance *optimization,* consequently leaving the problem of optimal deployment of organizational efforts and resources (Matzler, Fuchs, & Schubert, 2004).

This illustrates that the issue of performance optimization has not been mitigated yet. Nevertheless, a number of studies addressed this problem and explored asymmetric nature of CS function (Bartikowski & Llosa, 2003; Hui, Zhao, Fan, & Au, 2004; Kano, 1984; Oliva et al., 1992; Slevitch & Oh, 2009). Particularly noteworthy is the multiple-factor theory developed by Kano et al. (1984), which incorporates asymmetric responses and categorizes attributes based on the way the attributes affect CS.

Kano et al. (1984) propose that most attributes fall into three major categories: basic factors, performance factors, and excitement factors. *Basic factors* (dissatisfiers) are critical when performance is low, because in this case they have profound negative effect on CS. At the same time, their influence on overall satisfaction diminishes when attribute performance increases. The opposite tendency is true for *excitement factors* (satisfiers). They become important determinants of satisfaction when attribute performance is high but play an insignificant role when attribute performance is low. *Performance factors* (neutrals) have symmetric effect on CS, equal when performed adequately and inadequately (Matzler et al., 2004).

It is important to distinguish between different types of quality attributes as proposed by Kano et al. (1984) in order to achieve optimal allocation of resources. Basic attributes should be kept in an adequate range to avoid negative impacts on CS. At the same time, an increase above that level in their performance does not lead to an increase in customer satisfaction. Performance attributes should be kept in higher than adequate range due to their consistent impact on CS. Excitement factor, unexpected "delights", should be added if possible because when combined with adequate performance of basic and performance attributes they allow standing out above the competition.

It is important to point out that Kano's model is dynamic and contextual. Basic, performance and excitement factors are not defined a priori implying that the categorization varies between industries and market segments (Matzler et al., 2004). Additionally, current excitement factors can convert to performance factors and can eventually become basic factors. As a consequence, Kano's model might have different extensions based on the context applied.

Objectives

The goal of this study is to address the gaps in previous CS studies that conceptualize the relationship between attribute-level performance and satisfaction as linear and develop a framework that would help with attribute performance optimization in the specific context of travel and tourism industry. For that purpose, a novel approach to Kano's categorization developed by Arbore and Busacca (2009) and Chen (2012) will be applied and tested. Basic, performance, and excitement attributes will be identified addressing limitations of the original Kano's method. Consequently, managerial implications of the research findings will be presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The original idea for Kano's model (1984) can be traced back to Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1967). Herzberg did his study to discover the ultimate motivators or "satisfiers" in the work environment. He applied the Critical Incident Technique to determine the events that caused respondents to be exceptionally satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. Content analysis of the obtained responses revealed two sets of factors: *satisfiers*, predominant in the incidences of satisfaction, and *dissatisfiers*, predominant in the incidences of dissatisfaction. The dissatisfiers primarily consisted of maintenance or *job context* factors. Satisfiers were mostly related to intrinsic sources of fulfillment and consisted of *job content* factors.

Herzberg argued that these two groups of factors have separate and distinct influences on employees: job content factors act only to increase satisfaction (motivators), job context factors only increase dissatisfaction and have no or little effect on satisfaction (hygiene factors). In particular, if the performance of hygiene factors falls below an acceptable level, dissatisfaction occurs. However, in case of over-fulfillment, a higher degree of satisfaction does not happen. In contrast, underperformance of motivator factors does not result in dissatisfaction, but if they are fulfilled above a certain level, they are a source of satisfaction (satisfiers). Herzberg (1967) concluded that satisfaction and dissatisfaction could not be considered as two opposites of the same continuum, but rather should be treated as independent constructs because sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction have different antecedents. Under this assumption the opposite of satisfaction is 'no satisfaction', not dissatisfaction

Kano et al. (1984) took Herzberg's theory to a different level. Kano's model categorizes product or service attributes into five distinct categories: *attractive*, *one-dimensional*, *must-be*, *indifference*, and *reverse.* Hygiene factors or dissatisfiers are must-be requirements. Motivator factors or satisfiers are attractive requirements. Consequently, must-be requirements cause dissatisfaction if they are not fulfilled, whereas fulfillment has no positive effect on satisfaction. Conversely, attractive requirements affect satisfaction positively if they are fulfilled, while non-fulfillment does not cause dissatisfaction. Next to these, Kano et al. developed a number of other attribute types. One-dimensional requirements have equal impact on both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Indifferent requirements are irrelevant for satisfaction formation at all. Reverse requirements cause satisfaction, if they are not fulfilled; and dissatisfaction, if they are fulfilled.

According to Kano, two assumptions should be followed. First, importance of a basic or excitement attributes is based on its performance. Basic attributes are crucial when performance is low and are unimportant when performance is high. Excitement factors are critical when performance is high and are unimportant when performance is low (Matzler et al., 2004; Ting & Chen, 2002). (2) The relationship between attribute performance and overall customer satisfaction is asymmetrical.

Kano's model is often called a three-factor model because following studies of customer satisfaction condensed the original number of attributes into three categories: basic factors, performance factors, and excitement factors (Matzler & Hinterhuber, 1998; Matzler & Sauerwein, 2002; Matzler et al., 1996; Oliver, 1997). The basic factors are similar to must-be quality elements. The performance factors are similar to one-dimensional quality elements. The excitement factors are similar to attractive quality elements (see Figure 1).

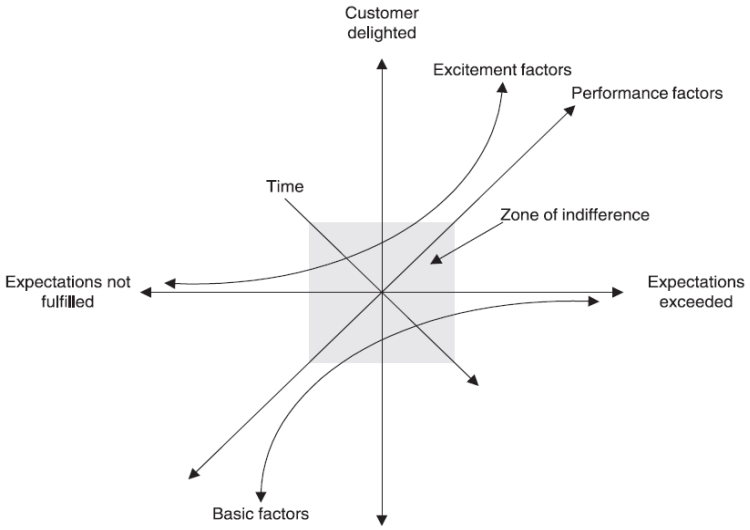

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Figure 1. Kano's three-factor model

METHODS

The research will apply quantitative methods and on-line format. The population of this study will be US customers acquiring travel services. The Info USA database will be used to collect data. Respondents will be asked to complete an on-line questionnaire evaluating their travel experiences.

Several incentives will be offered to the participants to facilitate their response rate. The questionnaire will be based on the previous research instruments (Kano, 1984; Matzler & Hinterhuber, 1998). For each attribute performance scores will be obtained using a 9-point scale (ranging from 1="poor" to 9="excellent"). Overall level of satisfaction will also be measured on a 9-point scale, where 1 will correspond with "very dissatisfied" and 9 with "very satisfied" as suggested by Arbore and Busacca (2009). A pre-test will be conducted prior to the main data collection to ensure proper validity and reliability of the research instrument. Multiple regression with interaction terms will be used to analyze data.

IMPLICATIONS

Several implications are expected to emerge from the findings of this study. Knowledge of how different attribute performance affects CS will enable practitioners

operating in different travel and tourism segments to control their resource distribution activities more effectively. Identified must-be requirements should deserve the closest attention, however, for them it is sufficient to only fulfill customers' expectations, whereas their over-fulfillment is unnecessary. One-dimensional requirements will constitute the second priority and attractive requirements the third.

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RETHINKING TOURISM STATISTICS FOR EDUCATIONAL COLLABORATION: A MOVE TOWARD APPLICATION AND SOLUTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Owing to the expanded scale of tourism worldwide, tourism statistics have attained heightened level of significance in recent years. The growing complexity of travel related data and the increasingly diversified user groups of tourism statistics suggest a need for a systematic approach to the application, analysis, and interpretation of tourism statistics. This study aims to discuss key issues for employing tourism statistics to enhance tourism education and to explore potential collaborative opportunities among the stakeholders to maximize the utilities of tourism statistics. A self-administered questionnaire is being developed for primary data collection through an online survey with various user groups of tourism statistics. The results of this study are expected to make a unique contribution to tourism education and/or tourism management by proposing some useful guidelines for effective applications of tourism statistics to educational enhancement but also to suggest opportunities for collaborative strategies.

KEYWORDS: Collaborative strategies; Educational enhancement; Statistical data; Tourism course; Tourism education; Tourism statistics.

BACKGROUND

Tourism is an enormous international economic and social phenomenon affecting billions of people worldwide. In many instances it is the most important contributor to jobs and development in both developed and developing nations. The expansion of more participants trying to take advantage of this economic force indicates that it is highly competitive and complex. New destinations and attractions are stepping forward to attract visitors; older and existing destinations are developing new approaches to maintain and

grow their tourist markets; and tourism policies at every level are being developed or refreshed to help create the most attractive and competitive opportunities possible.

Because of the importance of the activity, tourism statistics are increasingly used, collected, compiled, estimated and reported by a wide range of organizations. The scale of tourism throughout the world and the growing complexity of travel related data suggest a need for improved knowledge, processes and systems and ways to learn about the system. If learning opportunities represent a key concern, then understanding the current environment in which tourism statistics, analysis and interpretation are taking place is a relevant issue to explore. Added to this, different user groups of tourism statistics – tourism statistics professionals, statistical agencies, tourism practitioners, and tourism educators and students – may pursue different opportunities that are specific to their needs.

It is agreeable that tourism research studies have achieved statistical progress to some degree in terms of the statistical methods used (Palmer, Sesé, & Montaño, 2005). However, using tourism statistics as reliable, readily available resources for various analyses in tourism research studies appears to be still in its developing stage with not much research attention has been received to date. From an educational perspective, the key question might be how to maximize the utilities of tourism statistics to enhance tourism education? What should we offer our students to learn about tourism statistics and methods to use? To be effective, tourism education at different academic levels requires different strategies and tools to cater specifics to each level and/or program.

RESEARCH RATIONALE & OBJECTIVES

Since Jafari and Ritchie (1981) proposed a conceptual framework, tourism education has evolved considerably to meet the needs of a wide range of constituencies and stakeholders. While complexity is becoming commonplace, times are changing and so are the responsibilities and tasks of tourism education. To prosper, tourism training and education ought to be founded on collaborative efforts and partnerships, where industry practitioners engage in educational initiatives (Solnet, Robinson, & Cooper, 2007). By the same token, public and private agencies can be linked in a systems approach to sharing tourism resources and training workforce to serve a tourism destination (Mayaka & Akama, 2007).

While not many academic research studies has been reported specifically on tourism education (Inui,, Wheeler, & Lankford, 2006), a recent movement led by The Tourism Education Futures Initiative [TEFI] appears to propose a fundamental shift in tourism education in the nature of what is taught and how it is taught in order to be proactive and responsive to major global challenges that are impacting tourism at a fundamental level. Coupled with their mission, "….seeks to provide vision, knowledge and a framework for tourism education programs to promote global citizenship and optimism for a better world (Shelton, Fesenmaier, & Tribe, 2011, p. 3)," TEFI also suggests a set of fundamental values (stewardship, ethics, knowledge, mutuality, professionalism) for tourism education programs worldwide, providing an important platform for tourism education futures (Barber, 2011). The goal is "to define a new model

of education for the tourism industry" by engaging all stakeholders – university educators, industry professionals, and students – into the process, where collaboration in all aspects and at all levels is of crucial importance throughout all stages. These are points emphasized by both UNWTO and the OECD in looking toward the future of tourism statistics and knowledge development.

One immediate opportunity for such collaboration might be networking across organizations. TEFI, for instance, can partner with the World Travel and Tourism Council [WTTC] to propose guidelines for tourism education institutions worldwide. UNWTO, the major driving force to house tourism statistics worldwide, has put an increased level of emphasis on promoting tourism statistics by proposing new international standards for their statistical program establishing a new specialized agency and developing new learning programs. In addition to collecting, analyzing, and publishing tourism statistics, this new agency should take initiatives to enhance cooperation among various agencies (e.g., Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] and Eurostat) and to facilitate useful implications of tourism statistics for various organizations (e.g., public and private, academic and industry). Given the multidisciplinary nature of tourism with numerous constituencies involved, it can easily become a daunting task for tourism agencies to monitor and enhance partnerships across multiple of stakeholders.

The current study attempts to serve a venue to rethink tourism statistics and discuss the utilities for learning opportunities in tourism education. To this end, the first phase of this study aims to explore key issues pertaining to employing tourism statistics for tourism educational purposes. The results of this qualitative analysis can then be articulated in a quantitative analysis using primary data collected with tourism educators, the results of which are expected to provide a comprehensive analysis of the current application of tourism statistics to tourism education. Once completed, the results may not only propose efficient, effective educational strategies for tourism statistics but also suggest ways to explore educational opportunities for potential collaboration.

SAMPLE AND INSTRUMENT

Employing a self-administered survey questionnaire, primary data will be collected between November-December 2012 with various user groups worldwide – tourism statistics professionals, statistical agencies, tourism practitioners, and tourism educators and students – who are currently collecting, learning, teaching, or applying tourism statistics. Almost all these tourism professionals are affiliated with at least one professional organization, such that a compiled list of membership and/or subscription of major organizations provides a legitimate sampling frame to reach out to the target subjects. These organizations include Travel and Tourism Research Association [TTRA], Tourism Education Futures Initiative [TEFI], International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators [ISTTE], International Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education [I-CHRIE], and Global Hospitality Educators.

In an effort to help tourism educators establish effective strategies to incorporate tourism statistics into instructional objectives, this study aims to propose an analysis of the current applications of tourism statistics in tourism programs at different levels: (a) 2-year; (b) 4-year; and (c) graduate. Being a global phenomenon, tourism encompasses regional variances, suggesting international regions may presumably yield an interesting comparison as well. Other factors to be examined include: (a) type(s) of tourism statistics being used; (b) respective course(s); (c) topics/areas; and (d) instructional delivery. As noted earlier, tourism statistics do not appear to have been widely used in tourism education overall. To address this concern, the current analysis also examines major factors by which tourism educators are constrained in using tourism statistics for instructional purposes. The survey instrument is currently being developed, the draft of which is included in the Appendix.

