SECSA
SOUTHEAST, CENTRAL, AND SOUTH AMERICAN FEDERATION

2019 CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH FLORIDA
SARASOTA-MANATEE
Innovations is the research proceedings of the SECSA Federation of International Council of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education.

2019 Proceedings Editor and Review of Paper conducted by:

Faizan Ali, PhD
Assistant Professor,
College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership
University of South Florida – Sarasota Manatee

Special Thank You To:

Dr. Pat Moreo, Dean, the faculty, and staff of the College of Hospitality & Tourism Leadership for hosting our 4th Annual SECSA Conference. An extra special thank you to Dr. Faizan Ali (academic conference chair) for his time, effort, and dedication to ensure a successful conference.

Cover Art by Luana Nanu, USFSM graduate Student
### SECSA-CHRIE Federation Board

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Innovations in SECSA Hospitality and Tourism Research Volume 4, No. 1
CHRIE - Southeastern, Central, and South America Federation 2019 Conference  
University of South Florida, Sarasota-Manatee

March 1-2, 2019  
Conference Host and Location:  
University of South Florida Sarasota-Manatee  
College of Hospitality & Tourism Leadership  
8350 N. Tamiami Trail  
Sarasota, FL 34243

For conference (host) related questions, please contact Dr. Faizan Ali (faizanali@sar.usf.edu) or Dr. Pat Moreo (pmoreo@sar.usf.edu). For urgent conference related inquiries, you may also call or text Dr. Cihan Cobanoglu at +1-302-897-1909 or Dr. Pat Moreo at +1 702-328-7226.

**CONFERENCE SCHEDULE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Event</th>
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| **Thursday, February 28**  
5:30 - 6:30 | Beer Tasting (Café Patio).  
Joe Askren, College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee |                                               |
| 7:00     | Social gathering (on-your-own)                                        |                                               |
| **Friday, March 1st (all times EST)**  
9:00 - 9:45 | Check-in (Main Rotunda, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee).  
Coffee and Snacks (Café).  
*Coffee will also be served the entire day in the Café.* |                                               |
| 9:45 - 10:15 | Welcome (Selby Auditorium)                                           | Miranda Kitterlin, President, SECSA  
Karen Holbrook, Regional Chancellor, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee  
Brett Kemker, Regional Vice Chancellor for Academic and Student Affairs, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee  
Pat Moreo, Dean, College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee |
| 10:15-10:30 | Coffee Break (Café)                                                 |                                               |
| **Concurrent Session 1.1 - Tourism (Room B336)**  
10:30 - 10:50 | Florida Medical Tourism (FMT): A Strategic & Innovative Model for Health and Wellness  
*Adel Eldin and Frederick DeMicco* |                                               |
| 10:55 - 11:15 | Environmentally Friendly Efforts Scale in Cruise Industry  
*Frida Bahja and Cihan Cobanoglu* |                                               |
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<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Authors</th>
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<tr>
<td>11:20 - 11:40</td>
<td>Why we go: motivations and intentions of individuals visiting dark tourism destinations</td>
<td>Heather Lewis and Thomas Schrier</td>
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<tr>
<td>11:45 - 12:05</td>
<td>Local concern for Sustainable Tourism Development: San Juan de Los Remedios, Cuba</td>
<td>Manuel Ramón González Herrera, Mackay Elizabeth A. and Rodríguez Rodríguez Mercedes Ángeles</td>
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<td>12:10 - 12:30</td>
<td>Medical tourism: a post visit study on perceived medical service quality, destination image and revisit intention</td>
<td>Imran Rahman, Sijun Liu and David Martin</td>
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**Concurrent Session 1.2 – Consumer Behavior (Room A320A)**

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<tr>
<th>Time</th>
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<tr>
<td>10:30 - 10:50</td>
<td>The living room concept in the hotel lobby</td>
<td>Luana Nanu and Faizan Ali</td>
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<tr>
<td>10:55 - 11:15</td>
<td>Seeing is believing? A study of employee smoking and customers’ perception.</td>
<td>Jooho Kim and Stephanie Bae</td>
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<tr>
<td>11:20 - 11:40</td>
<td>The relationship between food involvement and behavioral characteristics in food enthusiasts; a work-in-progress study using semi-structured interviews with food enthusiasts</td>
<td>Andrew Moreo, Mark Traynor and Srikanth Beldona</td>
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<tr>
<td>11:45 - 12:05</td>
<td>Green practices with reusable drinkware at music events: A student perspective</td>
<td>Annamarie Sisson, Amber Grisamore and Jichul Jang</td>
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<tr>
<td>12:10 - 12:30</td>
<td>Millenials: The Next Generation of Tippers</td>
<td>Lionel Thomas, Lachelle Wilborn, Leon Mohan and Dene Williamson</td>
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12:30-1:45 – Lunch in Selby Auditorium

Keynote Speech 1

Mr. Ed Chiles, Owner, Chiles Restaurant Group

Title: Sustainability in Restaurants

2:00 - 3:40 – Concurrent Session 2.1 – Hospitality Education (Room B336)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
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<th>Authors</th>
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<tr>
<td>2:00 - 2:20</td>
<td>Understanding Today’s Hospitality Students Through Direct Observation</td>
<td>Don Schoffstall and Eric Brown</td>
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<tr>
<td>2:20 - 2:40</td>
<td>Impacts of hospitality student organization involvement using psychosocial development and Student Involvement Theory</td>
<td>Annamarie Sisson, Jichul Jang and Michelle Alcorn</td>
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<tr>
<td>2:45 - 3:00</td>
<td>College Hospitality Beverage Education: An Alternative Pedagogy</td>
<td>Adam Carmer</td>
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<td>3:00 - 3:20</td>
<td>Study Abroad Students’ Worries, Hesitation and Risk Perceptions and its Influence on Risk Reduction Strategies</td>
<td>Erol Sozen, Imran Rahman and Martin O’Neill</td>
</tr>
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</table>
### 2:00 - 3:40 – Concurrent Session 2.2 – Leadership and Employee Behaviour (Room A320A)

**2:00 - 2:20**  
Restaurant Management Style and Cost Control Efforts: Discovering a Connection in Sarasota, FL  
*Michelle Russen, Patrick Moreo, Katerina Berezina and Joseph Askren*

**2:20 - 2:40**  
Does Perceived Manager Support Reduce Hospitality Supervisors’ Emotional Exhaustion? The Mediating Role of Time Management and Negative Emotional Reactions  
*Han Chen, Yvette Green and Kim Williams*

**2:45 - 3:00**  
Workplace Design as a Tool for Organizational Effectiveness  
*Paul Kegel*

**3:00 - 3:20**  
Dark-side in Hospitality and Tourism: A Systematic Review of Workplace Deviant Behavior  
*Yuan Zhou and Cihan Cobanoglu*

**3:20 - 3:40**  
The Role of Organizational Support in Psychological Contract Fulfillment to Enhance Employee Performance  
*Samar Sheikhelsouk, Baker Ayoun, Shawky Elsabbagh and Alaa Radwan*

**3:40-4:00**  
Coffee Break (Café)

### 4:00 - 5:15  
Industry Panel Session – Hospitality and Tourism: The Gulf Coast Experience (Selby Auditorium)

**Moderator:** Mr. Elliott Falcione, Executive Director, Bradenton Area Convention & Visitors Bureau

**Panelists:**  
- Rick Piccolo, CEO, Sarasota Bradenton International Airport;  
- John Horne, Owner, Ana Maria Oyster Bar Restaurants;  
- Jeff Mayers, General Manager, The Resort at Longboat Key;  
- Katie Moulton, CEO, Cayuga Hospitality Consultants;  
- Julie Corlew, Vice President of Mainsail Hotels.

### 5:30 - 6:30  
Rosé Wine Tasting Reception (Café Patio).  
Michael Wray  
Metropolitan State University of Denver  
&  
Live Music  
Keith Barron, College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership, UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH FLORIDA SARASOTA MANATEE

### 7:00  
Dinner on your Own.

However, here are some excellent suggestions from the faculty.  
*Saluté  
El Greco  
Ana Maria Oyster Bar  
The Sandbar Restaurant*
Saturday, March 2nd (all times EST)

8:30 - 9:00  
Check-in (Main Rotunda, UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH FLORIDA SARASOTA MANATEE).  
Coffee and Snacks (Café).  
Coffee will also be served the entire day in the Café.

Concurrent Session 3.1 – Hospitality & Tourism (Room B336)

9:00 - 9:20  
Solo Female Travelers: A Comparison of Psychographics and Demographics from a developed and a developing country Perspective  
Shaniel Bernard and Imran Rahman

9:25 - 9:45  
Building an Instrument to Measure Transformational Leadership  
Craig Marshall, Alleah Crawford, Melvin Weber and Stephanie Bae

9:50 - 10:10  
The Influence of Sustainable Local Food Supply Chain on Customer’s Food Experiences and Destination Branding  
Omar Alsetoohy and Baker Ayoun

10:15 - 10:35  
The Gay Campground Experience  
Michael Wray, Chad Gruhl and Thomas Padron

10:40 - 11:00  
How can El Gouna in Egypt Become a Green Destination?  
Elham Fouda, Frida Bahja and Fevzi Okumus

11:05 - 11:25  
The Impact of Hotel Customers’ Non-verbal Behavior on Employees’ Emotional State  
Melissa Farboudi Jahromi, Diane Graebner and Murat Hancer

11:30 – 11:55  
A Qualitative Investigation into Millennials’ Food Selection and Eating Habits  
Bendegul Okumus, Sevil Sonmez, Ahmet Ozturk, Gisele Canova, Cristina M. Roche González and Chenge Helen Jia

Concurrent Session 3.2 – Technology & Education (Room A320A)

9:00 - 9:20  
Consumer perception of online channel distributors on intentions to book: Roles of price and consumer knowledge  
Seung Hyun Lee and Jaeyong Lee

9:25 - 9:45  
Man versus Machine: Optimal Teaching Techniques  
Christopher Cain, Lisa Cain and Sarah Tanford

9:50 - 10:10  
The Benefits and Perceived Usefulness of Simulation Learning in Hospitality Education  
Kate Price-Howard and Heather Lewis

10:15 - 10:35  
Real or AI: 2D Virtual Reality in Hospitality Education  
Brielle Greene, Morgan Peppers and Alison Green

10:40 - 11:00  
Smart Home & Hotels: new technology inside as actual digital gold  
Massimiliano Minaudo

11:05- 11:25  
Women in Leadership: Rising to the Top in a #MeToo World  
Miranda Kitterlin, Lisa Cain and James Williams

11:30 – 11:55  
Hotel Management Contracts – Owners V. Operators – Mock Negotiation  
Keith Barron

12:00-1:15 – Lunch in Selby Auditorium
Keynote Speech 2

Prof. Fevzi Okumus, CFHLA Preeminent Chair Professor,
Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida

Title: The State of Hospitality and Tourism Research and Moving Forward

Moderator: Miranda Kitterlin-Lynch, Associate Professor, Florida International University. 
Panelists:
- Deanne Williams- Bryant, Dean, Bob Billingslea School of Hospitality Management, Bethune-Cookman University;
- Baker M. Ayoun, June M. Henton Associate Professor & HRMT Graduate Programs Officer, Auburn University;
- Cihan Cobanoglu, Professor, College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership, University Of South Florida Sarasota Manatee.
- Michael Cheng, Interim Dean, Chaplin School of Hospitality & Tourism Management, Florida International University.

2:30 - 2:45  Coffee Break (Café)

2:45 – 3:30  Research Forum – Challenges of an Assistant Professor in Maintaining a Research Pipeline
Moderator: Faizan Ali, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee
- Andrew Moreo, Florida International University.
- Katerina Berezina, University of Mississippi.
- Imran Rahman, Auburn University.
- Heather Lewis - Troy University.
- Seung Lee - East Carolina University

3:30 – 4:15  Education Forum – Evolving Delivery Methods
Dr. Pat Moreo, Dean, College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee

4:15 - 5:00  Closing Ceremony and Awards (Selby Auditorium).
Final remarks – Miranda Kitterlin, Ph.D., President SECSA

5:15 – 6:00  Whisky Tasting Reception
Adam Carmer, College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee
&
Live Music
Keith Barron, College of Hospitality and Tourism Leadership, University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee

7:00  Dinner on your Own.

Some suggestion:
Marina Jack
Dry Dock
Blue Kouzina

*schedule subject to change within times listed
Innovative Health and Wellness Solutions: Florida Medical Tourism

Adel Eldin, MD, FACC, FACP, MBA
Florida Medical Tourism

Fredrick DeMicco
University of South Florida Sarasota Manatee

Abstract

Florida Medical Tourism is a Global Hub for Medical Tourism Services for inbound, outbound and domestic clients. Florida Medical Tourism is important for the economy of Florida and offers great opportunities, as Florida is the most visited destination in the World with more than 100 million visitors annually (Williams, 2016). Similarly there is an increasing trend for outbound Medical Tourism seeking more affordable, accessible healthcare compared with US prices. Now, many employers in America have fully adopted Medical Tourism as a cost containing measure, as they will pay for the travel and the cost of the needed surgery or treatment and still save big. The trend is more likely to increase with the globalization of healthcare as patients shop globally for the best services and prices.

There are various factors affecting increased demand for medical tourism including growing global wealth, globalization of healthcare, unique medical advances and therapies, the aging global population and millennial seeking care (Florida Tax Watch, 2014). Other key factors that contribute to this demand also include the employers seeking cost saving on healthcare for their employees (Hunter, 2018). Florida presents a growing market segment as many medical meetings and conferences are hosted during warm winter months. Florida is also a great location for Health and Wellness seekers all year round (Armstrong, 2015). The Sunshine Factor in Florida, which promotes healing after surgery and prevents postoperative depression as well as the great hospitality industry (restaurants, Hotels, entertainment) to be combined with Health and Wellness for synergy. Florida has many natural attractions with parks; beaches, trails, springs and many festivals constitute strong Florida Tourism market. Now we can combine Wellness Tourism Program with executive physicals and educational conferences to boost Medical Tourism in Florida. Most importantly, it can also be a center for rehabilitation services.

No wonder Florida Medical Tourism Bill (similar to our name) was passed by the Florida Legislature to promote surgery and procedures in the Sunshine State. Florida Medical Tourism is offering a new innovative Wellness Tourism Service that addresses the growing opioid crisis use for pain management. Pain is a very complex symptom, which prompts people to get professional help to treating or controlling pain. Pain has significant negative impact on individual, community as it leads to depression, some cases suicide, financial and mental stress and huge economic tool by lost productivity, cost of physical and treatment of patients (Clarke et al., 2016). Evaluating the current approaches to pain management (mostly caused by degenerative joint disease, osteoarthritis which can coexist with obesity). As pain leads to inactivity with subsequent weight gain leading to a vicious cycle of stress and depression with all
obesity-related diseases including hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia and sleep Apnea to mention few.