EXPECTED CONTRIBUTION

The exploration of how statistics and tourism statistics are being dealt with in our current learning environment will make us pause and carefully consider possible future paths. Certainly thinking about the way in which we should approach learning about tourism statistics and methods may be as complex as the number of organizations engaged and strategies currently being employed across the globe. The material presented will outline useful guidelines for moving forward toward more effective applications. In addition, the paper suggests opportunities for enhanced cooperation among different groups working in the profession with significant but different learning needs: tourism statistics professionals and agencies, tourism practitioners and tourism academic communities.

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APPENDIX: Tourism Statistics Survey

This study aims to propose an analysis of the current applications of tourism statistics in tourism/hospitality programs at higher education environment. Simply give us a few minutes to complete this survey questionnaire. Your response will help us better understand your needs, so that we can propose useful guidelines to help you establish effective strategies to incorporate tourism statistics into instructional objectives. Your responses will be held confidential, and the results of our study will be reported in aggregate with no references to individual schools or people.

Date:___/___/_____

1. **Do you use tourism statistics as academic/professional resources?**
   - ☐ Yes, in which format?
     - ☐ Lecture
     - ☐ Seminar
     - ☐ Discussion
     - ☐ Workshop
     - ☐ Other: _____
   - ☐ No (Why not?:_____)
2. **Which of the following best describes your institution?**
   - ☐ Academic institution (college, university)
   - ☐ Professional institution (vocational school, professional association, etc.)
   - ☐ Research institution (public, private)
   - ☐ Industry organization
   - ☐ Consulting firms
   - ☐ Other: _____
3. **How important is the application, analysis, and interpretation of tourism statistics to achieve your institutional objectives?**

Not at all important			→			*Extremely important*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. **What is the primary educational/professional emphasis of your institution? (Check all that apply)**
   - ☐ Tourism
   - ☐ Park & natural resources
   - ☐ Leisure & recreation
   - ☐ Sports management
   - ☐ Hospitality management
   - ☐ Other: _____

5. **What is the level of education your institution offers?**
   - ☐ 2-year college degree (associates)
   - ☐ 4-year College Degree (BA, BS)
   - ☐ Master's Degree
   - ☐ Doctoral Degree
   - ☐ Other: _____

6. **Are students/associates in your institution required to take statistics course(s)/program(s)?**
   - ☐ Yes Course/Program: _____ _____ Course/Program: _____ _____ Course/Program: _____ _____
   - ☐ No

   If yes, does your academic unit teach the course(s)/program(s)?
   - ☐ Yes: The average class size: _____ students
   - ☐ No: The course(s) are taught by:_____

7. **Are there prerequisite(s) for the statistics course(s)/program(s) as required core?**
   - ☐ Yes Course/Program: _____ _____ Course/Program: _____ _____ Course/Program: _____ _____
   - ☐ No

8. **Do you offer elective statistics course(s)/program(s) in your institution?**
   - ☐ Yes Course/Program: _____ _____ Course/Program: _____ _____ Course/program: _____ _____
   - ☐ No

9. **Does the statistics course/program include any "active-learning" activities?**
   - ☐ Yes (Please briefly describe: _____)
   - ☐ No

10. **Have you made any changes in the way you use the statistical resources in the last five years?**
   - ☐ Yes (How? ____)
   - ☐ No

11. **Do you envision making any changes in the next 2-3 years?**
   - ☐ Yes (How? ____)
   - ☐ No

12. **The following is a list of tourism statistics that are available for tourism educators/researchers to use. Please rate each item, using the scale below, on how __IMPORTANT__ it is for you as academic/professional resources.** *(Please check ONE for each item.)*

	Not at all important			→			*Extremely important*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Other statistics (*Please specify and rate)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. **How often do you use the following tourism statistics as academic/professional resources?** *(Please check ONE for each item.)*

	Not at all			→			*Very frequently*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Other statistics (*Please specify and rate)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. In order to maximize the utilities of tourism statistics as useful academic/professional resources, how would you rate the following factors?

	Not at all important			→			*Extremely important*
Relevancy to the academic discipline	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Academic/professional level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of statistical data	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Classroom environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ease of use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Institutional drive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Instructional capability to teach statistical analysis	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learning objectives of students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Relevancy of data for immediate application	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Statistics course(s) as elective(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Statistics course(s) required in the core curriculum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Timeliness of statistical data	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Other factors (*Please specify and rate)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. Additional suggestions/comments, if any.

_____

_____

Thank you so much for your time.

AN EVALUATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VISITORS' PERCEPTIONS OF SERVICE PERFORMANCE AND ON-SITE DESTINATION IMAGE

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ABSTRACT

Measuring service performance (or quality of the performance) has become a common method for identifying opportunities to provide more satisfying and fulfilling experiences for visitors and patrons in both the marketing and tourism fields. However, measuring patrons' on-site perceptions of image has been less well-documented. While a few studies have attempted to measure on-site image, a universal scale for measurement of image has not yet been created (Reardon, Miller, and Coe, 2011). Additionally, research has been even more limited in attempts to determine the on-site attributes that contribute to patron's perceptions of a destination's image (Baker, et al., 2002). To this end, the present study attempts to evaluate visitors' perception of service performance attributes as well as their on-site assessments of the destination's image. It is proposed that visitors' performance assessments (quality) of a destination during their experience will influence how they feel about the destination (image) and how well they feel the destination will be able to fulfill their needs (satisfaction) during the visit. These assessments can provide insights into strategies for improving a destination's competitive edge relative to similar attractions. As such, this study attempts to understand which service performance features influence visitors' on-site perceptions of the destination's image.

KEYWORDS: Destination image, Satisfaction, Service quality

INTRODUCTION

The images people have of their environment can influence their behavior in the environment (Hite and Bellizzi, 1985). In marketing, the importance of understanding the components of retail image have long been discussed (Berry, 1969). Research evaluating store image gained importance in the 1970s and 1980s and by the 1990s, store image emerged as a major strategic initiative, where having the ability to identify and, if

necessary, modify store image became a key competitive tool (Reardon, Miller and Coe, 2011).

In the tourism field, Gunn first coined the phrase "vacationscape" in 1972 to describe the environment in which tourists experience a destination. Gunn's writings stemmed from his question, "What do we as travelers see, smell, feel, and hear as we travel, and are designers and developers sufficiently sensitive to our interests and reactions?" (Gunn, p. ix).

In the marketing literature, Bitner (1992) used a similar term, "servicescape" to describe the visual environment consisting of the man-made, physical surroundings, and suggested that servicescapes affect the behaviors of both consumers and employees in service settings. She argued that the servicescape has a strong impact on customers' perceptions of the service experience. She stated, "The physical environment is rich in such cues and may be very influential in communicating the firm's image and the purpose to its customers.

Ultimately, the amenities that many tourism destinations provide for their visitors are service quality attributes (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry, 1990). The quality of these amenities is highly likely to impact the experiences of visitors. Thus, high quality amenities provided by destinations should help to create high quality experiences for visitors. The quality of the experience has a direct impact on visitor satisfaction. If the quality of the experience is high, the visitor's satisfaction level will also likely be high. If satisfaction is high, then the visitor is likely to return to the destination (Baker and Crompton, 2000). Likewise, if visitors feel they have had a high quality experience at a destination, they are likely to have a positive image of the destination (Bitner, 1992).

A tourist's initial assessment (or first impression) of a destination's (or vacation's) quality is likely to be based on tangible elements rather than on other dimensions of service quality, such as responsiveness, reliability, empathy, or assurance. While service quality literature has repeatedly found that reliability is the most important determinant of quality (Berry and Parasuraman 1991), this is not likely to be the case when interaction with service providers and staff are limited. In many tourism settings, there is limited interaction with the staff or service providers, and much of the interaction is with the physical setting of the destination (for example, zoos, museums, parks, and beaches, or high facility/low staff recreation settings, as described by Crompton and MacKay in 1989.) In these types of tourism contexts, tangible elements are aspects of the destination with which tourists will have most contact and, thus, the dimension most likely to influence their perceptions. Therefore, by manipulating tangible elements, the destination can attempt to enhance the quality of experiences for tourists, and in turn tourists will have a higher image of the destination.

Measuring service performance (or quality of the performance) has become a common method for identifying opportunities to provide more satisfying and fulfilling experiences for visitors and patrons in both the marketing and tourism fields (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1994; Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000; Tian-Cole,

Crompton and Willson, 2002; Baker and Crompton, 2000; and Petrick, 2004). However, measuring patrons' on-site perceptions of image has been less well-documented. While a few studies have attempted to measure on-site image (Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss, 2002; and Manolis, Keep, Joyce, and Lambert, 1994), a universal scale for measurement of image has not yet been created (Reardon, Miller, and Coe, 2011). Additionally, research has been even more limited in attempts to determine the on-site attributes that contribute to patron's perceptions of a destination's image (Baker, et al., 2002).

To this end, the present study attempts to evaluate visitors' perception of service performance attributes as well as their on-site assessments of the destination's image. The goal of this study is to evaluate the relationship between these two constructs. It is proposed that visitors' performance assessments (quality) of a destination during their experience will influence how they feel about the destination (image) during the visit. These assessments can provide insights into strategies for improving a destination's competitive edge relative to similar attractions. As such, this study attempts to understand which service performance features influence visitors' on-site perceptions of the destination's image.

METHODS

Data were collected via on-site questionnaires for an entire calendar year (January 2011 – December 2011) at a large public zoo located in the Southeastern US. The goal of this data collection was to collect survey data from visitors for an entire year to gain insights into different visitor types (weekend and weekday, busy season and off-season, first-time visitors and repeat visitors, etc.). A modified probability sample was employed, which utilized a systematic quota sampling plan where every n^{th} adult visitor (determined by traffic flow and number of interviewers) was approached and asked to complete the questionnaire at various locations throughout the zoo.

Based on discussions with Zoo management, a target of 4,000 usable surveys was established. Historical attendance data was utilized to develop a sampling strategy. Monthly and daily data collection goals were established to be proportional to historical attendance data. At the conclusion of each sampling day, a log was kept in order to record the dates, times of intercepts, weather conditions, interviewers, number of intercepts, number of refusals, and number of completed surveys. A total of 4,016 completed usable surveys were obtained, with a response rate of 75.5%.

To assess respondents' perceptions of service performance on various attributes, they were asked to rate the zoo's performance on 27 attributes using a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (extremely poor) to 7 (extremely good). The attributes were chosen based on previous research (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1994; and Baker and Crompton, 2002) and modified based on discussions with zoo management.

To assess respondents' perceptions of the zoo's image, the Store Image Scale (SIS) developed by Manolis, Keep, Joyce, and Lambert (1994) was used. The SIS is

composed of 10 different items covering three dimensions: (a) general store attributes; (b) appearance, and (c) service. The items were measured with a 7-point semantic differential scale.

RESUTS AND DISCUSSION

In consultation with Zoo management, 27 key features of the Zoo were chosen to be evaluated by respondents. Respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7 (where 1 = extremely poor and 7 = extremely good) the Zoo's performance on these items. If the respondents did not experience these items, they marked "did not experience". All items received above average ratings, suggesting the Zoo performed well on all these key features. Average ratings for all features were between 5.41 for "Number of drinking fountains" and 6.47 for "Landscaping and gardens" (Table 1.)

Table 1. Zoo Performance on Specific Features

Feature	Mean	Standard Deviation
Map of Zoo Layout	6.4	0.817
Signs to Help Visitors get Around the Zoo	6.4	0.880
Transportation Inside the Park	5.9	1.183
Schedule of Daily Programs and Events	5.8	1.188
Places to Sit and Rest	6.2	1.010
Number of Drinking Fountains	5.7	1.291
Availability of Shaded Walkways	6.4	0.908
Accessibility for those with Special Needs	6.4	0.964
Quality of Restaurants/Cafe Court	5.8	1.182
Cleanliness of Restaurants/Cafe Court	6.0	1.028
Restroom Availability	5.9	1.137
Restroom Cleanliness	5.9	1.207
Responsiveness of Staff to Helping Visitors	6.2	1.057
Appearance of Staff	6.2	1.002
Education Stations (Open April-October)	6.2	1.007
Dora the Explorer Theatre Experience	6.1	1.194
Carousel	6.3	0.993
Health and Well-being of Animals	6.4	0.825
Variety of Animals	6.3	0.945
Ability to View Animals in Exhibits	5.9	1.188
Chance to See Rare and Endangered Animals	6.1	1.056
Exhibit Signs Describing Animals at the Zoo	6.4	0.852

Giraffe Feeding Station	6.1	1.272
Educational and Conservation Messages	6.3	0.915
Children's Playground	6.4	0.934
Public Art	6.2	1.014
Landscaping and Gardens	6.5	0.853

Standard deviations for visitors' ratings of park features ranged from 0.82 for "Map of the Zoo Layout" to 1.29 for "Number of Drinking Fountains" (Table 1). A lower standard deviation score indicates less variation in respondents' ratings. Thus, respondents consistently rated "Map of the Zoo Layout" more similarly, and respondents had the most variation in response for "Number of drinking fountains". Upon further analysis, this variation appears to be due to seasonal differences.

After respondents rated the Zoo's performance on all 27 items, they were asked to refer back to the list of items and choose the three features they felt were most important. Three features, "Health and Well-Being of the Animals" (16.9%), "Map of the Zoo Layout" (13.7%), and "Variety of Animals" (11.2%) accounted for 41.8% of all responses (Table 2). By asking respondents to rate the importance of the features, a greater insight into the data can be obtained. This table below may help zoo management determine where to best place limited marketing and maintenance dollars in an effort to achieve maximum impact.

Table 2. Respondents' Ranking of Most Important Zoo Features

Feature	Frequency	Percent
Health and Well-being of Animals	**1,903**	**16.9%**
Variety of Animals	**1,541**	**13.7%**
Ability to View Animals in Exhibits	**1,266**	**11.2%**
Map of Zoo Layout	987	8.8%
Places to Sit and Rest	502	4.5%
Restroom Cleanliness	466	4.1%
Chance to See Rare and Endangered Animals	453	4.0%
Responsiveness of Staff to Helping Visitors	422	3.7%
Signs to Help Visitors get Around the Zoo	419	3.7%
Restroom Availability	418	3.7%
Availability of Shaded Walkways	367	3.3%
Transportation Inside the Park	241	2.1%
Giraffe Feeding Station	232	2.1%
Number of Drinking Fountains	221	2.0%
Schedule of Daily Programs and Events	212	1.9%
Landscaping and Gardens	198	1.8%
Quality of Restaurants/Cafe Court	196	1.7%
Educational and Conservation Messages	213	1.7%

Children's Playground	194	1.7%
Cleanliness of Restaurants/Cafe Court	192	1.7%
Exhibit Signs Describing Animals at the Zoo	141	1.3%
Accessibility for those with Special Needs	134	1.2%
Education Stations (Open April-October)	104	0.9%
Appearance of Staff	69	0.6%
Public Art	60	0.5%
Dora the Explorer Theatre Experience	59	0.5%
Carousel	59	0.5%
Total	11,269	100%

A factor analysis was performed on the 10 image items to determine whether the data from this study adhered to the 3-factor solution proposed by Manolis, Keep, Joyce, and Lambert (1994). Results of the factor analysis suggested a single factor solution (eigenvalues greater than 1.0), with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.93. Given the results of the factor analysis, a computed variable was created for overall image. Thus, all items were used and a mean score and standard deviation were created. The mean score for overall image was relatively high (M = 64.0, out of a possible high score of 70.0), with a standard deviation of 6.66. The mean scores for each of the individual items within the total image scale are presented in Table 3. Overall, respondents had a very positive image of the zoo. The highest rating was given for the statement "Overall, I have a good/bad impression" (6.57), and the lowest rating was given for the statement "The zoo is high/low class" (6.24).

Table 3. Summary of Total Image Scale and Individual Items

Statement		Mean	Standard Deviation
The zoo has a good/bad . . . selection of exhibits		6.35	0.840
The zoo has a good/bad . . . reputation		6.56	0.803
Overall, I have a good/bad . . . impression		6.57	0.742
The zoo is high/low . . . class		6.24	0.907
The zoo is . . . in trouble/doing well		6.29	0.930
The zoo's layout is . . . good/bad		6.33	0.947
The zoo has a good/bad . . . appearance		6.52	0.738
The zoo is in good/bad . . . physical condition		6.40	0.843
The zoo offers good/bad . . . service		6.37	0.856
The zoo's staff made a good/bad . . . impression		6.40	0.898
Total Image Scale	Alpha = 0.93	64.0	6.66

To determine the key service quality (or performance) attributes that contributed to on-site image, a multiple regression analysis was utilized. Standardized Beta coefficients were analyzed. The regression results are presented in Table 4. Only significant standardized Beta coefficients are reported in the table. High Beta scores for each individual regression estimate show the relative importance of the variables in the model in explaining the effect of the performance attributes on image. The higher the Beta scores, the higher the importance of that variable in the model.

The results of the regression analysis indicate that 55.9% of the variance in on-site image ratings can be explained by the performance attributes. "Variety of animals" (β = 0.187) seemed to be the most important variable in explaining on-site image. The "Dora the Explorer theatre simulator" was negatively related to on-site image (β = 0.-186). Overall, 10 out of 27 performance items significantly influenced perceptions of on-site image. Of these 10 performance items, 3 items were directly related to the wildlife ("variety of animals" (β = 0.187), "chance to see rare and endangered animals" (β = 0.094), "health and well-being of animals" (β = 0.081)). Three of the 10 items were directly related to visitors' ability to navigate the zoo ("map of zoo layout" (β = 0.111), "schedule of daily programs" (β = 0.095), and "accessibility for those with special needs" (β = 0.064).

Table 4. Significant Results of Performance Attributes Stepwise Regression for Predicting On-Site Image

Performance Attribute	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Variety of Animals	0.187	5.354	0.000
Dora the Explorer Theatre	-0.186	-4.630	0.000
Map of Zoo Layout	0.111	3.591	0.000
Landscaping and Gardens	0.108	3.352	0.001
Schedule of Daily Programs	0.095	3.004	0.003
Chance to See Rare and Endangered Animals	0.094	2.492	0.013
Responsiveness of Staff to Helping Visitors	0.084	2.290	0.220
Health and Well-being of Animals	0.081	2.492	0.013
Education Stations	0.075	2.016	0.440
Accessibility for those with Special Needs	0.064	2.110	0.035
R^2 = .559			

The preliminary results of this study suggest a relationship exists between visitors' perceptions of service performance and on-site destination image. This suggests that destination management can help shape visitors' on-site perceptions of a destination's image by focusing attention on their performance on key service quality attributes. It is noteworthy that the performance item, "variety of animals" (β = 0.187),

was not only the variable most influential in explaining on-site image, but was also rated by visitors as one of the most important attributes of the zoo. While this study suggests a relationship does exist between service performance and destination image, future research should examine multiple ways in which to evaluate on-site destination image as well as service performance.

The results of this study suggest insight into visitors' on-site assessments of a destination's image as well as the relationship between visitors' perceptions of image and service performance. It is believed that a better understanding of these constructs will provide insights for managers to help improve their image and performance for visitors with the hope that these improvements will lead to increased visitation and loyalty.

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DOES SHOPPING MATTER? A FOCUSED EXPERT ANALYSIS OF REVISED CHINESE TARIFF POLICY GOVERNING OUTBOUND SHOPPING BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

It was originally thought that the newly revised tariff policy that was enacted in China would greatly reduce shopping-oriented tours, and impact on tourists' choices of purchasing and spending behavior. The findings of this study indicate that this is not necessarily the case. What was found was that this group of Chinese outbound tourists considered shopping to be an integral part of their travel activities. They shopped for themselves, family, relatives, friends and co-workers; sought to experience mutually rewarding occasions; desired to build and maintain harmonious relationships; and gain social status ("mianzi"); sought to improve enjoyment of travel experiences; and they expressed strong interests in destination cultural activities including engaging in cultural events and cultural shopping.

KEYWORDS: Chinese tariff policy, mianzi, outbound tourism, shopping

INTRODUCTION

China's outbound tourism has been growing rapidly since late 1990s (Zhang, 2006), and it is continuing to achieve strong growth. According to The Annual Report of China Outbound Tourism Development 2012, released on April 11th the number of outbound traveling in 2011 was 70.25 million, an increase of 22 per cent. And the estimated number of outbound traveling in 2012 is 78.40 million.

"Even though the world's economic situation is unstable, both the number of Chinese people traveling abroad and consumption hit a record high." said Zhang Xinhong, deputy director of the Tourism Promotion and International Contact Department of the National Tourism Administration. Tourists' shopping has been a driving force for China outbound travel. According to survey data by CTA, about one third of Chinese outbound tourists believe that shopping is the item on which they spend

money most. According to data from the World Luxury Association, more than 75 percent of Chinese outbound tourists spend money repeatedly more than three times during their journeys. Zhang Wei, marketing manager of the North China region of the Global Blue, said, "In 2011, Chinese outbound tourists' per capita expenditure on shopping had reached 813 euros, and the average shopping budget of the Chinese outbound tourists to Europe was as high as 10,000 euros. According to our statistics, Chinese tourists have turned into the largest shopping group in the world, followed by Japan and Russia." (China Youth Daily, 2012).

Tourist shopping has been an integrate part of the travel itinerary (CTA, 2012). However, on March 28, 2012, China's General Administration of Customs (GAC) issued the newly-revised "Table of Categorization for the Imported Articles of the PRC" ("Table of Categorization"), which was exercised from April 15, 2012. (China Briefing, 2012). The country adjusted the taxable prices of personal imports, lowering duties on commonly used items but raising tariffs on luxuries. Each incoming passenger will be able to enjoy a tariff-exemption of personal articles worth less than RMB5, 000 ($794). (Xinhuanet, 2012). Will this revised tariff policy impact Chinese outbound tourists' travel and shopping? What are their concerns about overseas travel and shopping? How will the respondents' overseas travel expectations and shopping needs be meet and satisfied? This paper is an exploration of the aforementioned questions

LITERATURE REVIEW

China has witnessed sustained and rapid development of outbound tourism in recent years (Dai, 2011), and there are a variety of studies analyzed the framework of China outbound tourism, government support, market analysis, and future trends (Wolfgang, 2006; Zhang, 2006; Lim & Wang, 2008; Li. et al, 2010; Dai, 2011). The newly released Annual Report of China Tourism Development 2012 provided timely statistic data and analysis, with detailed analysis of the market and tourists consumption behavior. Understanding of Chinese tourists has become a recent focal point. Sparks & Pan (2009) discussed Chinese outbound tourists' attitudes, constraints and use of information sources. Ma (2009) discussed motivation for Chinese outbound tourist. Lee, S. et al (2011) explored Chinese outbound tourists' satisfaction and tourist loyalty. Chang (2011) examined attributes that may affect Chinese tourists' evaluation of their travel dining experiences. Li et al (2011) explored Chinese tourists' expectations of overseas travel including expectations of overseas shopping. Shopping has been identified as an integrate part of travel activities of Chinese outbound tourists. Choi (2008) discussed shopping behaviors of individual tourists from the Chinese Mainland to Hong Kong. Xu (2012) examined shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States. Tourists shopping behavior is shaped by culture, Chiang et al (2011) investigated the most relevant Chinese cultural values that may affect Chinese tourists' perceptions. Current studies on understanding of Chinese outbound tourist emphasized their travel behavior including shopping behavior, but very few studies shed lights on the relevance of the country's tariff policy and tourists overseas shopping.

This study intends to explore possible impacts of the newly-revised China tariff policy on Chinese outbound tourists' travel and shopping. More specifically, the

objectives of this research are to (a) explore possible impacts of the revised tariff policy on Chinese outbound tourists' travel decision; (b) explore possible impacts of the revised tariff policy on shopping for Chinese outbound tourists; (c) examine the reasons behind Chinese outbound tourists' shopping and their preferences for shopping; and (d) identify Chinese outbound tourists' concerns about travel activities including shopping.

Sample and Research Design

The researcher deployed a purposive and stratified sampling process of government officials, business executives, and university professionals from a metropolitan city in north China.

The purposive sample of experts was identified through existing relations with faculty members from the hospitality degree program which is housed within the Tianjin University of Commerce in Tianjin, China. These faculty members identified government officials which were noted experts in tariff controls. The group of outbound tourists were selected because of their previous travel patterns, propensity to engage in shopping behavior, and knowledge of Chinese tariff policy.

Focused interviews were held with a total of twenty three content experts using a script of questions concerning travel behavior, shopping propensity, and tariff impact expectations based on previous studies reported by Li, Xiang et al (2010), YueyingXu and McGehee, Nancy (2011), and Qian, Wang, Razzaque, Mohammed, and Keng, Kau (2007). A total of twenty three interviews were conducted for a completion rate of 100 percent, and nineteen of the interviews were recorded with interviewees' consent. In advance of the interviews the questionnaire was pilot tested to evaluate content validity of the travel intentions, shopping propensity, and tariff knowledge variables. The respondents who completed the interview understood all the questions and indicated the interview questions were appropriate for the categories being measured. All the respondents have received college degree or higher degrees, have an annual income of RMB 80,000 and above, all are married and all have outbound travel experiences.

Discussion of Findings

All of the twenty-three interviewees responded that whenever possible, they would travel abroad. However, the interviews indicate that shopping-oriented destinations and shopping-oriented tours are off the list of tour preferences. The interviewees indicated that most of the destinations they chose to visit before and after the newly revised tariff policy were the same, and they planned on visiting other countries such as South Africa, Maldives and Bali. The purpose of visits before and after the new tariff policy are very much the same; mainly for leisure and holiday. It is interesting to note that before the tariff was put in place these travelers were attracted by leisure and shopping reasons while after the revised tariff policy was put in place, shopping no longer remained an attractor. This latter finding is a little conflicting because

it also determined that even though future shopping behavior may be curtailed, by-and-large this group thought that paying tariff penalties were worth the effort.

All of the twenty-three interviews indicated that they will still go shopping during overseas visits. Branded products, most of them are in the category of luxury goods, were on their shopping list. Overall it was found that shopping for luxury goods was of major import because it implied something different, was memorable, or was a shared experience.

The comparison shows that shopping expense will be reduced as a reflection of the newly exercised tariff policy. However, even though reduced in quantity purchased, the net purchasing volume was still much higher than the tariff-exemption of RMB 5,000. In the interviews, 14 out of 23 respondents mentioned their concern of tariff and calculation intention. However, the respondents also emphasized that "If I see something I really like, I will waive the tariff calculation and still purchase the item….even if I have to pay a tariff. The predominant logic for this type of purchasing behavior is captured by the statement: "As the chances of visiting an overseas site may occur once in a life time, why should I miss the opportunity to get this specialty item?"

Among the twenty-three interviewees, eight of them don't like shopping while at home, but they all engaged in shopping during their outbound travels. Universally they asserted that they would still shop during future international travels.

The comparison of shopping before and after the revised tariff policy indicates that reasons for shopping are very similar. Finding something different and attaching special meaning to the travel experience are highly preferred. Other factors which made shopping attractive to these outbound tourists included product quality, brand names, and corresponding price-value of these luxury items. In addition, curiosity about local economy, trade and business, local people and lifestyle is push factors. Therefore, an overarching finding is that the act of shopping had strong social and psychological effects related to relationship building and maintaining those relationship bonds.

In alignment with this need for social bonding, it was frequently cited that participating in local cultural events, interacting with local people, and spending quality time at beaches and resorts for relaxation were primary attractors. Shopping was re-emphasized as a required activity for overseas traveling. Furthermore, respondents expected tour itinerary components be adjusted to be more flexible such as the pace of traveling, arrangement of additional activities to engage tourists and in visitation of local cultural events. It should be noted, however, that Chinese tourists preferred shopping in local activities and events on their own accord.

Conclusions and Implications

The newly revised tariff policy will greatly reduce shopping-oriented tours, and impact on tourists' choices of purchasing and spending behavior. However, for Chinese outbound tourists, shopping is an integral part of travel activities. They shopping for

themselves, family, relatives, friends and co-workers, to create happy occasions, to build and maintain harmonious relationships, to gain social status "mianzi", and to prolong and enlarge enjoyment of travel experiences. They also expressed strong interests in destination cultural activities including engaging in cultural events and cultural shopping.