Current choices first would be the use of Non-Steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs or NSAIDS such as (Motrin, Advil, Naproxyn and others) which are not safe especially if used on chronic basis and would lead to serious side-effects such as elevated blood pressure, kidney failure, congestive heart failure, bleeding ulcer, gastritis, with salt and water retention leading to leg swelling and shortness of breath. A second choice is steroids (oral or injectable steroids) to decrease pain/inflammation which works only for a short period of time and again would lead to many side effects including elevation of blood sugar, diabetes, hypertension, delayed wound healing, increased infection by depressing the immune system and osteoporosis leading to bone fractures. The third choice being the most dangerous which is using narcotics which has killed more than 72 thousand Americans in 2017 and continues to be a real epidemic threatening the public health and well being of so many people especially if taken over a long period of time for chronic pain management (American Psychiatric Association, 2017). Degenerative joint disease with arthritis in various joints of neck, back, hips, knees and even in some cases small joints are affected in case of Rheumatoid Arthritis.

Conservative measures include bed rest, bracing, traction, and ultrasound. Heat therapy electrical nerve stimulation addition to exercise and in some cases psychological intervention. Massage therapy, low amplitude manipulative techniques usually done by Chiropractors, but only limited number of truly qualified trained professionals who can safely perform these measures. Aerobic exercise can improve function. But the safe chronic pain management is a big challenge.

Thus, here is a solution of alternative therapies, which are centuries old that are natural and effective with Therapeutic Tourism. Hot Springs with clay found in theses springs has potent therapeutic properties on joints/skin disease (Riyaz & Arakkal, 2011). Red Sea water chemical composition and its Coral leaves can help cure pain from psoriasis, osteoarthritis and Rheumatoid arthritis (Egypt State Information Service, 2016).

Sand bathing is useful in curing various diseases such as Rheumatoid Arthritis (Its pharmacologic choices are very limited by very toxic side effects). High rate of Ultra -Violet rays would be of great-added benefit especially for Psoriasis treatment. Safaga City in Egypt in particular is considered best World destination for curing Psoriasis. Safaga high mountains act as a natural barrier against wind and sand storms. Additionally, the curve of the bay leads to calm seawater, thus reflecting more therapeutic Ultra-Violet Rays. Safaga Unique Black Sand, which contains gold and salt minerals, makes it very therapeutic to various acute and chronic arthritis as well as skin inflammations (Egypt State Information Service, 2016). Famous Moses Springs in Sinai, Egypt has potent therapeutic properties due to its highest rate of sulfuric water in the world and was used by the early French (Negm, 2018).

Additional effective fantastic non-pharmacologic therapy is cupping therapy used by many celebrities including Olympic Gold Medalist Michael Phelps. Cupping therapy can be done in conjunction with Acupuncture.

Literature Review

1. 80% of the demand for medical travel is driven by cost savings (Bruns, 2015)
2. Over 35 million American adults will be contacted by collection agency for unpaid medical bills (American College of Cardiology, 2019)

3. 15 million adults will use up all savings to pay medical bills (American College of Cardiology, 2019)

4. 10 million insured American will be unable to pay bills (Masterson, 2019)

5. 25 million Americans will not be able to pay for their medications (American College of Cardiology, 2019)

6. Half of Americans with insurance are unable to pay medical bills (Masterson, 2019)

7. The global market for medical tourism is about 30-80 billion dollars a year with a growing rate of 15-25% per year. This model also shows that the average savings are from 20-90% with an average stay of about one week. (Hunter, 2018)

**Methods**

Brand New Rehabilitation Wellness Tourism Service from Florida Medical Tourism is to help patients overcome opioid use, which is affecting a great portion of the U.S. population. To be able to help all those who are suffering from medical conditions causing pain such as degenerative arthritis and inflammatory and connective tissue diseases. By using innovative approaches for non-pharmacologic therapies to treat opioid epidemic.

There is also a potential for added benefit to get a tax-credit for the therapeutic part of the trip based on their established medical condition and their clear wish to rid themselves of opioids and provides a natural alternative to help relieve patients.

This program will be combined with fun-filled activities including sightseeing, tours to major attractions, shopping and dining. This new innovative program will be made available all year round for all ages and everyone who wants to get away, get healthy, and to help reduce and even rid patients of pain and help them regain full control of their life and start fresh after getting rejuvenated following this incredible trip.

**Expected Findings and Implications**

The increasing demand for quality healthcare and affordable pricing has attracted many employers to offer out-of-State coverage ideally delivered in Florida with average 20-40% savings for employers (Kacik, 2019).

Similarly, there is expected to be a global competition with emerging Medical Tourism markets in Asia and Middle East such as Dubai and Egypt through JCI-Accredited Hospitals (Joint Commission International) with well-established set of standards to be met when certifying a global hospital or a medical facility.

With the expected increase in the Baby Boomer population there is much opportunity. This is an additional important factor for the increased demand for Medical Tourism as they are expected to reach 61 millions by the year 2030 and about 220 million baby-boomers in the United States, Canada, Europe, Australia who will need expensive medical treatment and care (Williams, 2016). Younger generation provide demand for medical tourism as well. A 2010 study showed 81% of travelers are below 50 years of age (Florida Tax Watch, 2014).

Florida Medical Tourism is to continue to attract and serve clients in the Inbound,
Outbound and Domestic markets while making strategic partnership with other healthcare providers locally and globally. Similarly, it is to form an ecosystem with all other complimentary services such as hospitality, transportation, translation and other needed services. Florida Medical Tourism believes in the economic health of Florida and its future competitiveness in the medical tourism industry.

References


Environmentally Friendly Efforts Scale in Cruise Industry

Frida Bahja
University of Central Florida

Cihan Cobanoglu
University of South Florida, Florida

Abstract

Cruise lines are increasing their environmental efforts due to the cruise vacationers demand for more pro-environmental practices. The greening of cruise industry has taken the attention of researchers and several studies are conducted in this area. However, there has not been yet developed a scale to measure the cruise lines environmental efforts. Hence, the purpose of this study is to develop and validate a scale about environmentally friendly efforts in the cruise industry. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was employed to identify the underlying dimensions of environmentally friendly efforts. The EFA test loaded on two factors: environmentally friendly efforts from cruise vacationers (EFECV) and environmental friendly efforts from cruise lines (EFECL). A new set of data is collected to conduct confirmatory factor analysis on the scale. Study offers theoretical and empirical implications.

Introduction

Negative impacts of cruise industry on the environment, climate changes and depletion of natural resources have been evaluated lately (Klein, 2011; Caric, 2012; Wong, 2004). Cruise lines’ environmental efforts seem to increase since the cruise vacationers are demanding more pro-environmental practices (Klein, 2011). The cruise lines are investing in creating an environmental friendly image of the cruise industry (Sweeting and Wayne, 2006). CLIA has published 2016 Environment Sustainability Report and 2016 Cruise Industry Environment Infographic showing interest about sustainability (including the environmental friendly practices) of the cruise industry.

Cruise lines nowadays tend towards implementing environmental friendly practices such as zero solid waste discharge, green technology and waste management, and recycling policies (Baker & Stockton, 2013). For instance, Royal Caribbean and Carnival both intends to decrease their greenhouse-gas emissions by up to 35 percent from 2016 to 2021 and give $2.5 million to fund research on mangroves and coral reef restoration in order to help the sustainability of cruise tourism and improve the negative environmental impacts (Zissu, 2016). However, to the best of researcher’s knowledge there has not been developed a scale yet to measure the cruise lines environmental efforts. Hence, the purpose of this study is to develop and validate a scale about environmental friendly efforts in the cruise industry.

Literature Review

The cruise vacationers’ demand for more pro-environment practices in cruise industry is increasing (Klein, 2011). An Adams (2014) study showed that two out of three cruise vacationers
prefer cruise lines that are corporate social and environmentally responsible. Several studies focused on analyzing the environmental friendliness of a cruise company and its perceived importance when selecting a cruise vacation (Ackerman, 2015; Han & Hwang, 2016). Results of the Ackerman (2015) study reveal that 29.2 percent of respondents rated the cruise environmental friendliness as moderately important, while 41.60 percent rated it as important.

The corporate social responsibility in cruise industry is an approach based on the stakeholders’ theory on CSR (De Grosbois, 2016). This theory emphasizes the importance of considering the incorporation of ethical, social and environmental values on voluntary basis in leading an organization (Coles, Fenclova, & Dinan, 2013). The cruise lines should focus their environmental friendly efforts in three major impacts of their activity: the hoteling impacts, the mooring impacts, and the cruising impacts (Lamers, Eijgelaar, & Amelung, 2015). External support from government on environmental focused incentives and cruise vacationers’ pro-environmental friendly behaviors can help cruise lines in improving their environmental friendly initiatives (Coles et al., 2013).

**Methodology**

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate a scale about environmental friendly efforts in the cruise industry capturing the perception of cruise vacationers. Study utilized the environmental friendliness scale from the sustainability criteria presented by Ackerman (2015) study, which was based on the criteria set by Global Sustainable Tourism Council for hotels and tour operators, and the certification standards presented by Green Globe. This study employed a quantitative research approach. A self-administered web survey was developed based on the findings of literature review. The study population for this study were considered United States residents, who have cruise vacationed at least once. Data was collected through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) online platform. A total of 450 valid responses was collected.

**Results**

The results of correlation matrix for this study were 0.00000146, meaning that the use of Exploratory Factor Analysis is appropriate. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy test was acceptable KMO=0.903 >0.50, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant p<0.001(<0.05). The results of Eigenvalues show that only 2 factors have values higher than 1 as presented in Table 1. The total extraction sum of squared loadings is 73.72 percent.

The results of two factors were named environmental friendly efforts from cruise vacationers (EFECV) (six items with Cronbach’s Alpha reliable 0.921) and environmental friendly efforts from cruise lines (EFECL) (two items with Cronbach’s Alpha reliable 0.70).

Paired t-test was conducted to explore if there was any statistically significant difference in the perceptions of respondents for environmental friendly efforts of cruise line and cruise vacationers. Results of paired samples t-test revealed statistically significant differences in the perception of environmental friendly efforts between cruise line (M = 14.98, SD = 5.436) and cruise vacationers (M = 5.09 SD = 5.436), t (449) = - 43.187, p < 0.01. Pearson coefficient, 0.491, showed a positive moderate correlation between the scales.
Discussions and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate a scale about environmental friendly efforts in the cruise industry. The results of Kaiser test presented 2 factors: Environmental friendly Efforts from Cruise Lines (EFECL) and Environmental Friendly Efforts from Cruise Vacationers (EFECV). Both scales were found to be reliable EFECL and EFECV. This study contributes to the body of knowledge with development of a new scale that can measure environmental friendliness of efforts in cruise industry as perceived by cruise vacationers.

The findings of this study present empirical implications for the practitioners of cruise industry by providing new insights on environmental friendly efforts of cruise lines and cruise vacationers. Based on this understanding, the cruise industry practitioners can design management, operations, and marketing strategies on promoting their green efforts. Also, the understanding of cruise vacationers’ efforts can serve to engage cruise vacationers in environmental friendly activities during their cruise vacation. This study is not free from limitations. The sample was limited to U.S. residents only, hence, the generalization of the findings of this study is limited. In addition, future studies should collect data in field and compare the results.

References


Why We Go: Motivations and Intentions of Individuals Visiting Dark Tourism Destinations

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Abstract

Dark tourism, academically recognized as thanatourism, is a new area of tourism that has grown in interest over the past decade (Biran & Hyde, 2013; Lennon & Foley, 1999). Thanatourism is defined as “travel to a location wholly, or partially, motivated by the desire for actual or symbolic encounters with death, particularly, but not exclusively, violent death” (Seaton, 1996; Sharpley & Stone, 2009, p. 15). Dark tourism is more than a simple fascination with death, it is also a powerful lens that allows contemporary life and death to be witnessed and relationships with broader societies and culture (Stone, 2013). Dark tourism is an increasingly popular research topic for the tourism industry, however it has been lacking in empirical research contribution. This study provides empirical research to demonstrate and analyze the relationships between four dark tourism constructs (i.e., dark experience, engaging entertainment, unique learning experience, and casual interest) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) constructs (i.e., attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intentions).

The purpose of this study was to determine the motivations and intentions of individuals who have previously visited a dark tourism destination. A new theoretical framework was created to determine this information. This research is needed due to the lack of strong empirical research supporting actual consumer motivations driving individuals to visit dark tourism locations. This research provides a bridge in the current knowledge gap that exists related to consumer behavior and dark tourism.

Hypothesis & Research Model

The research model utilized for this study is formed around the TPB which is widely used to support research efforts related to tourist behavior (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Han, et al., 2010; Han & Kim, 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006). In combination with TPB, the four dark tourism constructs were adapted from a thesis completed by Bissell (2009).

The construct “Dark Experience” was tested in this study, asking questions related to death, fascination with death, abnormal, and/or bizarre events and locations. Raine’s (2013) research found that certain types of tourists are morbidly curious and thrill seekers. The following hypotheses were developed based upon the previous literature to test the relationship to Dark Experience:

- H1: Dark Experience will have a positive relationship with Attitudes
- H2: Dark Experience will have a positive relationship with Subjective Norm

The next construct tested, “Engaging Entertainment,” was utilized to determine if
personal or emotional connections to a dark tourism location influences motivation and intention. When tourists perceive a site to be part of their own heritage, they show greater interest in visiting (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004). Based upon previous research the following hypotheses were developed to test the relationships of the construct of Engaging Entertainment:

- **H3**: Engaging Entertainment will have a positive relationship with Attitudes
- **H4**: Engaging Entertainment will have a positive relationship with Subjective Norm

The third dark tourism construct tested was “Unique Learning Experience.” Many tourists visit burial sites and graveyards for educational purposes rather than being emotionally involved and only visiting for pleasurable experiences (Raine, 2013). Based upon previous literature the following hypotheses were developed to examine the construct of Unique Learning Experience:

- **H5**: Unique Learning Experience will have a positive relationship with Attitudes
- **H6**: Unique Learning Experience will have a positive relationship with Subjective Norm

The final dark tourism construct tested was “Casual Interest.” Raine (2013) found that tourists could be classified as sightseers, retreater, or passive recreationalists. The visits incurred by these individuals were considered incidental because the visits were unplanned and were often visiting the dark tourism site for reasons other than to experience events related to death (Raine, 2013). To examine this construct, the following hypotheses statements were developed:

- **H7**: Casual Interest will have a positive relationship with Attitudes
- **H8**: Casual Interest will have a positive relationship with Subjective Norm

In regard to understanding intentions of tourists to dark tourism locations, we must understand the “relative importance of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control in the prediction of intention is expected to vary across behaviors and situations” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). Typically, individuals will tend to be more likely to engage in behaviors that are believed to be achievable (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Bandura, 1997). The perceived behavioral control is what actually influences the tourists’ intentions and their perception of their ability to perform a specific behavior. The remaining three hypotheses statements were developed to determine relationships between the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) constructs. Those three hypotheses statements are:

- **H9**: Attitudes will have a positive relationship with Intention
- **H10**: Subjective Norm will have a negative relationship with Intention
- **H11**: Perceived Behavioral Control will have a positive relationship with Intention

**Methodology**

To complete this study, measurement items that were previously developed and validated were adapted to fit this study (Ajzen, 1991; Biran, et al., 2014; Bissell, 2009; Lam &
The construct items utilized in this study were developed to determine the relationships of consumer behaviors and motivations of tourists traveling to dark tourism locations. The dark tourism constructs: dark experience (DE), engaging entertainment (EE), unique learning experience (ULE), and casual interest (CI) were tested in relationship to the TPB constructs: attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral controls, and behavioral intentions.