Therefore, Chinese tourists receiving countries should "work towards the creation of a strong retail brand, which emphasizes all that is good about the shopping offer, and which has features that make that offer different, innovative, interesting, mixed, local, and either traditional or modern"(Robinson, 2008). Efforts of destination marketing should be directed to provide more host-guest encounter opportunities for Chinese tourists experiencing and shopping local culture.

This study suggests travel agents respond to Chinese tourists' major concerns, by adjusting tour itinerary, keeping good pace of traveling and flexible arrangements for shopping.

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Poster Papers

For business or pleasure?: Effect of time horizon on travel decisions

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ABSTRACT

It is suggested that consumer decisions often vary with respect to varying time horizon; predicting outcomes that are expected in the near vs. distant future. It further suggests that consumers often regret and make inconsistent decisions when their plans vary in time horizon. The objective of this research is to investigate the impacts of time horizon on travel decisions. The theoretical basis for this research is grounded in Construal Level Theory, which argues that decision makers concentrate on different aspects of the events of varying time distance. Furthermore, this study investigated the impact of time distance on different types of travel decisions: hedonic and utilitarian.

KEYWORDS: Construal level theory; Time; Travel decision; Value

INTRODUCTION

When planning a vacation trip, a potential tourist has hundreds of choices of where to go, how long to stay, what to do, and more. The trip planning is essential in order to reduce uncertainty and increase tourist satisfaction through expectation, foreseeable pleasure and anticipation (Zalatan, 1996). Effective planning requires predicting outcomes in advance, and temporal distance[50] (measures the distance from today to when the decision is to actually occur) from future outcomes may affect predictions about those outcomes (Nussbaum, Liberman & Trope, 2006).

Travel decision-making research has made considerable progress over the decades. A number of models and approaches have advanced our knowledge of travel decisions, including destination choice models, choice sets, and attitude theory. However, there is very little research on whether and how temporal distance affects individual travel decisions. It is suggested that consumer decisions often vary with respect to varying time horizon; predicting outcomes that are expected in the near vs. distant future.

[50] Interchangibly used with "time horizon".

It further suggests that consumers often regret and make inconsistent decisions when their plans vary in time horizon. Therefore, the objective of this research is to fill this research gap by investigating the impacts of time horizon on travel decisions. The theoretical basis for this research is grounded in Construal Level Theory, which argues that decision makers concentrate on different aspects of the events of varying time distance (Trope, Liberman & Wakslak, 2007). Furthermore, this study investigated the impact of time distance on different types of travel decisions: hedonic and utilitarian.

Overall, the study results will help tourism researchers and practitioners understand the impacts of time horizon on different travel decisions (i.e. hedonic and utilitarian). As travel decisions may vary in time horizon, findings could potentially be preventative in nature for any non-optimal choice. Also, the study carries a significant theoretical contribution to tourism literature, as this paper made the first attempt to explore the impact of time horizon on hedonic/utilitarian travel decisions.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Travel Decisions

As the nature of tourism requires a significant amount of time and financial resources from a potential tourist, it is regarded as a product or service that necessitates a high involvement in the decision-making process. According to Laws (1995), a tourist may experience a high degree of involvement in choosing his/her destination due to the following four aspects of holidays: 1) holidays are expensive, 2) holidays are complex in both to purchase and experience, 3) there is a risk that the destination will not prove satisfying, and 4) the destination reflects the holidaymaker's personality. Due to this distinct nature, tourists are highly involved when they make holiday decisions and go through the complex decision-making process.

In tourism literature, a considerable number of researchers studied the decision-making process of the individual tourist, especially focusing on the destination choice (Crompton, 1979, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Um & Crompton, 1990, 1992; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Sherrel, 1977). Behavioral and choice-set approaches have been widely adopted by tourism scholars to explain the decision-making process used to purchase tourism services. Choice-set models suggest that decisions are sequential in nature, comprising sets. That is, a potential tourist is likely to generate a series of choice-sets and to keep eliminating alternatives in a funneling process, over time, until a final destination is selected. Previous research has been largely concerned with the tourist decision-making process but not with temporal effects (time horizon) on travel decisions.

Construal Level Theory

In order to evaluate the impact of time horizon on travel decisions, this study adopted the Construal Level Theory (Trope & Liberman, 2003; Trope et al., 2007). The theory predicts how decision-making is likely to evolve with respect to near and distant events. Specifically, for near future decisions, individuals are expected to rely on concrete, low level construals (details pertaining to "how"). Conversely, distant future decisions are dominated by more abstract and high level construals (details pertaining to

"why"). A high level construal represents actions in terms of one's primary goals, whereas a low level construal depicts the secondary/incidental features of these goals (Higgins & Trope, 1990).

When contemplating about near future decisions, individuals tend to focus on the rich details, whereas they concentrate on more abstract representations (high level) for a distant future decision, discarding all the secondary details. Similarly, when decisions/events are in the distant future (e.g., "two months from now" vs. "today"), decision makers are likely to represent them in terms of their superordinate features (Liberman, Sagristano & Trope, 2002).

In corollary, for decisions of varying time horizon, there are various manifestations of high level vs. low level construals (Trope et al., 2007) such as risk vs. reward, pros vs. cons, desirability vs. feasibility, and primary vs. secondary goals. For instance, for near future decisions, low level construals like cost and feasibility (subordinate features), as opposed to pleasure and desirability (superordinate features), become more salient. As for distant future decisions, high level construals (e.g. desirability), which are superordinate to low level construals (e.g. feasibility), become more salient.

It is expected to observe similar results with regards to the effects of time horizon on travel decisions of varying time horizons. For instance, a potential tourist may have to choose between two near future options, one of which is highly desirable but very costly (less feasible), or one that is relatively less costly (more feasible) but that is less desirable. Likewise, this could pertain to a distant future travel decision. Thus, the preceding discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

H1: For the travel in the near future, a potential tourist is expected to concentrate on the low level construals whereas for the travel in the distant future, high level construals are expected to be dominant.

Decision Types: Hedonic and Utilitarian Value

Consumers are motivated by both hedonic and utilitarian outcomes (Voss, Spangenberg & Grohmann, 2003). Psychology research suggests that terminally motivated activities, such as hedonic choices, have an internal perceived locus of causality because they are entertained for their inherent satisfaction (Babin, Darden & Griffin, 1994; Bartra & Ahtola, 1991). On the contrary, instrumentally motivated activities, such as utilitarian choices, shift the locus of causality from internal to external because the activity is experienced not as a reward in itself but as a means to an end (Ryan, Koestner, & Deci, 1991). In this regard, there have been various applications of the hedonic/utilitarian concept in tourism literature such as festival attendees' perception about events (Gursoy, Spangenberg &, 2005), motivation behind browsing in flight duty-free catalogues (Doong, Wang & Law, 2012), customer satisfaction in the fast-casual restaurant industry (Ryu, Han & Jang, 2010).

Similarly, nature of travel decision-making may consist of both hedonic and utilitarian choices. As a vacation trip is described as an escape from monotonous everyday routine and the chance to feed the senses on new sights, sounds, and experiences (Zuckerman, 1979), it is considered to be a hedonic consumption decision (Hirschman, 1984). On the other hand, travel decisions can also take place for utilitarian reasons such as attending a business meeting/conference or pursuing a summer internship.

However, to the authors' knowledge, existing literature has yet to investigate the relationship between time horizon and hedonic/utilitarian travel arrangements. It is not clear as to whether a potential tourist's tendency to focus on proposed aspects (i.e. desirable for distant future and feasible for near future) is likely to change in the presence of different travel arrangement types. In order explore and understand this association, the following research question is proposed:

RQ1: How does time horizon influence different decision types for travel arrangements (hedonic vs. utilitarian)?

METHODOLOGY

A total of 186 undergraduate students completed the survey as a partial requirement of a hospitality management class. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two time horizon conditions (right now vs. 6 months) and responded to two types of travel arrangement: hedonic (leisure travel) vs. utilitarian (summer internship). The participants were emailed a respective link to an online questionnaire containing each manipulated scenario. The dependent variable was binary, indicating their travel decision. In addition, the survey collected further variables that measured: their focus (desirable or feasible aspects), importance of their focus in their final decision, and personality.

The analysis of variance and percentage analysis were conducted on the collected data, followed by a series of mediation analyses.

PRELIMINARY RESULTS

In line with the existing research, results show that decision time horizon has a significant impact on travel decisions. In particular, it was evident that CLT (Construal Level Theory) holds for hedonic travel arrangements; percentage of consumer who preferred the desirable decision increased from 52% to 64% when time horizon shifted to distant future. Moreover, for hedonic travel arrangements associated with the near future, participants focused more on feasibility aspects (e.g., price). On the other hand, for the travel in the distant future, they focused more on desirability aspects associated with the decision. Furthermore, they also rated desirable aspects as significantly more important for distant future decisions compared to near future decisions (F=7.069; p=0.009).

On the contrary, for utilitarian tasks, participants did not display the same pattern of behavior. Regardless of time horizon, a steady focus on feasible aspects was apparent. This indicates that, time horizon fails to create a separating equilibrium for utilitarian trav el arrangement decisions.

These preliminary results draw boundary conditions for adopting CLT to examine hedonic travel arrangements.

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A STUDY ON ZOO VISITORS AND THE IMPACT OF A ZOO LOCATION ON THE STRUCTURE OF VISITORS

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ABSTRACT

The objective of the paper is to find out the purpose of visits and the ratio of single-day visitors to multiple-day tourists in zoos. Profiles of visitors to the following Czech zoos have been completed: Brno, Hluboká nad Vltavou, Jihlava, Plzeň, Praha (Prague), Olomouc, Dvůr Králové nad Labem. The paper focuses on the results of comparative research.

KEY WORDS: Attractiveness of zoos; Comparative research; Profile of zoo visitors; Zoo.

INTRODUCTION

Zoological parks are considered to be the most important source of contact between people and animals in modern society. The primary motivation of zoo visitors includes educational, recreational, intrinsic, and altruistic reasons *(Morgan)*. Historically zoos have developed over a period of 100–200 years, starting as menageries with exotic animals on display. In the Czech Republic the first zoo was established in 1919 in Liberec which made it not only the oldest zoo in the country but also in Central Europe. Next was the Plzeň zoo – established in 1926 followed with the Prague zoo (1931). Other zoos in the Czech Republic were established only after the Second World War.

Today responsible zoos have a holistic view of their work. They are committed to environmental education and thus have a mandate to inform the public about biodiversity and conservation *(Stoinski)*. They also aim to contribute to species and habitat conservation on different levels. Zoos inspire people of all ages to engage with wild animals and their places.

Zoos and aquariums are in a very special position in contrast to other conservation organisations. Only zoos keep populations of endangered animals and have developed experience and knowledge as to how to manage these stocks in a demographically and genetically sustainable way. Zoos keep backup populations of these animals and support reintroduction projects with their stocks (www.waza.org).

To support and consolidate such effort, there is an organization unifying world zoos and aquariums called World Association of Zoos and Aquariums (WAZA). The worldwide membership of WAZA includes more than 300 zoos and aquariums from over 50 countries, associations, affiliate organisations and a small but growing number of

corporate partners. All major Czech zoos are members to this association. WAZA promotes cooperation between zoological gardens and aquariums with regard to the conservation, management and breeding of animals in human care and encourages the highest standards of animal welfare and husbandry (www.waza.org).

Like museums, zoos are places where informal learning can occur. There are over 115 million visits to American zoos every year – more than the yearly attendance at all major professional sporting events combined. The over-whelming majority of these visits are by causal visitors who come in family groups *(Rosenfeld)*. The situation in the Czech Republic is similar - zoos are the most frequently visited places. In 2010 the Prague zoo ranked first in terms of the number of visitors (1.185 million) and overtook even the Prague Castle which was visited by 1.120 million people. The Plzeň zoo (461 thousand visitors) was the 8th most visited tourist destination in the country, the Dvůr Králové nad Labem zoo ranked 9th with 455 thousand people and the Zlín zoo (443 thousand) ranked 10th. The group of twenty most visited places in the Czech Republic includes also the zoos in Olomouc, Ostrava and Liberec. The Union of Czech and Slovak Zoological Parks (UCSZOO) reports that the total number of people to visit zoos in 2010 was 4,934,850, out of which there were 1,978,149 children. Popularity of zoos is demonstrated by the comparison of the zoo visitor rate to the total population: in the Czech Republic out of the population of 10.5 million approximately 5 million people visit a zoo, which is 48% of the total population, in the USA it is 115 million visitors out of the total population of 312.4 million, i.e. 38% people visit a zoo every year. Table 1 shows the number of visitors to all Czech and Slovak zoos during the past six years *(www.zoo.cz)*.

Table 1 Number of Visitors to all Czech and Slovak Zoos

Year	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Number of visitors	5 496 800	6 321 544	5 743 831	6 379 456	5 737 510	6 516 728

THE IMPORTANCE OF ZOOS IN TOURISM

Since visitors are integral components of zoological parks a research area devoted to understanding the people-zoo relationship has emerged recently. Several areas can be identified in the literature (audience analysis, circulation and orientation, exhibit evaluation, and interactions with animals), and these areas have revealed visitors' demographic and behavioural characteristics, people's behavioural responses to endogenous and exogenous factors, the impact of exhibit design, and visitors' movements around zoos (Davey). A number of studies have been published on the topic of zoo visitors and their behaviour. Findings resulting from such studies offer various implications for designing and running zoo exhibits. As an example let us quote a few of them:

The study by *S. Bitgood* and *D. Patterson* monitored visitor behaviour at selected exhibits in 13 zoos throughout the United States. Percentage of visitors who stopped at each exhibit and the duration of visitor viewing time were obtained at exhibits of various species. Visitor behaviour was found to correlate with both the characteristics of animals (animal activity, size of species, presence of infant) and the architectural characteristics

of the exhibits (presence of visually competing exhibits, proximity of visitor to animal, visibility of animals, physical features of the exhibit).

In the study by *M.P. Hoff and T.L. Maple* visitors at two zoos were observed as they approached the reptile exhibits at the respective institutions. Both age and sex differences were discovered among several variables designed to measure avoidance behaviour. At most ages, females more often refused to enter the exhibits than males. Females also spent less time within the exhibits than males. With respect to age differences, teen aged visitors refused to enter less often and spent more time in the exhibits than did individuals of other ages.

S.K Turley focused in his study on the influence children have on family group decision-making and behaviour. The presence of children is found to have a notable influence on the demand for free time activities. It seems the presence of children in a visiting group has a positive influence on the decision to visit a recreational setting when the setting is perceived to be child/family orientated. The implications of these findings are explored, with emphasis placed on the management challenges facing zoos as a result of demographic change and the expanding, traditionally latent visiting, senior's market *(Turley)*.

A study by *Andereck* segments a zoological park market by vacationers versus non-vacationers and in-state versus out-of-state visitors. As predicted by using the level of discourse theory, the segments differed little in demographic characteristics; however, several differences appeared in trip characteristics, motives, satisfaction, and factors affecting enjoyment. Results suggest marketing strategies to implement (*Andereck and Caldwell, 1994*)

Another study segmented the market in terms of seasonality and visitor motives since its authors assumed that it would provide the most useful information to those who market the zoo. Four motivation scales were determined: (1) going for recreation and novelty, (2) going for the general education of others, (3) going for specific educational reasons, (4) going for photography purposes. The major differences between spring and summer visitors were demographic. In terms of motive, the majority of visitors fell into the education/recreation segment *(Andereck et al.1991*). Criteria similar to the ones used in the quoted Andereck´s studies were applied by the author of this article in his research performed in the Czech Republic. Results are described further down in this paper.

S. Ryan and J. Saward analysed a questionnaire which comprised items relating to motives for visiting the zoo. As they concluded zoos represent an opportunity for family-based trips. However, while some opportunities exist for learning, on the whole visitors were not generally interested in acquiring detailed information about wildlife. These findings prompt a discussion about the extent to which zoos might be able to replace or supplement trips to natural habitats as a means of viewing animals, and conclude that for this to happen significant changes in zoo layout would be required.

S. Tomasa and his colleagues concluded in their study that the intention to revisit a leisure amenity or to recommend it to others is dependent upon the quality of service delivered and overall visitor satisfaction. There is also a relatively strong relationship between overall service performance and visitor satisfaction. And finally both overall visitor satisfaction and overall service quality are relatively highly correlated to future behavioural intentions. *(Tomasa et al.).*

At the end of this section, we would like to mention *Mullan and Marvin´s* provocative study where he concludes that zoos tell us as much about humans as they do about animals. Through observations based on visits to zoos and conversations with zoo owners and keepers all over the world, the authors of the quoted study suggest that, while animals may not need zoos, urban societies seem to.

RESEARCH ON SELECTED ZOOS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

The College of Polytechnics Jihlava (Czech Republic) agreed with the UCSZOO in 2010 to implement a research project where students of the college would prepare a profile of visitors to selected zoos. The objective of the project was to find out the purpose of the visit and the ratio of single-day visitors to multiple-day tourists in the zoo. Profiles of visitors to the following zoos have been completed: Brno, Hluboká nad Vltavou, Jihlava, Plzeň, Praha (Prague), Olomouc, Dvůr Králové nad Labem. Last year the college published results for the most frequently visited site - the Prague Zoo *(Vaníček 2011)*. This paper focuses on the results of a comparative research.

The structure of visitors to various zoos

Figure 1 makes it possible to compare the structure of visitors to individual zoological parks. We can see that the share of local people visiting the specific zoo is influenced by the size of the town where the zoo is located. The highest proportion of local visitors is in Prague and Brno, the smallest in Dvůr Králové and Hluboká nad Vltavou. On the other hand, one day visitors most frequently visit zoos in the latter destinations. The relationship between the town population and the share of local visitors is even better apparent from Figure 2. The figure shows that in Jihlava the local zoo is more popular with local people than in other towns and on the other hand Prague citizens do not like their zoo so much. Figure 3 answers the question "Who did you come to the Zoo with?" In some cases the numbers in answers does not total at 100% since the rest were different answers, such as, "I came with a coach trip, alone, on business etc." It is apparent that zoos in Hluboká and in Dvůr Králové are most frequently visited by families with children. The smallest proportion of families was in the Brno zoo.

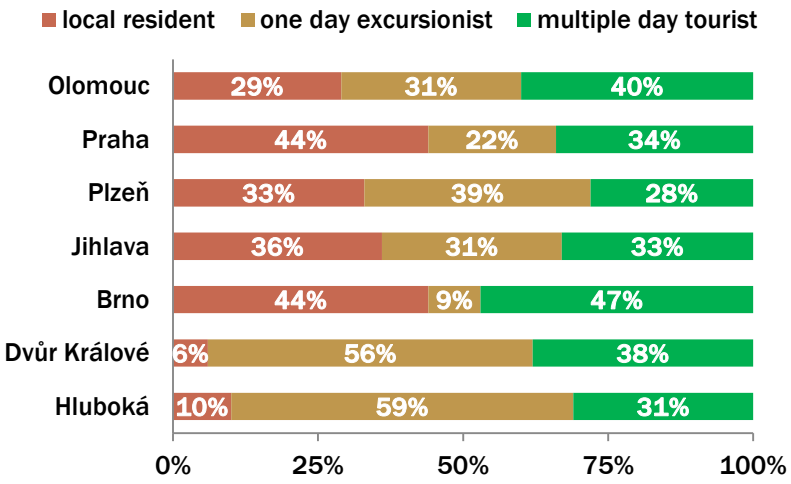

Fig. 1: The structure of visitors to individual zoos

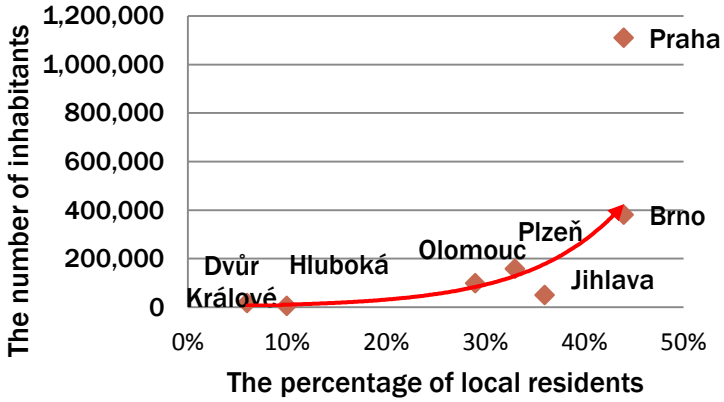

Fig. 2: The relation between the population and the proportion of local visitors to a zoo

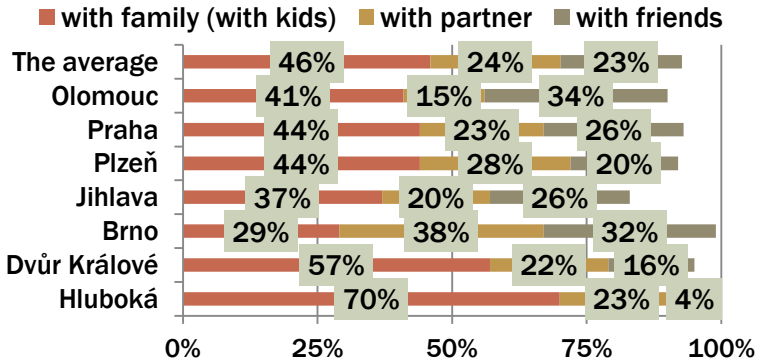

Fig. 3: Who did you come with?

The fact that children are very frequent visitors to zoos is also apparent from Table 2 showing numbers for 2010. In Hluboká children make 55% of visitors. A high percentage of children is also in Brno and Olomouc where the ratio of families with

children is rather low according to the survey but the zoos are probably more frequently visited by school groups which could not appear in the results since only adults were addressed in the survey.

Table 2: The number of children visiting zoos

	Hluboká	Dvůr Králové	Brno	Jihlava	Plzeň	Praha	Olomouc
Number of visitors	198 897	454 476	238 036	226 809	460 841	1 185 320	368 543
Out of that children	108 756	170 486	114 714	95 780	221 204	323 662	193 123
Share of children	55%	38%	48%	42%	48%	27%	52%

We also tried to find out how popular zoos were in general with the addressed respondents, and therefore, we asked "Do you also visit zoos in other towns?" Points were assigned to individual answers (see Table 3):

Table 3: Points assigned to answers regarding the interest in visiting zoos

5 points	3 points	2 points	1 point
Yes, whenever I have time	Only sometimes during a holiday or trip	Very rarely	I only visit this zoo

The interest in visiting other zoos is presented in Figure 4. The figure makes it apparent that the most active lovers of zoos were found in Dvůr Králové and Jihlava.

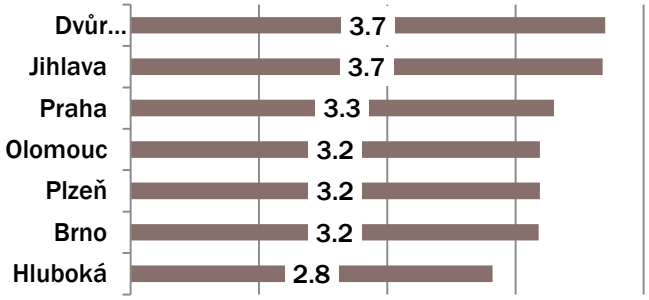

Fig. 4: The interest in visiting other zoos (average number of points)

The number of people for whom a visit to a zoo is the only purpose of their trip differs in various places (Figure 5). It shows that the highest relative proportion of zoo visitors who only come to visit the zoo is in Dvůr Králové, Olomouc and Jihlava. Since the total annual visitor rate in individual zoos differs, the same figure also shows the proportion of "only zoo" visitors out of all zoo visitors in the country. This comparison shows that the Prague zoo is visited by 39% of all visitors coming to the monitored zoos.

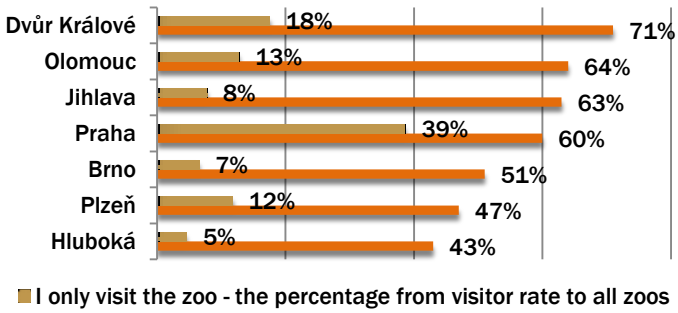

Fig. 5: The percentage of people for whom a visit to the zoo is the only purpose of their trip

We get a different order if we compare the average number of repeated visits to the same zoo (Figure 6). People most frequently return to Hluboká, Plzeň and Jihlava. The Brno zoo is least frequently visited repeatedly.

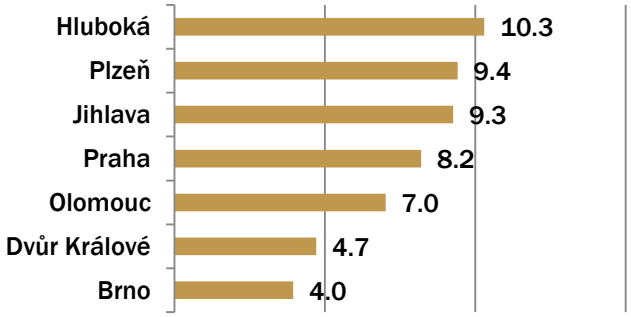

Fig. 6: An average frequency of repeated visits to the same zoo

Quality assessment and visitor satisfaction

The survey included quality assessment and visitor satisfaction assessment in all zoos. Respondents evaluated the quality of the provided services and also identified what they liked and disliked. Table 4 shows the assessment of quality of the provided services in various zoos. Respondents assessed individual services by assigning marks 1 (very satisfied) through 5 (absolutely dissatisfied).

Table 4: Assessment of quality of provided services in individual zoos

Provided service	Hluboká	Dvůr Králové	Brno	Jihlava
Comprehensibility of information for visitors (signs etc.)	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.5
Attitude and kindness of the staff in the ticket office	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.5
Range of products in shops inside and in front of the zoo	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.8
Quality of information for visitors	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.8
Admission fee	1.5	3.3	2.3	1.8
Comprehensibility of the exposition for children	1.3	1.8	1.6	1.7
Relax zones and children´s playgrounds	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3
General impression from the zoo	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.4
General satisfaction with the zoo	1.3	1.7	1.8	1.7
Average	1.4	1.9	1.7	1.6
Provided service	Plzeň	Praha	Olomouc	Average

Comprehensibility of information for visitors (signs etc.)	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.6
Attitude and kindness of the staff in the ticket office	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.5
Range of products in shops inside and in front of the zoo	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.7
Quality of information for visitors	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6
Admission fee	2.5	2.5	1.5	2.2
Comprehensibility of the exposition for children	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.6
Relax zones and children's playgrounds	1.8	1.4	1.2	1.4
General impression from the zoo	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.5
General satisfaction with the zoo	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.6
Average	1.7	1.6	1.3	1.6

Numbers in red highlight the lowest value in the line and the green ones point out the highest value

The zoos were arranged according to the number of minimum and maximum values showing their quality (see Table 5). The Olomouc zoo was best evaluated in terms of services as well as general impression and satisfaction of visitors. Dvůr Králové featured the worst results.

Table 5: Order of zoos according to the quality of provided services

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Olomouc	Hluboká	Praha	Jihlava	Plzeň	Brno	Dvůr Králové

Explanation is hidden in the structure of answers to open questions: "What did you like best?" when the smallest number of answers "all" or "animals" (generally or a certain species) appeared in the Dvůr Králové zoo. While in most zoos, the majority of people answered the question "What did you dislike in the zoo?" "I do not know" or "I cannot remember" in Dvůr Králové many people complained about the "safari by car" or too high admission fee. In Jihlava people criticized insufficient number of snack bars and missing or poor quality toilets in the zoo (Figures 7 and 8).

If we compare the quality of services and the admission fee, the greatest disproportion is in Dvůr Králové again (ratio 0.52) followed with Prague (0.58). The best relation between the price and quality was in Hluboká (0.92) and Jihlava (0.86).