The survey was dispersed to Qualtrics electronic database panels that were solicited to complete the research. The survey was taken by individuals who declared they had visited a dark tourism location within the past 24 months. A total of 651 survey participants provided usable responses. Using the survey responses, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed first to test model fit and reliability and validity of variables (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). After the CFA was performed, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was utilized to test the strength and relationship of the proposed model structural hypotheses (Kline, 2005). AMOS 22 was utilized for all testing of this study.

**Results**

The primary group of individuals that participated in the study were female (61.6%) and between the ages of 25 to 34 years of age (45%). Many of the survey participants had a bachelor’s degree in college (32%) or have completed some college but had not received a college degree (23%). The majority of participants were married (57.1%) with various income levels. Participants who completed the survey were from all around the world having visited many different international dark tourism locations.

The results of this study support Hypothesis 1 indicating that tourists are curious, intrigued, or interested by dark experiences with paranormal. Hypothesis 2 was also supported which shows that dark experience has a positive relationship with subjective norms indicating that tourists do not mind or care about what others think of their tourism choices and will continue to make travel destination choices based on their personal beliefs and/or preferences. Interestingly, the results for Hypothesis 3 and 4 were not supported, indicating that there is no significant relationship between engaging entertainment and attitudes or subjective norms. When reviewing the results, the data did not support Hypothesis 3 because it signaled a negative relationship instead of positive relationship. Adversely, with Hypothesis 4, data proved there was not a supported relationship between engaging entertainment and subjective norms. The results proved that Hypothesis 5 was not supported; instead of it indicating a positive relationship as predicted, it supported a negative relationship between unique learning experience and attitudes. Hypothesis 6 was also not supported with a strong enough relationship between unique learning environment and subjective norm. Hypothesis 7 and 8 were supported by positive relationships between casual interest and attitudes and subjective norms. The results of the study also indicated that attitudes have a positive relationship with intention supporting Hypothesis 9.

Hypothesis 10 was not supported by the results of this study; a positive relationship between subjective norm and intention exists. Hypothesis 11 was supported with a positive relationship between planned behavioral control and intention. Overall, it can be seen that the majority of the relationships between the dark tourism constructs and TPB constructs were well matched and proved to be significant.

A visual representative of the complete results can be found in Table 1 and Figure 1.
Conclusion and Implications

Overall, it can be concluded from this research study that tourists are curious or intrigued by visiting dark tourism location. Factor loadings of questions related the dark experience construct questions provided the strongest results. Tourists visiting dark tourism locations do not care or allow societal norms to influence their decisions to visit. Practitioners can use this data to properly market their locations to tourists since it provides insight as to why they are traveling to dark locations. In conclusion, this was an interesting study that provided a great deal of insight into the motivations and intentions of dark tourists. There were many future research opportunities and limitations to address within this study that will be discussed during the conference presentation.

References


Local Concern for Sustainable Tourism Development: San Juan de Los Remedios, Cuba

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Introduction

The growing global concern for sustainable and alternative tourism development has strengthened the scientific research and management of tourist destinations (Edgell and Swanson, 2013; Postma, et al., 2017). In this context, the objective of the research is to define the tourism system at the heritage city of San Juan de Los Remedios as a base from which to diagnose challenges that characterize the urban-tourist space in the current scenario and to establish strategic projections that direct future sustainable tourism development at a local level.

Outcomes from the work performed includes an inventory of the local tourism system, which deepened understanding and informed systematization of the urbanized tourist space, the tourist value of the urban space, the composition of the tourism infrastructure, and the configuration of a tourism development model for the city. Based on the findings, a diagnosis study is presented, substantiated on the situational analysis of tourism development, which served as a base for the city’s sustainable tourism development proposal. The results are valuable to local decision-makers, tourism entrepreneurs, and the host community.

It concludes that there is favorable potential for urban tourism use, though this is not currently being pursued in a sustainable way; further, there is a lack of regional-territorial cohesion. This situation demands higher levels of strategic planning, as well as the creation of a destination management organization and a tourism observatory at a local-regional level (UN, 2015). These approaches would strengthen the holistic management of the territory and lead to the creation of a competitive, multi-purpose, multi-product destination.

Methods

The methodology utilized a qualitative-quantitative and applied study, in which a deductive approach that transitioned from explanatory theory to a case study was utilized. The approach is justified in the interest of greater comprehension and implementation of the formulation of the tourist space according to its history, local context and temporal changes from a strategic perspective. It corresponds to an investigation of propositional character with a multidisciplinary approach in which the fundamentals of tourism strategic planning were used. A detailed document review was concluded, along with interviews with specialists, researchers,
academics and managers; case analysis; secondary data systematization; and field work for the information gathering and validation of proposals.

Empirical methods were used on the gathering, registration, measurement, analysis, and interpretation of representative data of reality, such as participatory observation, documents analysis, polls, experts’ judgment, case studies and working groups. Theoretical methods were employed for comprehension of the current scientific theory, regularities and characteristics essential to identification of the research object, such as analytical-syntactical, inductive-deductive, historical-logical, systemic-structural and conceptual modeling.

Regarding the selected methods, various conceptual techniques were used, descriptive and projective, that supported the study of the tourism system's inventory, the diagnosis using the SWOT technique, and the strategic participative projection in which different actors and groups of interests were involved through working sessions oriented to the consolidation of sustainable tourism (Sustainability Leader Project, 2016; ITR, 2017).

Findings and Implications

The city of San Juan de Los Remedios is one of the better preserved urban centers reflecting 18th and 19th Century Cuban architecture. Although this city constitutes an international tourism center, there is no structured development model. However, there is evidence of a progressive process of the enhancement of tourist value of heritage consecutively with a layout of an urban tourism development model. In alignment with this, the organization of space for tourist use is marked by the rationalization of urban functional uses, including residential, commercial and industrial, and the progressive, but regulated, integration of the local community.

A SWOT Matrix was elaborated, in which the highest total value impact was the “Illusion” quadrant, which indicates the opportunities there are in the current scenario that cannot be taken advantage of because of the weaknesses identified. Followed in points was the “Strategy” quadrant, which reflect its strengths. Then, the next value impact corresponds to the “High Risk” quadrant, evidencing the threats that make the destination more vulnerable, in consequence of the weaknesses it has. Finally, the lowest value corresponds to the “Fragility” quadrant that augment the threats that inhibit application of the strengths.

Based on the situational SWOT analysis the following strategic problem was formulated: there is a lack of tourist culture in the local population and lack of preparation of the managers of tourism to adequately evaluate the value of the local cultural heritage. This is in a context in which the market expectations are increasingly higher, there are economic recessions and the tourist flows are concentrated in other nearby urban destinations.

Therefore, the opportunity of urban cultural tourism positioning will not be maximized irrespective of the great patrimonial value of the city and the human talent that exists there.

The solution to the problem must therefore be oriented from the formation of a tourism culture within the local population and the decision makers, particularly emphasized in the training of tourism managers, cultural heritage value enhancement, and resolving the lack of information and effective communication mechanisms. In addition, an integrated solution for these destinations will require investments in infrastructure and improvement in the image of the urban landscape. The response offered in the research corresponds to an adaptive strategy which
is intended to address the insufficient tourist culture within the local community and the decision makers, as well as the lack of training of the tourism managers on the cultural heritage value enhancement. The strategy recognizes the opportunities related to the positioning of cultural tourism as a growing modality, favored by conservation and in respect of heritage campaigns and the growing demand for tourist activity in historical-cultural cities.

Conclusion

Urbanization of tourist space in the city of San Juan de Los Remedios is heavily influenced by the rich local history, cultural heritage both tangible and intangible, the urban landscape and its colonial architecture. Despite the high attractiveness, accessibility and connectivity that supports the favorable potential use for tourism, there is no tourism development plan based on the principles of sustainability. Traditional tourism development models have been employed along with management strategies that have not shaped territorial cohesion within regional context in which tourism takes place. In that manner, the functionality of tourist space must optimize use based on the attractions, focusing on groups with cultural and cognitive motivations (higher value exponents of the city), as well as the integration of the host community in the tourist process with a more endogenous and participative approach.

To date, the planned development of local tourism has been oriented with more attention to the types and levels of tourist assimilation required and to the scale of development, especially of the tourist infrastructure and the extra-hotel network. The sustainable tourism development model should clearly develop the organization of tourism space, hierarchies of tourism space, tourist functions, required levels of protection in light of levels of vulnerability, functional relationships, orientation of tourist flows and areas of gravitation according to load capacity.

The medium and long-term implications of the study could guide the creation and consolidation of a Destination Management Organization and a Tourism Observatory at a local-regional level, in which the cities of Remedios, Caibarién and the sun and beach destination of “Cayos de Villa Clara” are integrated. This would strengthen the holistic management of the territory and would lead to the positioning of a more attractive multi-product offering with more coherent, diverse, multi-purpose and competitive destinations.

References


Medical Tourism: A Post-visit Study on Perceived Medical Quality, Destination Image Components and Revisit Intention

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Abstract
In the context of medical tourism, insofar a few studies have looked into the interplay of perceived quality, destination image, perceived risks, but most of them are from a pre-visit standpoint. Moreover, most studies have used overall image instead of looking into specific components of the tourists’ post-visit destination image. Using halo effect as the predominant theoretical foundation, we examine how perceived medical quality affects components of post-visit destination image (infrastructure, attraction, value for money, and enjoyment) and how each of these components influence Bangladeshi medical tourists’ re-visit intentions. Based on an extensive review of prevalent literature, 8 hypotheses and a survey is developed. The target sample is Bangladeshi medical tourists who traveled abroad for medical tourism in the last two years.

Keywords: Medical Tourism, destination image, revisit intention

Introduction
Medical tourism (MT) is booming rapidly (Connell, 2011). Medical tourism refers to patients leaving their resident country, crossing the border with the intention of getting medical care, often surgeries (Johnston et al. 2010). The medical tourism market gained a value of US$46.46 billion in 2016, and it is forecasted to reach US$160.8 billion by the end of 2025 (Transparency Market Research, 2017). To gain a greater market share in the competitive medical tourism market, medical tourism destinations market towards individuals who are seeking top-notch health care facilities combined with the tourist destination (Han & Hyun, 2015).

There is a growing literature examining the expanding market (Chuang et al., 2014), including decision making and motivation (Runnels & Carrera, 2012), impact of quality, satisfaction, trust and price fairness on customer retention (Han & Hyun, 2015), impact of online WOM on destination trust and intention to travel (Abubakar & Ilkan, 2016), patient satisfaction, loyalty and quality of medical service (Kim et al., 2017), etc. Little is known about how the medical tourists view their experience, and the relationships between perceived quality of medical service, post visit destination image, and revisit intention. A number of studies have looked into the interplay of perceived quality, destination image, perceived risks, but most of them are from a pre-visit standpoint. Moreover, most studies have used overall image instead of looking into specific components of the tourists’ post-visit destination image (Zhang et al., 2014).
Research Objective

The purpose of this study is to find out how perceived medical service quality influence components of destination image (infrastructure, attraction, value for money, and enjoyment), and how these components in turn affect revisit intention of Bangladeshi outbound medical tourists. We also examine how these relations vary depending on length of stay, travel-group size, and complexity of medical treatment. Therefore, the study addresses the following research questions with both practical and theoretical implications:

RQ1: To what extent does perceived quality of a medical service influence the components of medical tourists’ post-visit destination image?

RQ2: To what extent the components of medical tourists’ post-visit destination image influence their revisit intention?

This study can help practitioners better understand medical tourists’ experience, key factors like perceived medical quality of the patients’ experience, and the role of different components of destination image.

Literature Review

Understanding Destination Image

Destination image is defined as perceptions that individuals have about a destination (Hunt, 1975). The most commonly used classification of destination image is the cognitive-affective theoretical model of image formation. Cognitive evaluation refers to beliefs and knowledge about a destination whereas affective image refers to feelings about the destination (Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Gartner, 1993). Together, the cognitive and affective evaluation forms the overall image of a destination (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999).

The image of the destination influences med-tourist decisions (Abubakar & Ilkan, 2016). Byon and Zhang (2010) developed an eighteen-item destination image scale which included four robust factors: infrastructure, attraction, value for money, and enjoyment. Infrastructure, attraction, and value for money represent cognitive parts of the image, while enjoyment represents the affective component (Byon and Zhang, 2010). We are considering these four components in this study as they are applicable for a MT destination post visitation. Studies have shown that tourists’ pre and post visit destination images can differ considerably (Yilmaz et al. 2009; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). It has been established that actual visitation creates a more realistic destination image than the image tourists have prior to the visit (Gartner, 1989; Gunn 1972; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991). We are primarily concerned with the realistic destination specific components of post-visit destination image in this study.

The tourism infrastructure of a destination such as accommodation, transportation, restaurants, safety are integral to the quality of medical tourism (Connell, 2013). Fescherin and Stephano (2016) listed tourism destination as a factor of Medical Tourism Index (MDI). It includes cultural or natural attractions, attractiveness, popularity, and exoticism of the destination. Tourism destination factor weighted 16% out of four factors and showed statistical significance in the overall Medical Tourism Index (Fetscherin and Stephano, 2016). Tourists’ value for money reflects the trade-off between service costs and service received. The value for
money of medical tourism includes both cost savings and service quality (Debata et al. 2015). The same medical procedure in India costs around 10% of the price in USA or Britain causing an increasing number of medical tourists to seek value for money (Debata et al. 2015). For example, a heart bypass surgery that costs around USD $100,000 in the USA can be performed around $10,000 to $20,000 at high-end hospitals abroad in various destinations worldwide (Connell, 2013). Product quality can be divided into three components; perceived medical quality, perceived service quality, and perceived enjoyment (Wang, 2012). Enjoyment can be an important factor in medical tourism because people need to relax while they are under stress.

**Perceived Medical Service Quality and Halo Effect**

Overall causal relationships between medical service quality, and intention to revisit seemed to have the greatest effect on treatment effectiveness and patient satisfaction (Kim et al, 2017). Quality of medical service is considered by medical tourists as the most important attribute for destination selection (Jotikasthira, 2010; Abubakar and Iikan, 2016). More specifically, factors such as overall quality of medical care (Berkowitz and Flexner, 1980), quality of doctors (Heung et al., 2011), and quality and reputation of hospital (Yu and Ko, 2012; Connel, 2006; Heung et al., 2011) contribute in MT destination choice. According to Lu and Wu (2018), higher service quality of medical facility leads to better corporate image of the medical facility.

Halo effect is defined generally as a tendency to let overall impression color evaluation of specific traits of objects (Ghiselli, 1955). For example, customers are often found to have bias toward certain products because of favorable or unfavorable experience with other products made by the same company or brand. In case of MT, medical tourists’ positive perceived quality of the medical care might spill over to a positive image of the destination and its components. Likewise the opposite might also result. A negative experience resulting in a low perceived quality of the medical facility might create a negative image of the destination and its components. The following hypotheses are proposed based on the prevalent literature review:

**H1.** Perceived quality of medical service has a statistically significant positive impact on post-visit destination image of infrastructure.

**H2.** Perceived quality of medical service has a statistically significant positive impact on post-visit destination image of attractions.

**H3.** Perceived quality of medical service has a statistically significant positive impact on post-visit destination image of value of money.

**H4.** Perceived quality of medical service has a statistically significant positive impact on post-visit destination image of enjoyment.