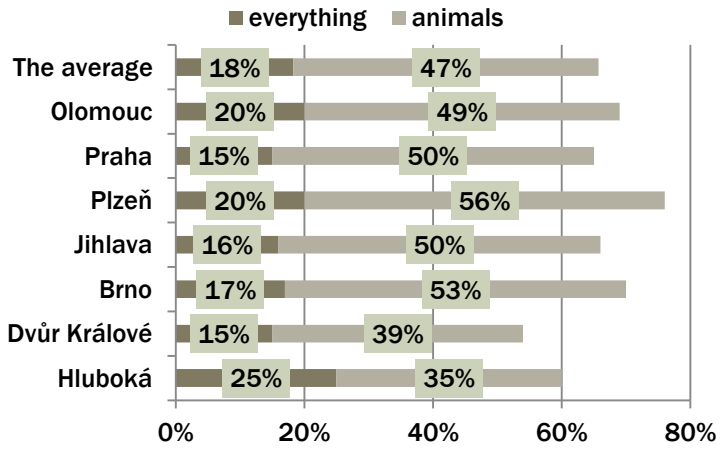

Fig. 7: What did you like? – The most frequent answers

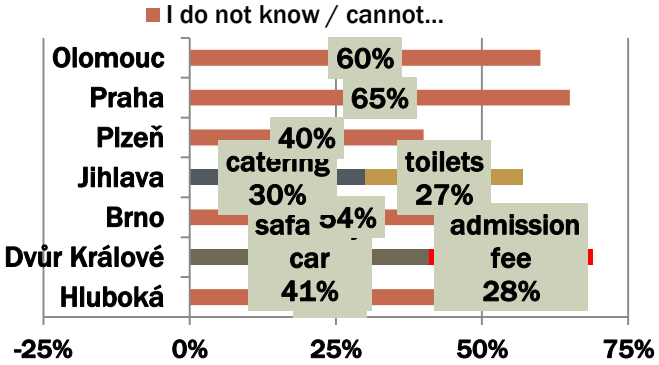

Fig.8: What did you dislike? – Most frequent answers

Determination of zoo attractiveness

The questioning took place on the premises of each respective zoo or in front of its main gate and was performed on various days of the week and in various months in order to obtain a statistically valid set of data. In every zoo 200 randomly selected visitors were addressed. We succeeded in gathering a set of respondents which corresponded with the average population composition. As far as socio-demographic data is concerned, the distance of respondent's permanent residence from the zoo was the most interesting piece of information.

We have applied the formula used for calculation of a castle or chateau attractiveness as published in the past, and we analogically calculated the attractiveness of a zoo as follows:

$$ATC = d * n * f / 1000 \text{ (km*person*frequency)}$$

ATC = attractiveness of a tourist destination
d = average distance of the respondents permanent residence from the tourist destination
n = average number of visitors per day
f = average frequency of visits to a zoo. The number shows how frequently people return to this site.

The values of individual parameters for calculation of attractiveness of a zoo including the calculation of ATC are presented in Table 6

Table 6: Calculation of attractiveness of individual zoos

	Hluboká	Dvůr Králové	Brno	Jihlava	Plzeň	Praha	Olomouc
d- distance of permanent residence in km	73	170	89	108	96	90	93
n- number of visitors per day	545	1245	652	621	1263	3247	1010
f- average frequency of visits	10,3	4,7	4	9,3	9,4	8,2	7
ATC	400	990	230	620	1130	2390	650

The calculation of attractiveness shows that people are willing to make a longest journey from their home to visit the Dvůr Králové and Jihlava zoos. The average number

of visitors per day differs significantly in various zoos. The comparison of attractiveness of individual zoos is apparent from figure 9. For comparison we can show the attractiveness of some castles or chateaux *(Vaníček 2010)*: Hluboká 1430, Špilberk 770, Pernštejn 760, Konopiště 720 a Telč 250. It is apparent that the attractiveness of zoos is much higher than of castles and chateaux. There are a much higher number of repeat visits to zoos than to castles and chateaux. People mostly come to castles and chateaux to learn something; to zoos they come not only for educational purposes but also to relax and entertain themselves.

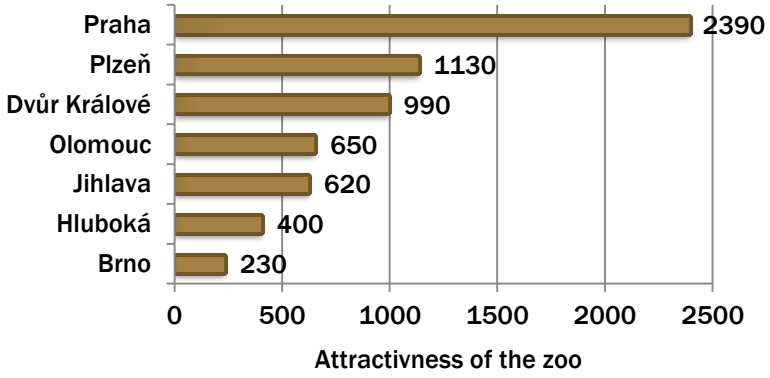

Fig. 9: Comparison of attractiveness of individual zoos

CONCLUSIONS

- For most people zoos are important tourist destinations and they are gradually more important.
- Such tourist destinations are very important for families with children.
- The primary motivation of zoo visitors: educational, recreational, intrinsic, and altruistic reasons. The four motivation scales: (1) going for recreation and novelty, (2) going for the general education of others, (3) going for specific educational reasons, (4) going for photography purposes ((*Andereck et al.1991*).
- Unlike in other tourist destinations which rank in cultural tourism visitors are willing to visit zoos repeatedly.
- Local people are in minority in the group of zoo visitors and they make a more significant portion in large towns only. It means that a zoo is an important tourist sight.
- A significant portion of visitors are people for whom the visit to the zoo is the only purpose of their trip.
- The assessment of quality on the 1 – 5 scale is very high in comparison with other tourist destinations. The average exceeded 2 only in relation to the price; in Dvůr Králové nad Labem the assessment rate regarding the admission fee was 3.3. In other criteria the values ranked between 1 and 2.
- Visitors to most zoos were generally very satisfied only in the Dvůr Králové zoo they disliked the possibility to visit the zoo by car (safari by car) and they found the admission fee too high. In the Jihlava zoo they criticized the quality of snack bars in the zoo and lacking or poor quality toilets.

- In all surveyed zoos the attractiveness of tourist destination was calculated by means of the same formula as applied for castles and chateaux in the past and as expected the attractiveness of zoos is significantly higher than the attractiveness of castles and chateaux.

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CROSS-CULTURAL IDENTITY IN ART AND ARCHAEOLOGY: A CASE STUDY OF ANCIENT EGYPT

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ABSTRACT

Cross-Cultural relations affected art and archaeology in many parts of the Ancient World. The Late Bronze Age corresponds with the sharing of motifs and the extended use of the International Repertoire. A major concern of the paper is to investigate to what extent the foreign art and culture forms are accepted into the indigenous tradition of Ancient Egypt. A number of art motifs were transferred to Egypt from the Aegean and the Near East during the Bronze Age, which enriched the ancient Egyptian artistic iconography. The development and proficiency of a number of ancient crafts such as pottery, textile and glass as well as the introduction of several technological innovations such as the military chariot attest to an extensive program of cross-cultural interactions. The Minoan frescos of Tell el Dab'a and the Syrian Midol towers at the mortuary temple of Ramses III at Medinet Habu present principal examples of Ancient Egyptian architecture with cross-cultural identity. A number of foreign gods were introduced into the Egyptian religion and were associated with local cults. The cultural backgrounds of foreign immigrants living in Egypt such as Asiatics, Syrians and Minoans played a considerable role in enhancing the creation of a cross-cultural identity.

KEYWORDS**:** Ancient Egypt; Architecture; Art; Culture; Religion; Social context.

INTRODUCTION

The ancient Egyptian culture, for all its originality, could not be considered in isolation throughout its long history, but needed to be considered within an integrated mobile network of inter-cultural relations. The strategic geographic location of Egypt and the history of its prominent diplomatic and trade relations with its neighboring countries provided vast domains of cross-cultural interactions. This created a fruitful ground of experimentation and consolidation which resulted in the transfer of a number of motifs, the adoption and production of unusual designs and decorations in the fields of art and archaeology.

Cross-cultural identity of art motifs

The phenomenon of cultural motif transference is known throughout the Bronze Age, beginning with the extension of Mesopotamian motifs to north Syria and Egypt in the third millennium. The cosmetic palettes and the ivory carvings of proto-dynastic Egypt show early evidence of Mesopotamian influence represented in the motif of the panther with snake-neck and the griffon with crescent-shaped wings. The imitation of Cretan 'carpets' during the Middle Kingdom as well as the adoption of Aegean button-

seals led to the transfer and development of elaborate 'spiral' designs from the Aegean art to the Ancient Egyptian art.

The artistic traditions of the New Kingdom accept many of the poses from the repertoire of the Aegean Animal Style and at times even reproduce some of the Aegean verve and spirit seen in the originals. The speed of either predator in attack or prey in flight is rendered by the poses of the Flying Gallop Repertoire, the Flying Gallop, Flying Leap and Reverse Twist. The Flying Gallop illustrating the most lasting impression of speed presents a dominant migrating art motif from the Aegean to Egypt during the New Kingdom. The plight of the prey on being caught is expressed by the contorted Pose motif. The female sphinx and griffon in typical Cretan form are further motives transferred from the Aegean to the Egyptian repertoire during the New Kingdom. Weapons, textiles, cosmetic vessels and dogs' neck-bands presented together with other objects principal carriers of these motives. The Animal Attack theme itself gives a further motif of the 'Cat Catching Bird' to Egypt as evidenced by the hunting scene in the wall painting (Figure 1) from the 18th Dynasty tomb of *Nebamun* at Thebes. This is an example of the traditional 'fowling in the marshes' scene, a delightful variant of the hunt theme with Egyptian iconography. The Aegean cats have much in common with the Egyptian cat in *Nebamun*'s wall painting. This cat is not portrayed in the usual Egyptian manner of animals stalking their prey. It seems that the aggressiveness of the Mycenaean predators have provided a new model for the Egyptian artist. The Rocky Landscape and Marbling effects present further transferred motifs from the Aegean art. The use of these various landscape and background conventions is prevalent in the Agean, but sparse in Egypt. In the tomb of *Kenamun*, the hunt is depicted in a landscape which is not of the Egyptian formula but which resembles the freely treated Aegean scenes rendered by the Rocky Landscape and Marbling motifs. Animals shelter in 'burrows' formed by striations of colour and the whole scene is reminiscent of Minoan or Theban landscapes.

Figure 1. 'Cat Catching Bird' in Nebamun's wall painting.

The Aegean in addition inspires some attempts at depictions of the dolphin and the octopus. These marine motifs are originally Minoan creations which are employed into Mainland art where they are used until the end of the Mycenaean age. They become increasingly stylized, their usage being more as decorative patterns than organic forms, and in this usage they are often depicted without any suggestion of their marine habits. A unique vessel (Figure 2) found in a private tomb in the cemetery around *Amenemhet* I's pyramid at *Lisht* (Metropolitan Museum of Art 22195), probably dating back to the 13th dynasty, shows decorative motifs of dolphins incised and picked up in white. Fabric, shape, technology and decoration all place the vessel within the ceramic traditions of Syria/Palestine rather than Egypt. The outstanding decoration of the vase is unparalleled in both Egypt and Palestine and signifies the dolphins as clumsy imitations of Middle Minoan IIIB dolphins. The dolphins of the *Lisht* vessel are the first Middle Minoan III feature to be discovered in Egypt. The *Lisht* vase provides the intimacy of connections between Egypt, Syria-Palestine, and Crete in the final phase of the Middle Bronze period. Furthermore, a large polished piriform jar (Metropolitan Museum of Art 201095) found in a settlement at *Tell el Dab'a* (12th/13th dynasty) also carry dolphin representation. The latter is probably an import from South-Palestine and represents one of the oldest examples of piriform vessels.

Figure 2. The Dolphin vase from *Lisht*.

Cross-cultural identity of artefacts

The development and proficiency of a number of ancient crafts such as pottery, textile, metal and glass attest to an extensive program of cross-cultural interactions. The flourishing diplomatic and commercial relations particularly during the 18th dynasty created a regional or rather international cultural network encouraging the display, exchange and further development of art objects. The ancient Egyptian workshops were provided with a vast variety of local and imported materials as well as being inspired by external influences, which developed the style and technique of the local production.

The glass manufacture, for example, may have been introduced to Egypt from Asia during the Second Intermediate Period and quickly adopted and developed by native

craftsmen, who proved to be familiar with the forms, decorative motifs and techniques of western Asiatic artisans. Glass vessels imitating marble as prestigious Syrian objects became highly prized in Egypt and were copied there, as were silver and gold 'flat-bottomed' vessels originating from Syria. On the other hand, a number of innovations have been associated with Egypt enriching the glass industry with individual applications.

Pottery analysis from sherds found in Egyptian contexts indicates that there was enough contact for imitations of Minoan vessels to be made locally in Egypt. A number of the *Lahun* sherds are made of local materials in the Minoan style. Other sherds of Minoan origin found in Egypt can be traced to the workshops serving the palaces of *Konossos* and *Phaistos*. A fine ointment jar found at Armant in Egypt (Figure 3) is decorated in the so-called 'Marine Style' which originated in Crete but became popular in Mycenean pottery workshops on the Greek mainland from 1500 BC. Such Aegean pottery was attractive to the Egyptians, and small quantities have been found in Egypt. This ointment jar may have held perfumed oil which was produced in Mycenaean Greece.

Figure 3. Jar with 'Marine Style' decoration.

The military chariot, which makes its appearance all over the Near East in the Late Bronze Age presents a technological innovation since the New Kingdom onwards. Its increasing popularity was reflected in the portrayal of grand compositions of chariot scenes in both Egypt and the Agean in the 14th and 13th centuries. The most elaborate treatment of the chariot theme comes from Egyptian art portraying the New Kingdom Kings driving to the hunt or to war. The horses often rear up over a tangled mass of animals or enemies. The wall relief of *Karnak* representing King *Seti* I in his chariot returning with prisoners represents a prominent example in this regard. The military chariots together with the adoption of the Cretan dagger and composed bow present the most remarkable influences affecting the Egyptian military tactics and technology.

Cross-cultural identity in architecture

Archaeological evidence from pre-dynastic Egypt shows a number of *Uruk* influences, which the Egyptians would have adopted whilst travelling to Syria. These influences included *niched* façade architecture especially in dynasties one and two, which was adopted from *Uruk* cylinder seals, and manifested itself on larger scale architecture, and funerary furniture.