**Revisit Intention**

Revisit intention refers to the willingness of a visitor repeating an activity or revisiting a destination (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Zhang et al. (2014) through a meta-analysis of 35 articles found a strong connection between destination image and behavioral loyalty, represented by visit or revisit intentions. Most destination image studies in the literature consider the tourists’ pre-
visit image, which is not always the best indicator of revisit intention. For instance, de la Hoz-Correa and Munoz-Leiva (2018) found that overall image and cognitive image of a destination influenced intention to visit a MT destination. Studies have seldom looked into the influence of the different components of post-visit destination image on revisit intention. Therefore, this study proposed the four hypotheses:

**H5.** Image of infrastructure has statistically significant positive influence on revisit intention.

**H6.** Image of attractions have statistically significant positive influence on revisit intention.

**H7.** Image of value for money has statistically significant positive influence on revisit intention.

**H8.** Image of enjoyment has statistically significant positive influence on revisit intention.

**Method:**

The target sample include Bangladeshi medical tourists who traveled abroad for medical tourism in the last 2 years. We have contracted with a local consumer panel company to solicit responses for this niche sample of outbound Bangladeshi medical tourists. A self-report survey was developed using Qualtrics. Data collection is by means of telephone surveys. Destination image will be measured using Byon and Zhang’s (2010) 18-item destination image scale. The scale has 4 factors – infrastructure, attraction, value for money, and enjoyment. Perceived medical quality will be measured from previously validated three item scale used by Oh (2000) and Han and Hyun (2015). Revisit intention will be measured using three items adopted from Lam and Hsu (2006). Demographic and psychographic information will be collected via questions about gender, age, education, marital status, income, country visited, travel-group size, length of stay, and complexity of treatment. The questions were all measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The survey will be translated to Bengali, the official language of Bangladesh and then back-translated to English as a form of validation for accurate wording. Data will be analyzed in SPSS and AMOS. Descriptive analysis and structural equations modeling will carried out to examine the data and the proposed relationships.

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The Living Room Concept in the Hotel Lobby

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Abstract

The quality of hotels has greatly advanced over several centuries, especially when one looks at services, however, the basic function of the hotel has remained the same. As more and more niche markets are developing as a response to guest preferences and sophistication, there is an increase in global demand for customization and in general a desire for hotel interior design to keep up with the current trends. The new socio-cultural changes and technological advancements need to be reflected in the overall hotel design as well in order to satisfy the customers. The lobby has recently become a place where things happen, leaning more towards a public space, an extension of the street, combining the workplace, the bar, the retail, and an art gallery in one (Sam Jacob, architect, and designer). This area represents an important gathering spot; some might say a destination in itself.

Introduction

The quality of hotels has greatly advanced over several centuries, especially when one looks at services, however, the basic function of the hotel has remained the same. As more and more niche markets are developing as a response to guest preferences and sophistication, there is an increase in global demand for customization and in general a desire for hotel interior design to keep up with the current trends. The new socio-cultural changes and technological advancements need to be reflected in the overall hotel design as well in order to satisfy the customers. Customer satisfaction has always been the focus on hospitality entities as this satisfaction ultimately leads to good financial performance. In a study conducted by Zenke et al. (2018) the importance of creating a unique atmosphere is pointed out as well as maintaining it. The nature of the hospitality industry is very competitive and therefore each property needs to distinguish themselves in the eyes of the consumer; careful design of the physical environment will have a positive impact on those first impressions and therefore creating competitive advantage (Baek and Ok, 2017; Hightower et al., 2002).

“The lobby is the first chapter in the story of your experience at the hotel (Kelly Wearstler, designer), as it is the very first room a guest will experience when they arrive. It plays an important role when first impressions are formed, and first impressions have proved to be lasting. Andorka (1997) explains that these first impressions are actually made on account of the physical environment of the hotel lobby. Looking back at the 1800’s the lobby area of a hotel was the place to see and be seen, as the hotel rooms were small, and these public areas were spacious and well decorated, making it desirable for the guests to stay longer and socialize, which was the aim of the hotel as well; closer to our decades the lobby started acted more like a waiting room rather than a social hub (Carmichael, 2018).
The lobby has recently become a place where things happen, leaning more towards a public space, an extension of the street, combining the workplace, the bar, the retail, and an art gallery in one (Sam Jacob, architect, and designer). This area represents an important gathering spot; some might say a destination in itself. Designer such as Oliver Marlow of Studio TILT portray the new lobby are as a hybrid with multi-functional purpose; furthermore, a large pool of demographics is happily embracing these new trends (Anand, 2017). Looking at these contemporary changes of blending of the public and private spaces the lobby areas are slowly moving to towards shared spaces where everyone is welcomed and therefore the purpose of this study is to further explore the living room concept and the trend of shared spaces within the hotel lobby.

**Literature Review**

The lobby, although an important part of the hotel has received little attention in the literature, the little literature this available being outdated. The media, on the other hand, has been looking at trends and exploring the good and bad designs of the hotel lobby. Furthermore, it has followed up with it the intertwined transformation of the hotel lobby along with the social-cultural environment, and therefore much more resources on the topic are available from various media outlets, including interviews from renowned designer and architects. As there is a gap in the literature for this topic, the literature will be divided into research papers and industry/media articles.

**Research Papers**

The hotel lobby is the main area which a guest will encounter, and many hoteliers are using this space to differentiate themselves from the competition; among the many public areas of the hotel, it has the greatest impact on guests and visitors (Naqshbandi & Munir, 2011). The available literature points out that millennials, which is currently made up for a large portion of the traveling marketing (Bastawroos, 2017). Furthermore, in the same study, the author discussed the changes that the hotel rooms are undergoing as the lobby is becoming much more popular; the lobby area serving as both a wok and a social place. Another paper that also looks at millennials, concludes that he hoteliers need to focus on their lobby area’s and make them appropriate for socialization (Pentescu, 2016). Socialization plays a very important role in the life of millennials and therefore hospitality entities need to accommodate this need (Hartman & McCambridge, 2011).

**Industry/Media Articles**

The expectation of travelers is always evolving and changing, and in order to meet these current expectations, hoteliers need to infuse their hotels with areas that with social spaces that promote the interaction between guests (Kirk, 2018). As a result, the lobby areas are becoming more spacious and welcoming, filled with different artifacts and art, that will create that unique experience (Caulfield, 2016). Pardo (2018) also explains that by capturing the guests in the hotel experience by offering drinks or food readily available from the lobby, it will make the whole space perception more dynamic and engaging, adding to the whole experience.

The media is very vocal when it comes to the transformation of the lobby and in general the movement towards the living room concept. Lobbies and the communal places are the main attraction for the young generation who do not want to stay in their room (Center,
2018), many hotel brands are also making their hotel room smaller (Fox, 2017); furthermore, for business travelers these types of lobbies become like an extension of their office. The lobby moves away from a simple place to wait for something that allows the guests to live, work, and play (Caulfield, 2016).

In 2017, Skift magazine was discussing the trend of co-everything in hospitality and the tendency to investing in spaces that will bring people and experiences together. The hotels have the great infrastructure that can do so with the lobby; therefore, the hoteliers are working hard to make the design in such a way that it will make the guest feel as if they were living there (Ting, 2017). Klburn (2018) also discusses the evolution of the lobby into an expanded living room, emphasizing on the common space, privacy, but at the same time not being alone. As the lobby is the first area a guest encounters it should be inviting, not pragmatic; the front desks are being converted to sit down areas, where the guests can relax and have coffee and event fancy cocktails. Furthermore, some hoteliers go even beyond this and incorporate bookstores, galleries, or libraries, inviting non-hotel guests too and promoting that social interaction that was mentioned before (N.A., 2018). This trend of both guests and locals using the hotel lobby is also playing an important part in the transformation. Not only that the waiting areas are becoming shared spaces, but they are also doing so by keeping up with the latest technological upgrades and consumer preferences. There is a much greater emphasis on one-off lobbies rather than the standardized and dull traditional lobby (Alexandre, 2016).

Methods

Interviews will be conducted with hotel managers discussing the implications of hotel lobby designs, how it impacts the hotel performance and guest satisfaction. Interviews were chosen to be able to explore in depth exploration (Bristowe et al., 2018). Furthermore, the collected interviews will be transcribed and analyzed with NVivo Software.

Expected Findings and Implications

The purpose of this study is to explore the opinion of the hotel managers when it comes to the new trend of the hotel lobby as a living room. It is expected to find that hoteliers are acknowledging the change in the hotel lobby design, the movement towards the living room design. Furthermore, future trends predictions will also be discussed.

References


Seeing is Believing? A Study of Employee Smoking and Customers’ Perception

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Introduction
In today’s increasingly competitive environment, where attracting and retaining customers is more critical than ever, restaurant owners and operators should consider the customers’ perspective on food safety in restaurants and employees’ hygiene standards, such as smoking, that consumers might face during their dining experiences. Although a majority of studies that discuss smoking in the workplace focus on employee wellness programs and cessation, few studies have examined employee smoking and customer satisfaction. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to understand the customers’ perception of employees smoking in restaurants, which lead to the satisfaction of their experience.

Literature Review
In the restaurant industry, previous studies indicated that there are several reasons why customers are not satisfied. For example, researchers have found that cleanliness of the restaurant is one of the most important factors influencing customer satisfaction (Barber & Scarcelli, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2008). These studies also indicated that customers judge the cleanliness of the kitchen based on the appearance of employees (Barber, Goodman, & Goh, 2011; Barber & Scarcelli, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2008).

There has been a debate in the hospitality literature in regards to the relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention. Although satisfaction is often considered as a precursor to revisit intention, researchers argued that even if a customer is satisfied, it does not necessarily guarantee that he/she would come back (Berezina, Cobanoglu, Miller, & Kwansa, 2012). In the hospitality industry, there can be many reasons why a consumer would not revisit. One of the reasons could be sanitation issues. Barber, Goodman, and Goh (2011) concluded that cleanliness of a restaurant, especially a restaurant interior and exterior, restrooms, and employees’ hands, hair, and uniforms, influences revisit intention.

Word-of-Mouth (WOM), the information communication among consumers about services or products, is significant in the restaurant industry due to the nature of business (Jeong & Jang, 2011). Previous literature discussed what motivates the consumer to be engaged in WOM; some argued that individuals engage in WOM activities when their expectations are not met, whereas others claimed that motivation for positive WOM and negative WOM is different (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004). Various researchers have argued the motives of WOM. For example, Dichter (1966) argued that a consumer’s desire to share feelings about the product and services was the motivation.

Perceived value is viewed as the ratio between quality and price, which is regarded as a value-for-money model (Cravens, Holland, Lamb, & Moncrieff, 1988; Sweeney, Soutar, &
Perceived value has been found to be a significant predictor of customer satisfaction. However, customer satisfaction is often confused with perceived value because the perceived value has been widely discussed as providing value, whereas satisfaction is considered as meeting a customer’s needs. Sweeney and Soutar (2001) argued that they are distinct as customer satisfaction usually occurs afterward whereas perceived value tends to occur at various stages of purchase.

In a restaurant setting, customers (smokers or non-smokers) might watch employees smoking during their break time (seeing), or they might smell smoking while employees are serving them (smelling). One study found that seeing and smelling had a similar effect on customers’ perception towards the quality of service (Dovey et al., 2012). Another study found that smelling has a much higher impact on customers’ perception and memory of experience (Krishna, 2012). That is because the primary olfactory cortex is located within the piriform cortex at the junction of the temporal and frontal lobes which is the closest from the brain (Gonzalez et al., 2006). Because of that, the transfer of olfactory information differs from any other senses, and the other senses do not have a direct connection like olfactory (Krishna, 2012).

Methodology

A pre-test/post-test experimental design with the given scenarios as the condition was chosen for the survey to study the changes of perception amongst customers before and after exposing them to a smoking employee experience. Four scenarios about employee smoking were developed based on consumers’ exposure to either seeing or smelling of employees’ smoking.

A self-administered questionnaire was developed with four different scenarios to test consumers’ perception regarding employee smoking in a restaurant. Four variables were compared before and after four different scenarios were given. Those variables were satisfaction, revisit intention, positive WOM intention, and value. Questions were adopted from previous literatures after thorough reviews. A nationwide survey was conducted through an online company, Amazon Mechanical Turk (mTurk), and a small financial incentive was given to the respondents who completed the survey and provided the correct survey code, given at the end of the survey.

Results

A total of 550 initial responses were collected. The first question was asked if respondents have any dining experiences within last month. A one-month period was used because Restaurant Statista (2017) showed that more than 75% of Americans dine out at least once a month in a full-service restaurant. After data cleaning and respondents screening, 513 usable responses were used for final analysis. Among all respondents who dined in a full-service restaurant in the United States within the past month, over 52% were female, and 47.1% were male. Over 67.4% of the respondents were between the age of 21 and 40 years old, and the majority of the respondents had at least some college education (89.7%). Approximately 80% of the respondents were Caucasian and had at least some college education (85%). A total of 29.4% of respondents reported their annual income was $70,000 or more while over 35% of respondents indicated it to be $39,999 or less. In addition, 41.3% of respondents were from five most populated states; California, Florida, New York, Texas, and Pennsylvania.

Of the 513 respondents, 53.6% indicated that they have worked in a restaurant. Among them, over 80% of them reported that they worked in the restaurant industry between one and
five years. When asked, over 60% of participants indicated that they generally dine in a full-service restaurant once or twice a month. As indicated earlier, respondents were randomly assigned to one of four scenarios by Qualtrics. Among 480 respondents, 122 received see and smell, 119 received see and no smell, 119 received no see and smell, and 120 received no see and no smell scenarios. Preliminary analyses were conducted to assess if there are any differences between male and female respondents; however, there were no significant differences.

Cronbach’s alpha was used to test the internal consistency of each variable. The alpha levels ranged from .866 to .994; the level of internal consistency was acceptable (higher than .60) for all variables (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

A paired-sample t-test was utilized to see if there were any differences between before and after they read four scenarios: see/smell (SS), see/no smell (SN), no see/smell (NS), or no see/no smell (NN). The mean values in satisfaction, revisit intention, positive WOM, and value were significantly lower after the customers saw a waiting staff smoke and smell the cigarette from the same waiting staff while dining (SS) (see Table 1). Table 2 shows the paired-sample t-test results of the differences in mean values in satisfaction, revisit intention, positive WOM, and value after they saw a server smoke, but did not smell the cigarette from the same server during the meal (SN). The satisfaction, revisit intention, positive WOM, and value were significantly lower after customers observed a server smoke. As shown in Table 3, there were significant differences in satisfaction, revisit intention, positive WOM, and value before and after customers smelled the cigarette smoke from the waiting staff (NS); the mean scores were significantly lower after smelling the cigarette from the server staff. Lastly, the results of paired-sample t-test were mixed when customers did not see a wait staff smoke nor smell their server with cigarette smoke. The mean score difference for satisfaction before and after the condition was not significant; however, revisit intention, WOM, and value showed significant differences before and after the condition.

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to understand the customers’ perception of employee smoking in the restaurant industry. The impact of seeing and smelling cigarette smoke on satisfaction, revisit intention, intention to spread positive WOM, and perceived value was studied with four scenarios.