The Minoan culture in Egypt is strongly attested by the designs on the plaster scenes from *Tell el Dab'a* which show a *Konossos* origin. Cretan stylistic influences were carried beyond the Aegean to the eastern Mediterranean where palaces were decorated by travelling artists skilled in the Minoan art of fresco painting. In Egypt by the end of the sixteenth century B.C. new royal buildings at Avaris were covered in images of Minoan bull-leapers and acrobats. These exotic designs, such as the Aegean manner of depicting animals with a 'flying gallop', were valued in the Delta, but after 1500 BC they tended to be overwhelmed or adapted by Egyptian iconography. Minoans in Egyptian art are normally shown with reddish complexions, long dark hair and elaborately patterned kilts, and the frescoes at *Tell el Dab'a* reflect these characteristics. The fresco fragments suggest the presence of highly skilled artists from the Minoan world in Egypt. It is believed that the paintings probably had ritual significance and would point to Minoans living at *Avaris*, in close contact with the Egyptian elite, whilst being able to pursue their own ritual life. The gardens in the painted scenes could be an attempt to illustrate the Delta landscape rather than conforming to Agean images. The existence of these frescoes is reason for much debate especially as they seem wholly unrelated to any other Cretan material in the same stratum. The frescoes could represent a connection between the Egyptian and the Cretan royal house, and it has been suggested that the king *Ahmose* had married a Cretan princess.

Figure 4. The Migdol tower at Medinet Habu.

The mortuary temple of Ramses III at *Medinet Habu* is preceded on the eastern side by a unique feature of impressive fortifications with watchtowers adapting the Syrian *Migdol*-architecture (Figure 4) giving the temple the aspect of a fortress for protective functions. The external walls of Ramses III's mortuary temple at *Medinet Habu* show the enemy 'Sea Peoples' distinguished by their characteristic physical features and weapons. The importance of the event is marked by the effort spent by *Ramsses* III in having it recorded. This scene is unique in Egyptian temple art. However, though the composition appears to be somewhat freed from the usual Egyptian artistic conventions, it is in fact still composed in a register system. King Ramses II initiated a major defensive program based on a chain of fortresses stretching from the Delta to el-Alamein resembling Asiatic gateways with a jagged passage narrowing toward the inner. Furthermore, glazed tiles (Figure 5) representing the traditional enemies of Egypt (known as the 'nine bows') as captive enemies including Nubians, Libyans and Syrians are probably parts of the

decoration of a throne room in a palace of Ramses III (1184-1153 BC) at *Tell el-Yahudia* in the Nile Delta, placed either on the base of the throne or on the floor in front of the throne. The king would then literally and metaphorically trample on his enemies.

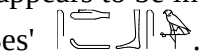
Figure 5. Glazed tiles representing the traditional enemies of Egypt.

With the Macedonian occupation military architecture borrowed on Greek types of forts, though using native brick. At *Kom Ombo* three towers project from the inland side, one in the middle and others at either corner, slewed to command the return toward the river, and one even faceted after the Greek fashion. At the Roman fort of *Dionysias* at *Qasr-Qarun* in the *Fayum*, the apse sheltering a marble statue of *Nemesis* was accessible from a broad stairway preceded by a long room bordered by two lateral colonnades with re-used classical and figure capitals, perhaps a *basilican* hall probably *hypaethral*. Remains of a Roman fort were found at *Qertassi*, a girdle wall of large stone blocks and gateway crowned with a cavetto.

Cross-Cultural identity in religion

The Egyptians, like many other Orientals, appear to have been tolerant of foreign gods, and when it was alleged that any of these possessed powers and attributes similar to any of their native gods, they accepted them and gave them Egyptian forms.

The oldest Nubian or Sudanese gods imported to the Egyptian pantheon include *Tetun* and *Bes*. *Tetun* is a war god who in the form of a bird of prey standing on a crescent-shaped perch 𓅱, is seen on objects of the early dynastic period found at *Abydos* and *Hierakonpolis*. He is mentioned several times in the Pyramid Texts (1718a), where he is called the 'young man of the south, who comes from Nubia, and he brings to the dead king the sweet-smelling incense which is used for the gods. Elsewhere he is one of the four gods who carry the ladder by which king *Pepi* is to ascend into heaven. The earliest Egyptian picture of *Tetun* is found in the little temple of *Khnum* which *Thotmose* III built at *Semnah* in the Second Cataract. There the Nubian god appears as an ordinary god-king

of Egypt, bearded and holding  and  . *Bes* is another Nubian or Sudanese god adopted in the Egyptian religion. The oldest mention of this god's name appears to be in the Pyramid Texts (1768c), where mention is made of the 'tail of Bes'  . The oldest representation of him is found on an ivory magic wand or 'throw stick' , now preserved in the British Museum (No. 18175). He is usually depicted in the form of a dwarf with a huge bearded head. His pygmy form and his head-dress prove his southern origin. He was also a slayer of serpents and all kinds of noxious animals. He is represented in the birth-chamber of Queen Hatshepsut at her temple of Deir el Bahari.

Several gods and goddesses were imported from Syria and Canaan into Egypt with the conquest of parts of the region. The cults of Asiatic deities in Egypt started to develop since the reign of *Amonhotep* II, that is to say not until 1600 B.C. Most of the foreign gods promoted in Egypt were identified with war and the chase such as *Reshef* and *Anat*. *Reshef* was the god of lightning, fire, and of the pestilence which follows in the train of war. His name is derived from the Phoenician *reshef,* or *reshep*, 'fire-bolt', 'thunder-bolt'. The centre of his cult in Egypt was at *Het-Reshep*. He is represented as a man wearing a head-covering like the White Crown of Egypt, from which the head and neck of a gazelle appears. This may indicate that he was a god of the chase, but it is more likely that some species of gazelle was his sacred animal. *Anat* is a Syrian war-goddess who appears in the form of a woman wearing a lofty crown with plumes, and bearing a spear and shield and battle-axe. She was associated with the protection of the horses of the military chariot. The Syrian war-goddess *Antat* is represented as a woman wearing the Egyptian Crown of the South with plumes, and armed with spear, shield, and battle-axe. A sanctuary for her was built at Thebes in the region of *Thotmose* III. *Astarte* is another Semitic goddess identified with war. She was regarded in Egypt as a form of *Hathor*, *Isis* and other goddesses, and at a late period she appears as a lioness-headed woman wearing a disk on her head, and holding a whip in her right hand, standing in a chariot and driving her team of four horses over prostrate foes. The center of her cult in Egypt was *Apolllinopolis Magna* at *Edfu*. In the temple relief on the temple at *Edfu* the goddess is called 'lady of horses, lady of the chariot'. She is identified as the protector of the sea-voyages at the Egyptian port of Memphis. *Ba'al*  , the god of the Canaanites and Phoenicians is another principal Syrian god adopted by the Egyptians. The determinative of his name shows that the Egyptians identified him with Set, the god of evil, but they regarded him as a terrible god of war. According to the inscriptions of the battle of *Qadesh, Ramses* II identified himself with *Ba'al* when leaping upon his horse and charging the host of the *Kheta*. The principal seat of the cult of *Ba'al* in Egypt was Tanis. *Qedeshet* is another Syrian-Phoenician goddess worshipped in Egypt. As the personification of love and beauty, she has been identified in Egypt with Hathor and Isis and other moon-goddesses. She is represented as a naked woman, full-faced and standing on a lion. She has the head-dress of *Hathor*, which in one case is surmounted by the full moon resting in the crescent moon; in her right hand she holds a bunch of flowers, and in her left a serpent. According to the inscriptions on *a stela* in the British Museum and a *stela* in Turin, *Qedeshet* is said to be the 'lady of heaven, the mistress of all the gods, the eye of *Ra*'. During the *Ramesside* Period the king was identified with *Ba'al* instead of *Reshef*. A stela blonging to *Qeh*, a foreman of workmen at Thebes around 1250 BC shows the major Asiatic deities. In the lower register *Qeh* and his family worship *Anat*,

goddess of war. *Reshef* is on the right in the upper scene, along with the Egyptian god Min on the left. *Min* and *Reshef* were associated with the goddess *Qedeshet*, shown standing on a lion and holding flowers and snakes (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Stela with Egyptian and Asiatic deities.

Cross-cultural identity in a social context

The cultural backgrounds of foreign immigrants living in Egypt such as Asiatics, Syrians and Minoans played a considerable role in enhancing the creation of a cross-cultural identity. Syrians migrating to Egypt since the first Intermediate Period tried to integrate into the Egyptian society and a number of cylinder seals inscribed with hieroglyphs have been found in Egypt. The 'Delta' as well as *Beni Hassan* have been the most densely populated Asiatic regions from the Middle Kingdom onwards. Although the stereotypical images of Asiatics are concerned with their oppression it is obvious that in reality there were a number of Asiatics living within society as craftsmen, trade people, mercenaries in the army and some as immigrants looking for a better world. Evidence also shows that Egyptian kings married Asiatics princesses as a means of maintaining peaceful and diplomatic relationships with these countries. Canaanite and Syrian connections were present at the royal court in association with Thutmose's wives, who had northern names. They arrived in the Nile Valley with their rich dowry of Syrian objects.

The relations between Mitanni and Egypt were re-cemented around 1355B.C. by the marriage of *Tushratta*'s daughter *Taduhepa* to *Amenhotep* III. An enormous number of precious objects were sent as a wedding present to Egypt, the highlights of which were horses, a chariot covered in gold, bridles and horse equipment of gold, precious stones and ivory, weapons of various kinds overlaid with gold, bracelets, anklets, necklaces, clothing, shoes, scent containers with exotic oils and lesser objects including tens of arrows, javelins and blankets. A collection of 382 cuneiform documents discovered in Egypt at the site of Tell-el-Amarna present royal correspondence between the Egyptians and the Mitannis. A clay tablet representing a letter addressed to *Amenhotep* III from *Tushratta*, includes greetings to his daughter *Taduhepa*. Three lines of Egyptian, written in black ink, were added when the letter arrived in Egypt.

It would also have been considered acceptable for lower-class Egyptians to marry Asiatic settlers and there is evidence that this did occur. From the New Kingdom onwards it was common to find *Canaanite* or *Hurrian* names in Egyptian family trees. A number of Middle Kingdom funerary stelae, discovered at Abydos, in the northern cemetery behind the temple of Osiris represent some of the Asiatics living and working in Egypt during this period. Some of the Asiatic settlers gained considerable positions of authority in Egypt. Some were given the title of 'scribe' indicating they would have been literate in the Egyptian language as well as the Asiatic one. One Asiatic resident of *Avaris*, the 'Deputy Chief Steward', *Imeny*, was very proud of his Asiatic heritage. He lived in the late Middle Kingdom, and represented himself with an Asiatic beard on his stela, although his Egyptian name would suggest integration into Egyptian society. The population at *Avaris* during this period would have been a mixed Canaanite and Egyptian one.

The skills of foreign and local artisans enabling the transference of technology and styles played a considerable role in developing a cross-cultural integrity of crafts and artefacts. The mobility of the personnel is a key factor in this regard. Not only travelling artisans, but also merchants, traders, couriers, officials, administrators, immigrants, invaders, even enemies and prisoners of war, have all contributed in enhancing cultural interconnections. The ancient cities of Thebes and Amarna played a considerable role in developing this internationalism in art as great metropolis providing a set of conditions that is conductive to the production of high quality art. They both provided a wealthy elite to act as a patron, a concentration of expertise to produce the art, and a mingling of various nationalities in the city trade center to provide further stimulus to the international outlook.

It is also clear that the decisions of the monarch vitally concern the mobility of the personnel in such international relations. As the patron of arts or the sponsor of trade, as the invading warrior or the administrator of conquered territories, as the letter writer and gift giver and specialist collector, the monarch has a profound effect on intercommunication in the ancient world. The contracting of royal marriages within diplomatic strategies extended the cross-cultural integrity in art and architecture to the royal sphere.

The interaction of the Egyptian language together with foreign languages is evident during the New Kingdom, as a number of Semitic words were introduced to the Egyptian language in association with foreign objects coming to Egypt. The inscriptions of Ramses III show clear expansion of the Semitic linguistic influences even leading to foreign verbs, generating a new level of cross-cultural knowledge. However, it should be noted that during the 20^{th} Dynasty, there was a large number of Asiatics inhabiting Egypt according to topographical information of Papyrus Wilbour.

CONCLUSION

The cross-cultural identity in art and archaeology attest to intensive cultural interrelations between Egypt, Mesopotamia, Canaan, Syria, and the Agean. All parties fully participated in the internationalism of culture throughout history, until fully developed in the Late Bronze Age. The re-assessment of Egypt's cultural heritage of cross-cultural background presents a challenging approach for tourism promotion in Egypt. Stressing the cross-cultural identity enrich the historical and archaeological heritage of Egypt and re-identifies it in regional and international terms. The cross-cultural studies of local historical heritage may present a key instrument for regional tourism development. Investigating the cultural communication and integration between Ancient Egypt and different parts of the ancient world reinforces the cross-cultural identity of Egypt's historical heritage and stress the role of culture as an instrument facilitating harmony and understanding between nations since remote times.

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Informal education: A case study of art deco architectural tourism

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ABSTRACT

This research project examined the interpretation services available for tourists who wish to visit and engage in an architectural tourism experience. The aim of the study was to assess the interpretive information available to a tourist while exploring the provision of informal education to enhance the tourism experience. The project employed a case study of Art Deco architecture in New York and Miami Beach. The study findings indicated there were various types of interpretation services available to the tourist at each of the destinations and the preservation associations actively promote a linkage between the interpretation services and an informal education experience allowing the architectural tourist to obtain a better understanding of the significance of the Art Deco era.

KEYWORDS: Art Deco; tourism; architecture; informal education; interpretation services.

INTRODUCTION

This exploratory research aimed to investigate the interpretation services available for tourists visiting a significant Art Deco destination. New York and Miami Beach, USA were employed for this initial investigation. The researcher visited the two destinations and participated in available guided and self-guided tours. In addition the researcher contacted the appropriate preservation associations in each destination prior to departure to organise an interview to discuss this research and the link between interpretation services and informal educational experiences for the tourist. Considerable research has been conducted into urban tourism and heritage tourism. However, few if any studies have centred on architectural tourism with a specific focus on informal education at Art Deco destinations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourists have visited historical heritage sites for centuries. The ‘Grand Tour’ experience dating back to the sixteenth century was a tour of certain cities and places in Western Europe undertaken primarily, but not exclusively for education and pleasure (Towner, 1985) which linked education, tourism and pleasure as a worthy and valuable pursuit. Interlinking tourism, leisure and education has continued from this time and has become even more prevalent in recent years (Martin and Mason 1993; Roggenbuck, Loomis and Dagostino, 1990; Urry 1990). This has produced an increase in interest in educational aspects on both the supply and demand side of the historical heritage sites experience.