The results of this study concluded that customers’ level of satisfaction, revisit intention, positive WOM, and perceived value were significantly lower in the following three scenarios: SS, SN, and NS. The SS, SN, and NS situations led to a decrease in customers’ satisfaction with the overall experience in the restaurant and their perception of value of the restaurant. After the scenarios, seeing waiting staff smoking and/or smelling cigarette smoke from the servers were also found to have a negative influence on the customers’ willingness to come back to the restaurant and their likelihood of recommending this restaurant to others and encouraging others to dine at this restaurant. In NN situation, revisit intention, word of mouth, and perceived value were significantly lower after the condition. The differences were less than other conditions, but still were significant. Even though there was no smoking involved in this scenario, the differences of before and after existed. A possible explanation for this result is that customers might feel that it is unprofessional to take the break near the entrance of the restaurant.
From a practical perspective, owners and managers need to pay attention to their employees’ behaviors, especially smoking, because not only it is related to cleanliness and sanitation of the servers, but customers can see them smoking. It is imperative for owners and management to implement a policy prohibiting servers from smoking during their shift. If employees are allowed to smoke during their break, owners and managers should make a smoking area for employees where customers cannot easily see and implement stricter rules about sanitation after smoking.

Limitations of the study provide possible directions for future research. This study focused on the guest’s experience in a full-service restaurant. Extending the study to other types of restaurants, such as quick-service or fine-dining restaurants, might offer different perspectives on seeing and smelling employee smoking and the consequences. In addition, future study can be conducted focusing on the hotel industry. Lastly, the scope of the study was limited and focused on revisit intention, satisfaction, WOM, and value. It would be worthwhile to expand the research on other factors, especially negative viewpoint (e.g., intention to complain, NWOM).

References


The Relationship Between Food Involvement and Behavioral
Characteristics in Food Enthusiasts; A Work-in-progress Study Using
Semi-Structured Interviews With Food Enthusiasts

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Abstract

Food involvement is concerned with the involvement a person has in the acquisition, preparation, and consumption of food. The level of involvement can vary from individual to individual. Measuring food involvement in an individual is the determination of the priority or importance that an individual gives to food in general. A person who is more involved with food is likely to derive more pleasure from the activities associated with food and its consumption. The current study is the first step of a larger project whose final goal is to develop a robust, reliable and validated food involvement scale based on actual behaviors as opposed to attitudes. The first part of the project has focused on uncovering rich descriptive data regarding the underlying food involvement dimensions of self-identified food enthusiasts. Through semi-structured interviews, themes or categories of activities emerged from which a preliminary set of items for the quantitative scale will be developed.
Green Practices With Reusable Drinkware at Music Events: A Student Perspective

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Introduction

Growing interest in green practices has taken a front seat in recent years (Taks, 2013). Extant literature focuses on green practices within events, such as educational conferences, seminars and other meetings (Barber, 2018; Events Industry Council, 2018) but lacks focus on music and sporting events. With the adoption of green practices, music and sports events are beginning to be planned and conducted in an environmentally friendly manner (Wong, 2017).

There is an understanding that personal green practices can foster a better relationship with the environment and aid in lower waste. There is a lack of understanding for reasons related to knowledge of zero waste and participation with environmental sustainability. With younger generations focused on environmental sustainability (Ramahi, 2017), reusable drinkware at music and sporting events can become a better solution to the high amounts of waste produced at said events. By gathering information from undergraduate students in hospitality management, a study can investigate whether students who participate in daily personal green practices have a better overall intention to visit eco-friendly music and sporting event venues. Additionally, researching students’ personal intention to participate in a reusable drinkware program at music and sporting events can aid in the overall study of how effective a closed-loop cycle pertaining to drink cups can be.

Literature Review

Sustainability Practices in Hospitality

The hospitality industry has seen a large rise in sustainability practices in recent years and will continue this trend as new advancements in green practices occur (Lawson, 2018). In general, there are a plethora of large organizations developing to promote sustainable practices while educating travelers (Deale, 2013). Organizations such as Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) works with lodging companies to promote sustainability through a certificate program. The National Restaurant Association (NRA) works diligently to promote sustainability in foodservice operations. Event Management works directly with Meeting Professionals International and Green Meeting Industry Council to advance sustainability efforts in meetings industry.
Hospitality Sustainability Education

The most common definition of sustainability education refers to the education for ecological, economic and social development of the society that promotes interdisciplinary thinking (Jones, Selby, and Sterling, 2010; Warburton 2003). In recent years, educational institutions are responding to the increase in sustainability efforts in hospitality by developing new curriculum to promote and increase sustainability practices and awareness (Liu, Horng, Chou, & Huang, 2017). This push to incorporate teaching on sustainability is highly important as the hospitality industry greatly impacts environmental sustainability. Often in hospitality education, students are faced with case studies or real-world scenarios where they must become creative in their thought process to resolve industry problems. Because the hospitality industry is customer service focused, students must think critically and quickly to solve problems.

According to Liu, Horng, Chou, and Huang (2017), sustainability education is often associated with the types of inspiration and the consequences identified in creative problem solving (CPS). Baer & Kaufman (2012) state the basis of CPS used in education is transformative learning, i.e., being creative in and outside the classroom.

To encourage creativity, Scrobota (2014) discovered means to encourage students who are actively involved to think about potential ideas or opinions that have minimal environmental impact. An emerging new idea in environmental sustainability is zero waste. Students using CPS can begin to think about new ways sustainability can aid in lessening environmental waste in the hospitality industry, more specifically music and sporting events where large amounts of people are in attendance, creating an abundance of waste.

Zero Waste

In the world of recycling, there is a basic principle of reduce, reuse, recycle where the priority lies with recycling as the last line of the hierarchy (Robertson, 2014). Some sustainability specialists recommend adding a fourth, higher priority, “re-think,” to the beginning of the hierarchy: rethink, reuse, reduce, recycle (What is rethink, 2018; Robertson, 2014).

Environmentally sound recycling can develop into a closed-loop cycle. According to Huysman et al., (2015) in closed-loop recycling, the inherent properties of the recycled materials are not considerably different from those of the virgin material. A new phenomenon is approaching the event management sphere which aims to produce zero waste at music events. Upon purchasing a beverage, fans rent an event-branded r.Cup for a small deposit. At the end of the event, fans choose to either take their cup home or return it for their deposit back. R.Cups are stocked in concessions, fans receive r.Cups to refill throughout the event, fans return for deposit back or take-home r.Cups and finally, r.Cups are washed and used at future events (About r.Cup, 2018).

Methods

Sample and Data Collection Procedures

Upon purchasing a beverage, fans rent an event-branded r.Cup for a small deposit. At the end of the event, fans choose to either take their cup home or return it for their deposit back. R.Cups are stocked in concessions, fans receive r.Cups to refill throughout the event, fans return for deposit back or take-home r.Cups and finally, r.Cups are washed and used at future events (About r.Cup, 2018). The sample of this study consisted of 211 undergraduate hospitality
students at four higher education institutions in the Midwest and Southern regions of the U.S. Prior to data collection, the questionnaire was examined by one academic expert and two graduate students to ensure reliability of the instrument. Participants’ educational institutions were contacted via email through personal network. Researchers initially asked permission to survey undergraduate hospitality students. Once permission was obtained, researchers provided online Qualtrics link to instructors and asked to forward to all hospitality students within the current courses being taught. Researchers allowed one week for data collection and followed-up via email. Online questionnaires included an online cover letter to fully explain the study, as part of the survey, prior to completing the questionnaire.

**Survey Instrument**

The survey instrument contained four sections. Section one contained seven total questions about knowledge of the r.Cup and if the participant would take advantage of the program after seeing an infographic on the process of r.Cup. Section two contained 11 questions asking about awareness of sustainability regarding education. Section three contained 28 questions and asked personal green practices on a five-point Likert-type scale. Section four contained 10 demographic questions.

**Results**

The survey was administered to 325 undergraduate hospitality students and 258 completed the questionnaire. Of those, 28 were removed for not completing the questionnaire and 19 were removed for invalid responses. A total of 211 usable surveys were used for data analysis, yielding a 65% response rate. Demographics of the respondents are listed in Table 1. Of the usable surveys collected, 45% were between 18 and 20 years of age, 36.5% were between 21 and 23 years of age, 17.5% were 24 or older. For gender, 65.9% were female students. For education level, 13.3% were freshman, 22.3% were sophomore, 29.9% were junior, 32.7% were seniors.

**Research question 1:** Are undergraduate students aware of r.Cup program at music and sporting events? Table 2 shows responses of undergraduate students’ awareness of the r.Cup, both before and after seeing an infographic explaining the program. Students were not shown to be aware of such programs of reusable drinkware products at music and sporting events, with 94.3% never having heard of the program. There was an increase in knowledge of such programs, with 50.2% reporting to be moderately knowledgeable after seeing the infographic.

**Research question 2:** Would undergraduate students use the r.Cup program and what their intentions would be regarding the reusable cup? Table 3 shows student intentions of using the r.Cup at music or sporting events. More than eight out of 10 respondents reported they were likely to use the r.Cup program in the future. Of the total respondent’s use of the r.Cup program, 65.9% would get their deposit back by returning their cup, 31.3% would take the cup home, and 2.8% would throw away the cup.

**Research question 3:** Is there a relationship between personal green practices and intention to attend an eco-friendly music or sport event. This study found intention to attend an eco-friendly music or sport event to be significantly greater for those who implemented personal green practices more than about half the time (7.50 ± 4.49) than those who implemented personal green practices less than about half the time (10.34 ± 3.78), \( t(209) = 2.85, p = .005 \) (Table 4).

Additionally, this study found intention to attend an eco-friendly music or sport event to
be significantly greater for international students (7.50 ± 4.72) and domestic students (10.29 ± 3.84), $t(202) = 1.996, p = .047$ (Table 5).

**Research question 4: Would students be more likely to take advantage of the r.Cup program if they participate in personal green practices?** This study did not find participants to be more likely to take advantage of the r.Cup program if they reported personal green practices of more than about half the time (2.19 ± 1.33) than those with personal green practices of less than about half the time (2.69 ± 1.55), $t(209) = 1.254, p = .211$ (Table 6). Additionally, this study did not find participants to be significantly more likely to take advantage of the r.Cup program for international students (3.13 ± 1.81) and domestic students (2.62 ± 1.51), $t(202) = -.925, p = .356$ (Table 7).

**Discussion**

The overall data analysis showed that students are considerably unaware of the reusable cup program in music and sporting events. Regarding the research objective in investigating awareness of the r.Cup program, event venues should be encouraged that students feel they are knowledgeable in zero waste products like r.Cup after education on the program itself. It is important for rising generations to be aware of sustainability and practice green initiatives in their personal life. Due to the positive relationship between personal green practices and intentions to visit an eco-friendly event venue, there is hoping to ensure more students are aware of zero waste programs, like r.Cup and take advantage of these programs at music and sporting events. Practicing zero waste at large-scale events can ignite zero waste practices at home. This positive correlation can also result in event venues advertising to a niche subset of people who practice green living daily. With good intentions to visit an eco-friendly event venue, once students learn about the program, even if the knowledge occurs inside the venue, more participation in a zero-waste program like r.Cup can occur. Event venues taking note of r.Cup can lead the way in lowering overhead financials and in turn, pave the way for other large-scale events to follow suit by saving money and reducing plastic on the environment.

**References**


Millennials: The Next Generation of Tippers

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Abstract

The study presents the tipping perceptions and behaviors of members of the Millennial generation (Millennials). Three hundred and sixty (360) Millennials across two universities in the southeast region of the United States completed a three-part survey on tipping. The research finds that tipping behaviors of Millennials differ from those of older generations and that gratuity patterns also vary across gender within the group. While the factors that influence Millennials to tip are in line with other similar studies, the paper takes a closer look into the dining habits and thus tipping patterns of Millennials.

Review of Literature

According to the Department of Labor (2017), seven of the 10 (70%) lowest paying jobs in the U.S. are in restaurant industry with four being tipped occupations (US Department of Labor, 2017). These tips account for the bulk of the earned income of servers - diverting the burden of compensating wait staff from restaurant owners and onto the customers (Lynn, 2004b; Seiter & Weger, 2010). While some restaurants have chosen to go gratuity-free and raise menu prices by twenty percent to pay servers (McAdams & von Massow, 2017; Vasel, 2016), other establishments have considered service charges to help ease the economic tension between the front and back of the house (Hargreaves, 2005).

Currently, Millennials are in what can be termed the early years of their working careers between the ages of 23 and 38 years of age (1980-1995) (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Millennials spend large amounts of money on food and other experiences. However, the generation that lives to eat doesn’t tip - evidenced by the fact fifty percent of Millennial diners tip less (on average) than older age groups (Horovitz, 2014; LaPonsie, 2018). According to a national survey of over 2,000 adults, approximately 1 in 3 (33%) Millennials admit to regularly tipping less than 15% while only 16% of adults age 35 and over fall short of tipping expectations (Horowitz, 2014).

Krystal & Haun (2016) and Thorn (2014) attribute this propensity not to tip appropriately (15% to 20%) to a lack of familiarity with upscale casual and fine dining experiences – and not having a lot of experience with the responsibility of paying the bill.
The lack of standardization in overall server compensation and tipping perceptions makes tipping practices an ongoing concern for restaurant establishments (McAdams & von Massow, 2017; McGeehan, 2005; Sanson, 2015). Given the profile of Millennials, the lack of interest in tipping relates to a lack of knowledge or the idea that tipping removes the perception of achieving value from the dining experience. However, the factors that specifically influence the tipping decisions of these individuals are unknown.

Methodology

In a study originally designed to profile the tipping perceptions of millennials, three hundred and sixty (360) individuals completed a three-part survey. The survey was administered to college students across two universities in the southeast region of the United States. This population was surveyed due to previous research identifying age, ethnicity, and knowledge as having a significant impact in tipping behaviors (M. Lynn, 2004a, 2004b; Prewitt, 2006).

Participants completed a three-part survey. Part I included a five-point Likert type scale evaluation of questions related to scenarios where respondents felt tipping was warranted (18) as identified in a previous study (Michael Lynn, Zinkhan, & Harris, 1993). Part II attempted to gather basic demographic data. These questions were first analyzed on a whole using descriptive statistics. Then, a series of chi-square analyses, T-tests, and one-way analysis of variance was used to profile the responses and detect significant differences according to gender.

Results

Respondents

The response rate was of 100% was obtained mainly due in part to the fact that the data was administered and collected by the researchers during the same setting. A total of three hundred sixty (360) millennials participated in the tipping perception survey. One hundred percent (100%) of the respondents were classified as millennials, having been born between 1982 and 1997. The demographic profile of the respondents indicated that 51.3% were male and 48.7% of were female. Concerning the respondent’s academic classification, the majority (41.6%) of the students were seniors, the respondents also included 21.8 % freshmen, 9.9% sophomores, and 18.6% juniors. The remaining 8.1% of the respondents were classified as other indicating that they perhaps between classifications. All the respondents were business majors.

Factor Loadings

The confirmatory factor analysis ran using a varimax rotation method produced four factors with Eigen values greater than 1 and accounted for 69% of the variance in response to the 16 tipping consideration variables. Factor 1: Basic Service Delivery explained the largest amount of the total variance at 29.77% and contained six variables. Factor 1’s questions inquired about tipping if the server was sincere, delivered error free service, was prompt, available when needed and welcoming. Factor 2: Server Attributes explained 24.40% of the total variance and contained 4 variables. Factor 2’s questions inquired about tipping patterns if the server was of the same ethnic background, attractive, opposite or same sex. Factor 3: Degree of Server Interaction explained 8.29% of the total variance and contained 3 variables. Factor 3’s questions asked if respondents tipped more if the server knew his/her name, was previously known and/or frequently came to the table. Factor 4: Restaurant Infrastructure explained the least amount of the
total variance weighing in at 6.48% with three questions. Factor’s 4’s questions profiled tipping patterns if the restaurant had an attractive ambiance, quality food, and ample parking. Table 1 shows the results of the factor loadings.

**Factor Comparison by Gender**

The present study profiled the potential significant differences between the four factors and gender (male vs. female) (Table 2). With regards to gender, significant differences were found with respect to consideration of Server Attributes, mean score for males (2.68) and females (2.01) (p<.01), and Degree of Server Interaction, mean score for males (3.39) and mean scores for females (3.12), (p<.05), in tipping decision, with these factors being significantly more important to males than to females. Overall, significantly more males than females (p<.01) reported that they tipped more if they order alcohol with their meal. Males and females did not significantly differ in whether or not they tipped more if they receive a complimentary item with meal. No significant differences with respect to gender were found in consideration of Basic Service Delivery and Restaurant Infrastructure in tipping decision.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Four factors were extracted from Millennials to be relevant in regards to their tipping intentions: 1) Basic Service Delivery, 2) Degree of Server Interaction, 3) Server Attributes, and 4) Restaurant Infrastructure. Basic Service Delivery included the warmth of the greeting, sincerity, promptness, the availability of the server as well as the overall quality of service. The Degree of Server Interaction focused on items such as knowing the server’s name, familiarity with the server, and the amount of attention showed by the server. Server Attributes focused on the server’s ethnic background, attractiveness, and gender. Restaurant Infrastructure looked at the ambiance, food quality, and the availability of parking. This study also found that male Millennials found that server attributes and degree of server interaction were more significant in their tipping decision than did females. These factors included ethnicity, attractiveness, familiarity, receiving complimentary items, gender, ordering alcohol, and quality food to be more significant than females when tipping. Of these aspects, ethnicity, ordering alcohol, and gender did not show to be important in themselves registering less than three of five on a 5-point Likert scale.

Millennials are still currently in the early part of their careers (ages 23 – 38). This means that the majority of previous tipping research has not directly focused on their perceptions and behaviors in regards to the practice. Much of tipping behavior is learned from working in the industry, schooling, and dining out (Koku, 2007; Rynes, 2007). Hospitality curriculums and etiquette courses focus more on the operations and the execution of service – not tipping compensation. Karniouchina, Mishra & Verma (2008) found tipping guidelines to be a double-edged sword for the service worker due to the fact that it raises tips for the adequate server but reduces the highest tips (Karniouchina, Mishra, & Verma, 2008).

**References**


Understanding Today’s Hospitality Students Through Direct Observation

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Introduction

How do we know who our students are as people or as learners? Understanding who the students in our classrooms are each class could be vital for relationship building, student learning, and student retention. Often, we attempt to ask students, maybe through a questionnaire or a small focus group, though behavior can be assessed via direct observation. Experienced faculty, as classroom teachers, can understand and assess a classroom of students’ behaviors or even break that down to single students within a group setting. However, the question arises if we see everything in these situations or are important cues missed in the day-to-day classroom activity.

The purpose of this study was to examine today’s hospitality students in their classroom environment to determine their actions and behaviors. Additionally, the researcher observed to further understand if generational learner norms were noticeable amongst hospitality students via classroom and large group settings. The research questions that guided this research were:

- What are the behaviors and actions (1. professional appearance, 2. technology usage, 3. interactions with others) of first-year hospitality students in the classroom?
- How do observed behaviors and actions of the students dictate faculty needs?

Key Literature

Students arrive in hospitality programs each year often with a mix of excitement and nervousness for the unknown. In addition to many key university stakeholders, faculty and administration have critical roles in establishing protocol and ensuring the success of students. Ensuring students’ success and educational effectiveness begins early in the college experience and success can be seen in learning and overall experience (Keup & Kilgo, 2014).

Benckendorff, Ruhanen, and Scott (2009) stressed the need for faculty to stay relevant and up-to-date on learning trends and ensure pedagogy is up to date.

Hospitality programs are often selected based on the reputation of the program (Lu & Adler, 2011), which can become a delivery requirement for the students upon arrival. Erickson, Stone, and Weber (2010) reported initial, positive interactions with faculty and industry professionals can lead to early successes for students. These types of interactions and other critical connection aspects can be delivered via major-based introduction courses, which can be vital for initial student success (Tompson & Brownlee, 2013).

Today’s Student
Generation Z, born beginning in 1996 through 2010 – 2012 (still to be formally finalized) make up our college classrooms at the undergraduate level, while some students are the very end of the Millennial Generation (Dimock, 2018; Elmore, 2014). Generation Z students are complete digital natives, not knowing life without technology and the Internet; they also wish to make a difference in the world, desire to work with authority, and are focused on problem solving in careers (K. Mohr & Mohr, 2017; Seemiller & Grace, 2016). Arthur (2016) explained members of Gen Z wish to have personal identities in life, while online they may take on multiple personas. Students (Gen Z) will be the most tech-savvy of all generations, they are used to and crave instant information access, and they desire personal and direct communication and interactions (Loveland, 2017). There is plenty to know and understand about today’s students and yet they are already in our classrooms and so the timeline, though instant is probably not practical, needs to expedited as faculty to ensure these students are successful.

Methods

This study utilized direct observation of four different groups of students during their initial (first year) hospitality-related course at a Southeastern US University. Unless transfer credits apply, students are required to complete this course as part of their initial class load, regardless of their major/program of choice (hotel management, restaurant management, or sports and events management). The observations took place throughout the length of the courses on various days, split between individual classes (different faculty, different meeting days and times). All observations were conducted by the lead researcher and all collected observations were noted and then organized and cleaned by the research authors.

Results, Discussion, and Recommendations

Four classes were observed over a three-month period during the students’ first set of classes. All classes met two days per week for one hour and fifty minutes and the four classes were taught by three faculty members. Though both the major/program selection and class section were not equal, 105 students were observed throughout the courses. The majority of the students (59%) were female and 97% were true first-year (just graduated high school) students.

Appearance

Students across classes seemed to be nicely dressed based on their chosen fashion; some were in a standard business casual as seen in other generations, while other students were clearly presentable, especially female students, and acceptable for networking but with a sort of modern twist. For example, females wore leggings with long shirts or long sweaters as the temperature chilled and accessorized with jewelry and hair décor. It was interesting to note the male students often tended to be one perspective (business formal attire of shirts, ties often bow ties, and bright colors) to another (casual, athletic gear, though not cheap or dirty in any way). Arthur (2016) reported many of this generation do not seem focused on clothing brand names or material items though are connected to the ideals and organizations they deem relevant. Perhaps this shows in multiple fashions and yet males (surely some females as well) connected to team sports as an example. Though when dressed casually, it was difficult to clearly identify clothing as male or female, rather choices of shirts, hoodies, or jeans could easily have been worn by either sex, which is an increasing focus in fashion (Arthur, 2016).
**Recommendation.** Faculty will need to ensure students learn the appearance standards of their career choice, while also giving students the opportunity to practice and receive feedback in a non-penalizing environment.

**Technology in Class**

Almost all students had technology, many with multiple options, near them (or in hand) at all times. Seemiller and Grace (2017) stated that today’s generation was born on or following the birth of the Internet, therefore they do not know life without it (the Internet) or vast technology options. Some important observations here, include:

- Students are going to be on their technology whether or not a professor cares
- Some more mature faculty failed to acknowledge this need for tech and access and chose to try to battle against its use by students.
- Some younger faculty (age and length of time teaching) either utilized technology in class or allowed (or rather ignored) the tech use by students.
- Technology incorporation through class or group work time was only minimally observed across all classes

Generation Z students need to and want to be engaged in the classroom, similarly to their lives, so technology in the classroom can be a tremendous benefit. Engagement is vital with Gen Z students; they require active learning, learning in a community (group), and real-world application (Seemiller & Grace, 2017).

**Recommendations.** Faculty should look to develop multiple ways to incorporate technology into the classroom on a regular basis: consider adapting class assignments to in-class work or instead of lecturing on a topic, have students examine the topic from multiple (guided; pre-selected) angles using their technology of choice and reporting to the class.

**Interactions.** For us, as researchers, this might have been the most interesting area of observation as it is one that seemed to go against some early generation norms. K. Mohr and Mohr (2017) reported the general collaborative environments are where the new (Gen Z) students strive for and where they succeed. Research often shows the interactivity of Generation Z in the classroom, yet through direct observation they may need more guidance and support to develop these practices, which would be useful in their chosen hospitality careers. Some important observations here, include:

- Students seemed to enjoy the conversational aspects of small group settings, but many were also reserved in the contribution of their ideas and opinions
- Some students lacked focus (some seemed shy; others seemed unsure) in initial group work
- No true leaders appeared and often the conversational dialogue struggled with uncertain topics

What may be missing in these observed situations is the lack of any individual contribution early on or perhaps an initial individual foundation prior to collaboration. Often Generation Z, while they need collaboration and suffer greatly from a fear of
missing out, they prefer to work alone possibly due to an entrepreneurial spirit and are often critical of peers (K. Mohr & Mohr, 2017; Seemiller & Grace, 2016, 2017). Faculty may need to look critically at their assignments (in class and out of class) to create environments for students to be successful.

Conclusions

Students in our classrooms have changed over the years and while many of us (faculty) continue to teach these new students each year, the students vary within our programs. In the hospitality industry, managers and business owners often need to take critical examination of their customers to address offerings and needs of these guests. We as educators, should also examine our customers, yes, those students in front of us each day, to ensure we are meeting their needs, while ensuring our objectives and requirements are also met. This project began as a way to better understand who our students are through their behavior and actions across multiple classroom settings and concluded, in initial phase, with reported behaviors linked to research and other observations, along with providing some recommendations for faculty consideration. The research is far from over, and as academic stakeholders (faculty and administration) focus on both current and future students, there appears to be a critical need to continue to better understand our students and to be flexible with our own ideas to better relate to our students today (not yesterday) and develop quality managers and owners to the hospitality industry.

References


Exploring Student Organization Involvement: A Comparisons of International and Domestic Hospitality Students

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Introduction

Extra-curricular student clubs have an extensive presence in the history of higher education. For example, the first documented higher education student club at Virginia Tech University was developed in 1872 (Student Organizations, 2017). A student club is defined as a group of undergraduate or graduate students who unite to promote or celebrate a common interest (Student activities, 2015). The purpose of student clubs is to allow students to get involved in extracurricular activities and offer opportunities in leadership, social responsibility, citizenship, volunteerism, and student employment (Student Affairs at Penn State Union and Student Activities, 2015). Previous studies have shown inconsistent results regarding the effects of involvement in student clubs on various outcomes. For instance, some researchers (Foubert & Grainger, 2006; McCannon & Bennett, 1996; Wilks, 2016) have argued that student clubs can foster relationships and showcase personality and individuality while they are enrolled at their respective institution. Furthermore, there is a positive relationship between student organization participation and educational experience and outcome of minority students, such as facilitating a positive self-identity, increasing social and academic integration, and improving academic outcomes (Baker 2008; Barajas & Pierce 2001; Guiffrida 2003; Harper et al. 2005). On the contrary, Yin and Lei (2007) found hospitality students who participated in campus activities had a lower academic achievement compared to students who did not participate in campus activities, and more campus involvement did not increase an overall student satisfaction.

These mixed results could stem from type of clubs, type of students, their level of involvement in student clubs, and what type of activities the clubs sponsor (Hertzman, Morero, & Weiner, 2015). Although a growing body of studies have evaluated the impact of student clubs on college students (Heifetz, 1994; Kimbrough & Hutcheson, 1998; Rosch & Collins, 2017), there has been a dearth of studies focusing on international students. Understanding international students in student clubs is important because the perceptions of joining student clubs between American and international students may differ across the culture. As such, the purpose of this study is to compare the impact of involvement in student clubs on psychosocial development (i.e., development of life purpose, mature interpersonal relationships, educational involvement, career planning and cultural participation) between American and international students. We hypothesize that students who are involved in a student clubs during their college experience are
more likely to demonstrate higher levels of psychosocial development than those not involved in a student club. We expect that international students can benefit more than American students when they actively participate in a student club. A study by Hsiao-ping, Garza, and Guzman (2015) found that increasing interaction with American students in campus is important and one way to do this is through student organizations to reduce isolation from American students. Through these interactions, international students will improve language and communication skills and provide them with opportunities to understand and adjust to US culture.

**Literature Review**

According to Hertzman and Moreo (2015), students who have work experience, participate in hospitality student organizations, and attend on-campus career events have better developed career plans and report higher level skills than students without these experiences. From The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (2008), higher level skills are those which go beyond acquiring basic knowledge and understanding and being able to apply that understanding to straightforward situations. Examples of these skills include critical thinking, problem-solving, developing complex arguments, and reaching sound decisions. Along with work experience, active organizational participation significantly increased students’ confidence and perception of their personal skills (Hertzman, Moreo, and Weiner, 2015). Joining student organizations can aid in positive student achievement on several factors. Student organizations can develop soft skills by learning the best way to communicate with individuals and large groups (Benefits of a student organization, n.d.). From Foubert and Urbanski (2006), students with higher levels of involvement in student organizations reported greater levels of psychosocial development in the areas of establishing and clarifying purpose, educational involvement, career planning, life management, and cultural participation. According to Williams (2016), joining an organization allows students to not only get involved with something you harbor passion for, but also meet others who share a similar interest. Making those friendships can be essential to maintaining positive mental health.

Unfortunately, many barriers exist for participation in student organizations. Because student clubs can have a great impact outside the classroom and beyond the education, many students feel obligated to attend to the club requirements, deterring them from their studies (Wilks, 2016). Therefore, a general concern is that continuous involvement in student organizations can hinder and distract students from producing quality academic work (Black, 2002). In addition to these barriers, international student’s also face issues such as social isolation when engaging in student organizations (Wu, Garza, and Guzman, 2015).

Student Involvement Theory (Astin, 1984) has overwhelming support in the literature as a key underlying concept in college student development. Defining involvement as “the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience” (Astin, 1984, p. 297), the theory refers to behavior – what the student does – rather than the student’s feelings or thoughts. Astin (1984, p.298) included five postulates to ground this theory and include both the physical and mental energy in various objects (1), involvement on a continuum (2), quantitative and qualitative features (3), the quality and quantity of involvement is directly proportional to the amount of learning and personal development (4), and the effectiveness of the organization directly relates to the increase in student involvement (5).

**Methodology**

**Sample**
The aim for the study is to include at least 300 hospitality college students from approximately 10 higher education institutions in the U.S. in the sample. Of the 300-sample size, researchers will intentionally collect data from 75 domestic and 75 international students participating in hospitality student organizations, 75 domestic and 75 international students not in a hospitality student organization. Institutions will be randomly chosen among a list of institution with the following criteria: 1) Institution has a hospitality related program, 2) has at least one student organization with a purpose beyond an honors club. Inclusion criteria for participation include 1) At least 18 years of age, 2) undergraduate student majoring in hospitality. Because students may participate in multiple student organizations, students will be limited to only one survey submission. The inclusion criteria is important to note as extent studies focus on overall university student organizations; the researchers want to focus the attention on hospitality student organizations as there is little to no research included within hospitality. Also, as U.S. based hospitality programs often have a higher number of domestic students, therefore, for the intent of the study, the researchers need to identify an equal number of international students to support data collection and results.