The development of interpretation services has assisted in the construction and reinforcement of the tourist gaze (Urry, 2002). Interpretation as defined by Tilden (1977, p.8) is an educational activity which aims to reveal 'meaning and relationships through the use of original objects, by firsthand experience, and by illustrative media, rather than simply to communicate factual information'. Interpretation services in the form of information boards, audio guides, formal guided tours and self guided tours via the utilisation of a guide book provide the visitor with a better understanding of the history of previous generations.

Tourists have a range of motivations to visit heritage sites, including an enjoyable day out, something to do for the day, or wanting to understand the lives of those who have lived in the past. Interpretation can be a form of informal education which usually takes place during leisure time thus linking it to a tourism activity. Informal education as defined by Light (1995, p.117) refers to 'that self-motivated voluntary exploratory, non-coercive learning and understanding which can take place during a visit to a heritage site'. Heritage sites provide a potential learning context for a tourist however this informal education is entirely a voluntary activity. The teacher who usually present in a formal education environment is substituted by a variety of interpretive services which can be consumed or ignored by the tourist. However, the potential to learn at these sites had become increasingly important to individuals who have a desire to undertake an entire tourism experience (Light and Prentice, 1994).

The year 1925 was the year of the L'Exposition Internationale des Arts Decoratifs et Industriels Modernes in Paris which showcased vibrant, dynamic and ultra-alternative thoughts to demonstrate inspiration and originality in design. This showcase influenced major change in design, fashion and architecture across the western world. Many inspiring and long lasting architectural concepts developed from this exhibition. This exhibition is now acquainted to what is now called Art Deco taking on this title in mid 1960s from the original "Art Decoratifs" however, the style was originally was called "Art Moderne".

To frame this discussion on Art Deco architecture and tourism, two cities are utilised for a case study context: New York and Miami Beach. New York is the home of a significant variety of industrial and commercial Art Deco architecture with extraordinary skyscrapers, public buildings and entertainment centres. New York symbolises a modern contemporary empire, becoming one of the first megacities on the globe. New York possesses some of the most iconic Art Deco architecture in the world, The Art Deco Society of New York founded in 1980 is dedicated to the celebration and preservation of Art Deco design. The Art Deco Society of New York provides interpretation programs to their members and the interested general public, which include lectures, guided tours, bus trips, author talks, museum and gallery events, and historic preservation advocacy.

The second example, Miami Beach has a large concentration of Art Deco architecture. There are over 300 certified Art Deco buildings within the Miami Beach district with more than 800 buildings in an area of approximately 125 blocks (Fleming,

1981). Examples of both commercial and residential construction are evident (Curtis, 1982). The Art Deco Preservation League in Miami Beach is responsible for the preservation of the region also managing the Art Deco Welcome Centre and gift shop which provide interpretation services.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This exploratory research project aimed to:

1. Assess the extent of interpretation services available to tourists interested in Art Deco architectural locations; and,
2. Explore the provision of informal education to enhance the overall tourism experience.

METHODS

A field work and observational site visit was undertaken in each of the case cities in October 2011. This research project employed field work activities which are critical in tourism research to demonstrate comprehensive site knowledge. Prior to departure the researcher examined the websites of both the Art Deco Society of New York and the Art Deco Preservation League in Miami Beach. Appropriate contact details were obtained and emails requesting assistance and an on-site interview were sent at least 2 months prior to departures. Both associations were slow in responding. The President of the Art Deco Society of New York contacted the researcher and an interview appointment was confirmed. The Art Deco Preservation League in Miami Beach did not reply even after a numerous emails.

The observational visits involved visiting Art Deco Welcome Centres and gift shop in Miami and participating in available guided and self-guided tours to establish the extent of easily accessible interpretation information provision for the architectural tourist.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In New York the researcher conducted an interview with Kathryn Haussmann the President of the Art Deco Society of New York. The President expressed that:

> The society has a major educational role, because Art Deco is part of architecture, and a style that was a modern style. Art Deco reflected what was going on in politics, social situations, and it was a modern movement. The lines are different than what was done in the past, in fashion and architecture and design. So it's a very significant style, that's still classic and still works and is still loved. It's important to make people aware of this period.

To assist with this awareness the society organises regular activities.

> We do one to two events a month. Often, we do walking tours. If there's a new book out, we'll do a slide lecture. If there's a museum exhibit, we'll

have a Deco tour. We also have parties. We're just all about honouring everything that's Art Deco that comes to New York or that is in New York.

An information booklet 'Art Deco/Art Moderne Resource Guide' produced by the society in 2007 was provided to the researcher. The booklet lists places of interest including landmark architectural sites and museums, places to purchase Art Deco items (galleries, dealers and retailers), restaurant and a reasonable percentage of advertising to assist in production costs. The guide included a valuable and useful map whilst also listing all the other Art Deco societies around the world. The guide booklet is available to the interested general public who contact the society at a cost of 10 US dollars.

The researcher utilised the booklet to participate in a self-guided walking tour of Manhattan over two days, especially useful was the map illustrating an overview of landmark buildings. The researcher visited the Empire State and Empire Diner, the Chrysler Buildings, the magnificent Rockerfeller Center, Radio City Music Hall, Bloomindale's, Century Apartments and the luxurious Waldorf-Astoria. Many of the buildings utilised information board providing background on the site and a further informal education experience (Light, 1995, p.117). Self-guided tours however can be frustrating since the tourist will only be able to inspect general public access area and will not be able to take advantage of an access to more exclusive spaces available to guided tour operators or preservation societies.

In Miami Beach the researcher visited the Art Deco Welcome Center which consisted of an Art Deco gift shop, tour booking office, information center and administration offices. The research endeavoured to contact the management of the center during the stay in Miami Beach but this was to no avail. This in itself is a curious occurrence since one would believe the association would desire any assistance in promoting the preservation of Art Deco in the region.

The Art Deco gift shop mainly consisted of reproductions of art deco items and a plentiful supply of Art Deco reference books. Reproductions provide a price point for access but may not generate an understanding of authenticity however there was no deception that the items available were made in the 1920-30s. The information flyers on current activities to be conducted by the center were available but there was limited interpretion information for the tourist. To learn about the area a tourist was required to participate in a ninety-minute guided walking tour (at a cost of $20 US, fee for members).

The researcher participated in a guided walking tour of the area with a volunteer guide. The group visited interiors and viewed exteriors of approximately fifteen Art Deco buildings. The guide initially discussed the historical development of the Miami region starting from the 1500s, indicating significant key figures who influenced expansion of the area such as John Collins, the Lummus brothers and Carl Fisher. He explained the important differences of the Art Deco style in this region compared to our well know Art Deco cities such as New York and Paris. There were two significant periods in Miami Beach: the Carl Fisher period 1915-1928 and the tropical, nautical period from 1935-1942. He stated that:

> It is all about the ocean liner and tropical nautical architecture. The Breakwater Hotel is a good example, it visualises a ship breaking the water, coming towards you. It is also said that before we reclaimed all this land from the ocean that the high water waves used to break right where The Breakwater steps are today.

The guide pointed out the typical building features of these periods (streamlining, spires, ledges, curves and very wide front porches) and discussed the architects of each of the builds we visited, including Anton Skislewicz, Henry Hohouser, Murray Dixon and Kichnel and Elliott. He also spoke about Barbara Capitman who was a New Yorker who came to Miami Beach and spearheaded the drive to save these Art Deco buildings from demolition. She was one of the co-founders of the Art Deco Preservation League. The guide's last statement was:

> Thanks for coming on the tour today. I hope you learned something.

This statement indicates an intention for an informal educational experience and the tour was very informative, however disappointingly no written information was provided and the route rather depended on the weather on the day.

CONCLUSION

This research is only a preliminary study in this area. It was disappointing that the Art Deco Preservation League in Miami Beach made no contact to discuss their preservation work. Nevertheless, further research incorporating other Art Deco destinations, for example Napier, Paris, London could assist in building a greater understanding of architectural tourism and also provide data to be utilised by architectural preservation associations on what interpretation services provide the informal educational experience which could assist in attracting increased membership thus generate potential funding for the future preservation of these important architectural destinations.

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Abstracts

UTILISING A CULTURAL KNOWLEDGE AND PROCESS MAP OF TRAVEL WRITING IN TERTIARY EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

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ABSTRACT

The emergence of travel writing as a specific genre in the late eighteenth century (extant travel sagas from Greek civilization onwards notwithstanding) initially took a form that most resembled detailed scientific reportage. The genre's ability to shape-shift, however, has been a direct result of 'new' voices, and emergent identities, the multiplicity of perspectives and lenses contributing the increasingly hybrid nature of the form. Travel writing continues to be refracted through a postmodern lens but the newly energised travel writing must face challenges of appropriation, colonialisation, modernity and postmodernity, transculturation, power bases, fantasy and desire, transgression, physicality, ethnicity, space and time, and so on. What appear to be the problematics of travel writing in tourism curricula can, however, be mitigated by contexualising critical analysis through using a ***Cultural Knowledge and Process Map of Travel Writing for Educational Settings****. The provision and discussion of the* ***Map*** *in the initial lecture of the travel writing sequence allows an opportunity for personal reflection prior to detailed exposure specific themes in subsequent lectures. The educational issues – Travel Purpose, Travel Participants, Travel Strategy and Travel Design are also introduced, as are themes of the knowledge of Travel Outcomes, Travel Dynamics, Adaptation and Change after Travel, and the Acquisition and Perpetuation of Travel Knowledge, with both issues and themes operating in a context of operationalised enquiry-based learning.*

KEYWORDS: Cultural knowledge; Travel writing; Travel Themes; Travel Outcomes; Enquiry-based learning.

KNOWLEDGE GENERATION IN TOURISM: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM TWO MATURE DESTINATIONS [51]

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ABSTRACT

This work tries precisely to identify one side of the knowledge triangle in tourism: the research, through the empirical evidence on two mature destinations: the Canary Islands and the Balearic Islands. A model of knowledge needs in tourism identifying four basic areas of knowledge (R&D) needs that will lead to innovations is presented. The empirical evidence on new knowledge generated through a database of PhD theses on tourism and scientific papers published on SCI journals about both destinations indicates first, that PhD Theses during last 25 years have focused mainly on generating new knowledge on the tourist and on the environment, even thus some differences are observed if we distinguished by destinations, while SCI papers published have focused mostly on the environment and on the tourist in the Canary Islands and on research on the economic underpinnings of the tourism activity and the environment in the Balearic Islands. Results could serve as a guidance to establish appropriate research policies for promoting the knowledge triangle in mature tourism destinations.

KEYWORDS**:** Balearic Islands; Canary Islands; knowledge generation; tourism sector.

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EXCELLENCE IN UNIVERSITY TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS EDUCATION: IMPRESSIONS FROM 3 CONTINENTS

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ABSTRACT

Drawing upon the relevant definitions used by the International Centre of Excellence in Tourism and Hospitality Education (THE-ICE) this paper examines the pursuit of excellence by university schools of tourism, hospitality and events through engagement with external stakeholders generally and with relevant industries in particular. Having identified examples of initiatives that assess program quality (eg TEDQUAL and EPAS) the paper explores the challenges of engagement for institutions operating within different jurisdictions, having differential access to market growth and drawing upon different levels of resourcing.

Commenting as an interested participant, the researcher outlines some of the issues that have been addressed by THE-ICE as it has extended its activities internationally. This includes consideration of the different perspectives of quality prevalent amongst higher and vocational education providers. These perspectives are supplemented by an exploration of examples of high quality program provision within Europe, North America and Asia. The examples include a "hotel school" type approach (drawing upon the "Swiss Hotel School" model) and another school (of broadly similar dimensions) which relies on relationships with external industry operators to provide the necessary hands-on experience for students. The merits of these two models are considered, particularly from the perspectives of engagement and innovation. The paper concludes with an affirmation of the need to strengthen quality processes for tourism, hospitality and events education globally, whilst noting than no single model is optimal in all settings.

KEYWORDS: Education quality, tourism education, TEDQUAL, EPAS

SPONSORSHIP AND EVENT QULAITY: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Sponsorship is becoming popular among events as a unique form of marketing to reach diverse markets without aggressively forcing products or services on potential customers. Sponsorships allow companies to tap into a potential buyer's emotions and trigger positive perceptions, profitable purchasing decisions and advocacy. This study examines the results of a post-event charity run participant survey in the Southeastern United States conducted over a four-year span. The survey was designed to increase understanding of sponsorships and their effects on a non-profit event. It is hypothesized that event quality will generate either positive or negative transference, which will determine if the participants are more or less likely to purchase the sponsors' products and their willingness to advocate to family and friends.

KEYWORDS: Event sponsorship, Event quality

TOURISM IMPACTS AND BIODIVERSITY CONSERVATION HOTSPOTS: A META-SYNTHESIS OF CASE STUDY RESEARCH.

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ABSTRACT

Tourism can have many impacts, both positive and negative, on wildlands and wild areas. Sustainable tourism development in natural environments must be inclusive of not only environmental considerations, but also needs social and economic pillars implemented as part of the equation. Conservation International (CI) developed a priority-setting strategy that focuses on biodiversity hotspots around the world. Hotspots are regions containing exceptionally high concentrations of endemic species which also are experiencing high habitat loss. This study aims to show that tourism development implemented according to all the principles of sustainability will have a net positive or a neutral impact on biodiversity. As guidance, we utilized five scale-independent benefits from tourism that can support conservation (Brandon, 1996): a source of financing; justification for conservation; providing local people with economic alternatives; constituency building; and impetus for private conservation efforts. Case studies of the last 30 years of tourism research were reviewed and coded for factors that provide information regarding the scope and scale of tourism. Coding addressed the outcomes of tourism either directly or the impacts stemming from them, including environmental, social, and economic impacts. Preliminary findings indicate that there is relation between the tourism strategies that are being implemented in these biodiversity hotspots and the tendency of environmental attitudes and behaviors to be more favorable in regards to conservation.

KEYWORDS: Sustainable tourism development, Biodiversity

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