Measurement

The Student Development Task and Lifestyle Inventory (SDTLI) was developed by Winston, Miller and Prince (1987) to analyze students’ self-reported behaviors, attitudes, and opinions on psychosocial topics, particularly establishing and clarifying purpose, developing mature interpersonal relationships, and academic autonomy. Several scales of the SDTLI measure establishing and clarifying purpose, developing mature interpersonal relationships, and moving through autonomy toward interdependence and consists of 135 true/false items that describe activities, attitudes, and feelings which may be generalized to larger developmental domains (Winston et al., 1987). Studies that have used the SDTLI (Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Martin, 2000; Stanford, 1992; Williams & Winston, 1985) are particularly relevant to this study because they too explore student development in relation to involvement in student organizations. Data containing responses in which three or more Response Bias Scale (RB) scale items are answered will not be used for research or evaluation purposes. This lends itself to a more positive data collection effort in identifying attitudes and feelings of involvement in student organizations. Along with the SDTLI, the survey instrument will contain questions related to level of participation (i.e. join the student club, attending club meeting, leading student club, and founded club).

Data Collection

A list of institutions meeting the inclusion criteria for the study will be compiled. Further research will be conducted to gather information on hospitality student organization. Contact will be made to Program Directors or Administrators to inform them of the student, request assistance with the project, and obtain contact information for student organization advisors. Upon approval, advisors will be contacted to request email lists of student organization members. The Qualtrics online survey link will be sent to all members of student organizations. Student leaders would indicate to the student members of the survey link and verbally encourage participation. Additional higher education institutions will be randomly chosen until an effective response rate is achieved. Reminder emails will be sent to student leaders and members two weeks after initial survey links are sent.
Implications

To address the gap in extant research on hospitality student involvement, specifically international student involvement, we seek to explore various ways in which undergraduate students can become more involved in hospitality student organizations throughout their undergraduate career. Increased membership in student organizations benefits the students, program and department, as well as the educational institute. Understanding the differences between international and domestic student involvement is a great way to identify the importance of student organizations to the organization, program and department. This study can support student involvement in hospitality student clubs. Faculty can engage more student organization involvement and provide student support for students’ who are looking for better career and life planning strategies. Involvement and active student engagement are key to a positive outlook for student success. With that, educators and hospitality student organization advisors can individualize and personalize the educational process by which the student organization is involved. This includes customization of guest speakers, organization meetings, and organization member elections. With U.S. higher education institutions seeing a decline in enrollment (Shaw, 2018), students can look to student clubs to increase their interpersonal social skills and aid in industry networking, in turn, having a better outlook on self-autonomy. Career development and connections with industry is not only important to the student for post-graduation job efforts, but industry professional connections can aid in continuous relationships with hospitality programs for additional support. Faculty and student relationships can grow if faculty provide positive outlooks on student organizations with introductory-level hospitality courses.

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College Hospitality Beverage Education: An Alternative Pedagogy

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Abstract

The study delved into the opportunity and need for another sensory perception method for tasting alcoholic beverages in Hospitality beverage courses. Using a mixed methods approach, and an initial sample of N = 2

Literature Review

The Hospitality College paradigm of has included professional skills and understanding from the beginning. How a course is taught is changing due in large part to technological advances in society. Pedagogy are in flux. The impact of new technology led to the need for updated curriculum. Along with new curriculum brought fresh ideas to established pedagogy. Hospitality colleges around the world teach alcoholic beverage courses as an integral part of the curriculum to develop students for industry jobs reliant on skills based on the understanding and practice of sensory perception evaluation (Barron, Maxwell, Broadbridge, & Ogden, 2007). From the late 1950s (Amerine, Roessler, & Filipello, 1959) through 2007 the look, smell and taste (LST) method was the sole base sensory perception evaluation method used for evaluating alcoholic beverages in Higher Education (HE) or in a professional capacity (Jackson, 2009).

Sensory perception evaluation of alcoholic beverages was integral to beverage education. No competing method or methodology was used, identified or available for teaching until 2008. Teachers had no flexibility or alternatives regarding sensory perception methods. The situation changed with the advent of a new method developed in 2008 called the Carmer Spirits Tasting Enhancement Method (CSTEM) (Carmer, 2011). CSTEM became an alternative methodology to LST for instructors to administer and teach the sensory perception evaluation component in alcoholic beverage courses. CSTEM incorporates new methodology. Although much of the literature focuses on wine studies, the current research focused on whisky, the category of alcoholic beverages with the highest growth rate in the spirits industry in the last five years (Chew, 2016). Due to whisky’s higher alcohol percentage, it provided a more demonstrative backdrop for determining which method may be more effective for teaching students: LST or CSTEM. Research questions included:

Qualitative
RQ1 What are student’s perceptions of LST?
RQ2 What are student’s perceptions of CSTEM?

Quantitative
H₀ CSTEM is at least equal to LST as a sensory perception tool.
Hₐ CSTEM is not as effective as LST as a sensory perception tool.
Methods

The study compared the two methods, LST and CSTEM, of sensory perception evaluation of alcoholic beverages using a mixed-methods design to determine if a difference existed between the methods may be an alternative pedagogy for teaching students (Creswell, 2013). Hospitality students at a major Hospitality college in the Southwestern United States provided the population from which the sample, N = 21, was drawn. Two trials of four randomized groups sampled five whiskies each. Two groups using LST and the other two groups using CSTEM to evaluate the whiskies using sensory perception. An initial electronic intake form filled out by the participants included multiple choice, hedonic scale, and open-ended questions. Electronic surveys comprised of multiple choice, hedonic scale, and open-ended questions were completed for each whisky as the whisky was evaluated. The information gathered by the first set of surveys formed Data Set 1. At the end of the trials a summary survey was completed by each participant that addressed the whole experience comprising Data set 2.

Chi-Squared analysis and Bayesian statistical tests were run on both data sets using the open source statistical software R. Observational data, and the qualitative open-ended questions from the surveys were parsed for categories, themes, and key terms. The research was the first study to address the gap in knowledge in the literature with studies focused on sensory perception evaluation teaching methods, pedagogy, in hospitality. Heretofore there were no studies found that addressed the gap.

Expected Findings and Implications

CSTEM was at least equal to LST as a sensory perception tool, confirming the null hypothesis. CSTEM may be considered by college teachers as an alternative pedagogy, with the potential to address the new culture of the classroom (Olufemi & Jimoh, 2013). Students perceptions of using CSTEM were more positive than student’s perception of using LST. Learning sensory perception tasting methods is a transformational skill and may aid the participant competing for jobs in the future. Further implications for education include, but are not limited to; instructors having a more effective pedagogy to teach with, updating teaching methodology and theory, preparing students for life after academia, and academics will have a more reliable method to use in their sensory perception evaluation studies and research. CSTEM may aid in practice and help to fill some of the gap in knowledge created by the lack of an alternative sensory perception evaluation method for alcoholic beverages. The goal to identify another effective, or more effective pedagogy than LST was piloted with positive results, thus enabling instructors to potentially improve teaching effectiveness and for students to build more research supported and industry-ready skills. Furthermore, the results regarding the efficiency of CSTEM may be disseminated through multiple disciplines; including but not limited to, neuroscience, physiology, Hospitality, neurochemistry, lifelong learning centers and philosophy.

References


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Study Abroad Students’ Worries, Hesitation and Risk Perceptions and its Influence on Risk Reduction Strategies

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Abstract

In a global economy, the understanding of different cultures and the ability to communicate with those cultures are highly desirable skills. Both university students and administrators have become increasingly aware of this, and so students now have more opportunities to take part in international opportunities for education, volunteer programs or traveling for course credits. In recent times, policymakers and universities have been pushing for increased funding for study abroad scholarships in order to allow more students to participate (Lewin 2009). Research has shown that there are many potential benefits a student can gain from participating in a program of international study. These benefits can include a deeper understanding of other cultures, improved foreign language abilities and a more international perspective and reframing of one’s own worldview. This reframing and more international perspective often impact the student’s reflective and integrative abilities, which is reflected in their return to university (Gonyea, 2008). They are also more likely to graduate with higher grades (Posey, 2003). The recent push for increased scholarship funding therefore should come as no surprise. In the school year 2016/17, more than 325,000 students participated in study abroad programs according to the Institute of International Education. This is 4% more than the last year, and triple the amount recorded 20 years previously (Marcum, 2001). While there is a general trend towards increased participation, American students rank among the lowest to participate in international study programs; the total number of undergraduates who participate in international study is less than 3%. This may put American students at a disadvantage in a global marketplace, as they are less equipped than their better-traveled international peers in cultural competence and second language skills (Collins & Davidson, 2002). Therefore, this study proposed and tested a model that examined whether study abroad students’ risk perception caused worry during planning a trip and during traveling, which in turn influenced tourists’ risk reduction strategies. Additionally, the moderating effects of hesitation on the relationship between perceived risk and worry during planning a trip and during traveling were examined.

Literature Review

Perceived Risk

Risk is defined as the exposure to the potential for physical loss, danger, hazard or injury
In academia, the focus tends to be on perceived risk over objective, or real risk, as individuals tend to concentrate on just a few potential outcomes, typically relating to themselves, rather than on the whole outcome. Previous studies have concluded that the characteristics of holidays, travel and trips should be examined alongside their perceived risks (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011) in order to develop more efficient and targeted strategies to respond to and mitigate risks and disasters (Ritchie, 2009). Little effort has been made to study the perceived travel risks of university students, beyond health and safety, or measure the impact that their travel behaviors and other characteristics have on their perception of risk. In terms of the research sample, whilst some studies have examined the risk perceptions of students, and international backpackers (Adam, 2015; Reichel et al., 2007), very few studies have targeted university students studying abroad.

Tourist Worry

As risk perception is not analogous to worry, tourists’ levels of worry may not necessarily correlate with the probability of risk (Baron, Hershey & Kunreuther, 2000). One tourist may worry more about a destination despite a lower perceived risk, while another may perceive the risk of the destination to be higher while worrying less. A tourist cannot worry about a travel destination if they are not aware of any potential risks. Past experiences from previous travels can also impact perceived risk and worry, as well as their underlying psychological state and proclivity to worry more generally. There are therefore many factors which can lead to worry and can be defined as worry based on an upcoming or currently undertaken trip—the attempt (desired or not) to solve any potential problems where risk or negative events are perceived as possible and undesirable (Larsen, Brun, & Øgaard, 2009). Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis (see Fig. 1):

**H1.** Tourist perceived risk significantly influences their worry during planning such that the greater perceived risk, the higher worry during planning.

**H2.** Tourist perceived risk significantly influences their worry during traveling such that the greater perceived risk, the higher worry during traveling.

Risk Reduction Strategies

The studies of Mitchell and Vassos (1999) showed that tourists have different levels of ‘worry and risk tolerance’. When a tourist perceives too much risk and worrying tolerance level to be reached, they may either cancel their plans entirely, or attempt to negate the risk by engaging in certain behaviors. Tourists also engage in behaviors designed to mitigate risk when they have reached their travel destination. Harper (2001), suggested that a tourist may be likely to hire a local guide, change their clothes as not to appear as tourists, avoid travelling alone and in crowded places, keeping earlier hours and only using public transportation in groups. Tourists may use any combination of strategies to negate their worries, in both the planning stages of a trip and as the trip is undertaken (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006). The strategy will of course depend on the nature and perceived level of the risk and how much they worry. Therefore, we propose the
following hypothesis:

**H3.** Worry during planning significantly influences their risk reduction strategies such that the higher the worry during planning the higher risk reduction strategies.

**H4.** Worry during traveling significantly influences their risk reduction strategies such that the higher the worry during traveling the higher risk reduction strategies.

**Tourist Hesitation**

Cho, Kang, and Cheon (2006) describe the phenomenon when a tourist delays purchasing a trip and hesitates in making a final purchasing decision as ‘Tourist Hesitation’. There are many other factors that influence the delay of a purchasing decision, including cost, distance, environmental security and the health of the tourist (Kim, Wei, and Ruys, 2003; Bansal, 2004), in addition to previous negative travel experiences, and the individual predispositions of the tourists, especially when making decisions regarding international travel. Wong and Yeh (2014) have suggested that as these factors are known to the tourist in the earlier planning stages, tourists may abandon any plans for international travel entirely.

With international travel, the risks are amplified. There is increased uncertainty and risk-perception, and therefore a lack of confidence in the tourist. A tourist may take a long time in compiling the perfect itinerary due to this low confidence, which will ultimately lead to delay and hesitation. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

**H5.** Tourist hesitation moderates the relationship between their perceived risk and worry during planning such that the higher the hesitation the weaker the relationship between perceived risk and worry during planning.

**H6.** Tourist hesitation moderates the relationship between their perceived risk and worry during traveling such that the higher the hesitation the weaker the relationship between perceived risk and worry during traveling.

**Methods**

The target population of this study were US University students. A self-report online survey was prepared using Qualtrics. The survey was sent to two groups of hospitality undergraduate students for pilot testing. The results of the pilot test indicated strong content validity and internal consistency. Cronbach’s alpha of the measures ranged from .73 to .91. After the pilot test, the survey was distributed among southeastern university students who have studied abroad in the last academic year or who are planning to study abroad in the next academic year through the Office of International Programs of the university. The survey had 5 parts with demographics questions as well as questions related to participants’ risk perceptions, their level of hesitation, their worries about traveling and risk reduction strategies. All study variables were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Worry during planning and worry during traveling items were adopted from Larsen et al. (2009). Perceived Risk was measured by Loyd et al.’s (2008) 13-item scale.

Hesitation was measured by Wong and Yeh’s (2009) scale. Risk reduction strategies Items were adopted from Adam (2015). Structural equation modeling and hierarchical regression
analysis were employed using SPSS 23 and AMOS 22 to analyze the data.

**Results**

A total of 253 complete online questionnaires were collected. Majority of the participants were female (n=186), between 21-22 years old (n=110). About 41% of the participants’ study abroad trips were paid for by their parents. Considering the last two years from the day the participants took the survey, about 89% of them traveled overseas, 79% studied abroad and 96% traveled domestically.

A structural model was estimated using Maximum Likelihood. As seen in figure 2, the path between tourists’ perceived risk and worry (during planning=0.49, p < .001; during travel=0.46, p < .001) showed that tourist perceived risk significantly influences their worry indicating that the more tourists perceives risk, the more worry they will develop during planning phase of a trip and during traveling. Therefore, H1 and H2 were supported. Worry and risk reduction strategies shared similar results. Worry during planning and traveling (during planning=0.32, p < .001; during travel=0.38, p < .001) had significant positive effects on risk reduction strategies indicating that the more tourists worry during planning phase of a trip and during traveling, the more risk reduction strategies they utilize, lending support to H3 and H4. To test the hypothesis that whether hesitation moderates the relationship between perceived risk and worry during planning, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. In the first step, two variables were included: Perceived risk and hesitation. Then interaction term between perceived risk and hesitation was included in the second step (seen Table 1). Consistent with the results of the path analysis, while controlling for the effect of hesitation, perceived risk had a significant positive effect on worry during planning. (β=.48, p<.01). The interaction between perceived risk and hesitation on worry during planning in step 2 was found to be significant (ΔR2= .02, p<.01), supporting hypothesis 5.

Aiken and West (1991) suggested plotting the interaction effects. Figure 3 depicts the interaction effects in graphical form. However, when we check whether hesitation moderates the relationship between perceived risk and worry during traveling, the results showed that there was not a moderation effect between them. Therefore, H6 was not supported.

**References**


A Way to get Proven Military Leaders into Hospitality and Tourism Degree Programs

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Introduction

Military veterans are reentering civilian life in droves and with transferrable skills that could positively impact hospitality and tourism work environments. Many veterans occupied roles that were comparable to civilian sector jobs. However, veterans accounted for exceedingly high unemployment rates within the United States work environment (Buzzeta, Hayden, & Ledwith, 2017). Some employers tend use propaganda to illustrate a desire to higher veterans, but some veterans are being told that they are unemployable due to a lack of education (Farrell, 2011). Many proven military leaders have worked in high-pressure situations, and most embody soft skills that hospitality industry leaders tout as a necessity for future leaders (Farrell, 2011; Hertzman et al., 2015). There are a litany of positions that fall under the realm of hospitality and tourism within military installations, such as culinary, lodging, facilities management, dining hall, and many medical professions. Military members attend specialty training that requires course content, hands-on execution, and probationary period during technical school and their first duty assignment. There training is an all-encompassing endeavor that supersedes the learning format of many traditional universities. For example, most military members have to enlist for 3-6 years. Those completed years transmute to beneficial work experience years.

Universities promote the importance of diversity and the need for more eclectic cultures, but they normally focus or couch conversations around other worthy initiatives, such as perceived diversity (e.g., minorities). Veterans can add unique perspectives to academic learning environments, and veterans can serve as a guaranteed financial source for university matriculation (Hamrick & Rumann, 2012). Every year, almost 600,000 veterans receive federal education benefits to attend various college educational programs, but traditional universities fail to compete with for-profit institutions for veteran student enrollment (Marklein, 2012).

Traditional universities have to find a way to demonstrate an authentic and genuine commitment to veterans rather than the proverbial lip service and appealing propaganda. Hospitality and tourism programs offer a lot of opportunities for veterans, and they might eventually be seen as the military friendly degree programs. The purpose of this study is to discover barriers that impede military veterans from entering into traditional universities, and more importantly, hospitality and tourism programs.
Literature Review

Why Hospitality and Tourism Degree Programs?

Hospitality and tourism are some of the fastest growing industries, and they have a significant economic impact, domestically and internationally (Adeyinka-Ojo, 2018). Collectively, these industries have proven to be recession proof, meaning people will continue to travel, dine, and drink wine during financial hardships (Adeyinka-Ojo, 2018; Cheung, Law, & He, 2010). Many hospitality and tourism occupations have applicable skills learned by veterans in disparate work experiences. Hospitality and tourism leaders argue the importance of soft skills, such as leadership, which comes from years of experience and confidence generated from consistent successes (Wang, Kitterlin-Lynch, & Williams, 2018). This gives military veterans a unique advantage over the proverbial college student who graduates with internship or part-time job experiences that might produce minimal high-pressure or leadership situations. Undergraduate students are taught concepts and theories that lack the practical hands-on job experiences that veterans might receive (Scheule & Sneed, 2001). Some veterans work as chefs or line cooks that serve and host gatherings for enlisted and high-profile officers, providing them with experiences to serve diverse and elite groups ((Buzzeta, Hayden, & Ledwith, 2017)).

These experiences cannot be mastered in a classroom or from part-time work opportunities. These skill sets are mastered during chaotic and stressful work encounters (Adeyinka-Ojo, 2018). Some veterans prepared meals and accommodated lodging in wartime environments during hostile circumstances. These exclusive experiences create special individuals who can bring their exceptional practical knowledge to hospitality and tourism programs, enriching discussion and demonstrating university support of veterans. Undergraduate hospitality programs were designed to facilitate the development of technical knowledge and leadership skills needed for convoluted hospitality entities (Cheung et al., 2010). Brymer, Wilborn, and Schmidgall (2006) recognized that hospitality programs needed future leaders who worked in dynamic teams and complex settings. Veterans tend to embody proven leadership qualities from intricate settings.

What Makes Veterans Proven Leaders?

Military veterans are cultivated in environments and situations that serve as conduits for effectual leadership (Pak, 2011). Situations are constructed that might inspire veterans to act with confidence when placed in circumstances that require an immediate response. Military friendly companies seek to hire veterans because veterans are proven leaders with the wherewithal to produce efficient and effective actions in challenging situations (Parker, 2012). Wal-Mart executive managers touted that veterans have a proven track record of excellence, so they aimed to hire the best and the brightest veterans entering the workforce (D’Innocenzio, 2013). The only caveat is that some veterans failed to move into management or leadership roles due to their lack of education accreditation or credentials, making traditional universities a viable partnership (Farrell, 2011). Some
military friendly companies require that a completed four-year degree prior to occupying a leadership role. However, a large pool of veteran’s matriculate into for-profit universities, which capitalize on their G.I. Bill or their Post-9/11 benefits (e.g., federal education grant funding for veterans), adding to the billion-dollar education enterprise.

Many for-profit universities are merely online, so veterans are able to work while completing their degree. Traditional universities only accounted for 16 percent of online education, creating a huge opportunity to build online courses that targeted and appealed to military veterans.

The nature of the military is to serve the country, and veterans embody the spirit of being a service to others (i.e., other military members or indigenous people in third world countries (Pak, 2011). Hospitality entities are contingent on employees’ service to constituents or patrons (Tews & Van Hoof, 2011). When veteran’s complete hospitality undergraduate degree programs, veterans should be equipped with practical ways to serve others (Pak, 2011; Scheule & Sneed, 2001).

**Interactionist Theory**

Social Interactionist theory focuses on social and temporal reference comparisons to emphasize and to mark progress relative to earlier points in their own lives (Blumer, 1969). Research tend demonstrates how veterans might reject traditional universities because they fail to develop human interactions with the traditional student population. Interactionist theory might serve to augment human interactions within the university environment, improving the social encounters and the temporal relationships to fortified ones. Interactionist theory will be utilized to discover how the interprofessional relations within a traditional university setting captured the daily interactions of veterans and faculty and staff at a traditional university. This study attempts to explore how veteran’s qualities and needs can benefit the growth of hospitality programs.

**Methodology**

The following qualitative research is designed to explore veterans’ motivations towards the pursuit of a four-year service-related degree program and their perception of a non-profit or traditional institution for that endeavor. There is no previous research on this topic, so a Delphi study is not appropriate for this design. Veterans will need to be interviewed in a relax setting that encourages them to converse openly and freely about their social encounters and temporal experiences in traditional and in online learning environments. Focus groups will consist of 8-10 participants to collect and to gather various educational experiences as a veteran at non-and traditional institutions; questions will cover specific topics that address motivation for college, non-profit and for-profit benefits, service-industry degrees, and transferrable skills to the hospitality and tourism industry. Target population will consist of veterans who are enrolled or planning to enroll full-time in a college degree program; veterans will consist of formerly enlisted military members who fall in the age range of 22-45 years old. This age range is chosen because enlisted members tend to separate from the arm services within this particular age range. Most veterans enter the service at the age of 18, and serve one or two terms,
expected outcome/results

This study will explain the reason why veterans are choosing for-profit universities over traditional non-profit universities and how to capture this diverse populous of non-traditional students to hospitality and tourism programs. Veterans are separating from military installations with guaranteed GI Bill, post 9/11, or vocational rehabilitation funds that are worth $50,000 and more (Pak, 2011). Results should also indicate transferrable skills that correlate to hospitality programs and ultimately the hospitality industry. Findings can help hospitality programs forge partnerships with the federal government, and in turn, hospitality programs can also partner with military friendly hospitality entities. Hospitality academic programs can tap into the guaranteed money of military veterans, by enhancing these external partnerships. Some veterans complained about unstructured environments at non-profit universities, but findings can provide universities with information needed to address that vital issue.

References


Restaurant Management Style and Cost Control Efforts: Discovering a Connection in Sarasota, FL

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Introduction

Restaurants are known to operate with a low profit margin and high operating cost percentages, in comparison with other businesses. Cost control methods directly impact the bottom line of a restaurant, where restaurant managers choose different methods in order to control those costs on a daily basis. Each of these managers has a different management style, or combination thereof, that they choose to use. Little, if any, previous research has been reported establishing a connection between cost control methods and management styles. A case study about full-service, family-owned restaurants in the Sarasota area of Florida was used as a preliminary method to gather research about the topic.

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether a manager’s leadership style influences the cost control skills they use, and if the cost control skills can be improved through their selected management style. Establishing a connection could result in restaurants becoming more profitable through training the managers to match their management style, in turn advancing their cost control skills.

Background

Management Style. There are several management styles in existence; however, the five most commonly referred to in previous research were used for this paper: affiliative, autocratic, bureaucratic, democratic, and laissez-faire (Chapman, Johnson, & Kilner, 2014; Glambek, Skogstad & Einarson, 2018; Khan, Nawaz, & Khan, 2016; Skogstad, et al., 2014). Affiliative managers are centered on teamwork and building on employee strengths, while autocratic managers make quick, clear decisions without much input from the staff (Khan, Nawaz, & Khan, 2016; Chapman, Johnson, & Kilner, 2014). Bureaucratic managers focus on achieving goals and set structured procedures in place in order to achieve these goals, while democratic managers empower employees, encourage employee feedback, and look for a consensus before making any important decisions (Chapman, Johnson, & Kilner, 2014; Khan, Nawaz, & Khan, 2016). Laissez-faire managers avoid making leadership decisions whenever
possible, and often take a hands-off approach to their staff (Glambek, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2018).

**Cost Control.** Labor cost is associated with several cost control methods: forecasting to make the weekly schedule, evaluating the roster daily, and cross training employees in order to allow one employee to work multiple stations, which is also referred to as employee development (Alonso & Krajsic, 2014; Choi, Hwang, & Park, 2009). Food cost control methods consist of employee development, analyzing the menu in order to remove or replace items with high cost, recipe modification to use less of a product when a certain product is more expensive, and evaluating products with the suppliers in order to achieve the best purchase price (Alonso & Krajsic, 2014; Dopson & Hayes, 2015; Heikkila, et al., 2016).

**Methods**

The sample set included upper-level full-service restaurant managers (General Manager and higher) in the Sarasota-Bradenton area in Florida. Upper-level managers were chosen because these managers have influence on back-of-house and front-of-house costs. Of the participants, three were general managers, three were owners, and one was a district manager. All of the participants were male; their female counterparts who were invited to participate declined to do so for scheduling issues.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted until the point of what appeared to be approaching saturation, which happened to be seven interviews in this area. Each of the management styles was interviewed at least once, which was determined through a questionnaire that each participant took before the start of the interview. These interviews used a guide, but the questions were open-ended, allowing for the participant to expand on the question, with guidance. The data was collected via in-person interviews. All interviews were recorded, transcribed, and coded, as qualitative research calls for.

**Results**

This study resulted in a connection between certain management styles and cost control skills they preferred. The participants of certain management styles also largely agreed certain cost control skills were less effective than others. Please see the table in the appendix for further explanation.

**Affiliative**

Affiliative managers favored evaluating the roster (i.e., calling people off or making cuts when it is supposed to rain all day) to control labor cost. To control food cost, they believed that training was the most effective. In this manner, training was referred to controlling waste (i.e., cutting the product in the correct manner in order to gain the most use out of the item).

Conversely, affiliative managers found scheduling (i.e., the weekly schedule) to be the least effective in controlling both food and labor cost. These managers agreed that it was much easier to allow employees to go home through a roster evaluation. These managers also agreed it was more important to make them happy (i.e., by scheduling them more shifts, but letting them choose to leave, if they so preferred). In reference to food cost, these managers felt budgeting and forecasting were least effective.

**Autocratic**
Autocratic managers often make decisions quickly without input from others. These managers found forecasting (i.e., using last year’s sales to predict this year’s sales) to form a budget and other forms of technology (i.e., HotSchedules and Partender) to be the most effective way to control the labor cost. To control food cost, these managers found training, cross-training, and employee retention to be the most effective (i.e., the same person making the same product every day will become better and more precise over time).

Furthermore, autocratic managers felt as if evaluating a recipe in terms of modification is the least effective method to control food cost because it may hurt the brand image. Training and cross training were found to be the least effective methods to control labor cost, coincidentally, to these managers. The reasoning for this was because they felt as if employees got better at their specific jobs over time, and they did not believe it would save labor dollars to continually train.

**Bureaucratic**

Similar to autocratic managers, bureaucratic managers also believed that roster evaluation (i.e., sending an employee home when business is slow) was the most efficient way to control labor costs. For food costs, these managers felt as if training, continual training, and employee retention was the most effective way to control food costs.

Moreover, bureaucratic managers felt as if training, cross-training, and continual training was the least efficient way to control labor costs. In reference to controlling food costs, evaluating a recipe to be modified (i.e., using less tomatoes in a dish if tomatoes are expensive) was mentioned as the least effective way to control food costs because it could hurt the brand.

**Democratic**

Democratic managers found roster evaluation, reviewing the number of employees scheduled to work every day and evaluating whether that many need to be there, to be the most effective way to control labor cost. Evaluating a product (i.e., negotiating with a supplier for either a lower price or comparable product) was found to be the most efficient way to control food costs among these managers. When these managers answered the question, they all felt as if roster evaluation (sending staff home when it is not busy) and product evaluation (using comparable products from the suppliers) would lead to the quickest results; therefore, it was the most efficient. This is the only group who linked efficiency or effectiveness to speed.

Also in reference to speed, these managers found scheduling to be the least effective in controlling labor cost. They felt as though the restaurant business changes too quickly; therefore, the schedule can be planned but it is inefficient in controlling a daily cost. Furthermore, democratic managers found menu analysis to be too costly and time consuming to be an efficient way to control the food cost.

**Laissez-faire**

Laissez-faire managers believe that their employees are capable of doing their jobs themselves with little to no guidance. This manager was found to favor budgeting and scheduling to control both labor and food costs. This manager believed that the proper tools (i.e., a product-mix report to set par levels) would allow for the prime cost (food cost plus labor cost) to remain consistent and on-target.

Contrary to other management styles, this manager found roster evaluation (sending
employees home when business is slow) to be the least effective way to control the labor cost. This was combatted by saying the hour-by-hour sales from last year should have allowed for proper scheduling to volume this year. To control food cost, this manager also found menu analysis to be the least effective method because he believed the menu should control the food cost. However, this manager also believes that evaluating a product (i.e., negotiating with the suppliers) does not make a significant enough difference to be considered an effective tool because most suppliers are going to offer nearly the same pricing levels.

**Discussion, Implications, and Limitations**

Each of the management styles had at least one cost control skill that they favored, and some management styles had similar preferences. For instance, autocratic and bureaucratic management styles had the most similarities. They both favored training to control food cost and disfavored evaluating recipes in terms of modification. Conversely, these styles agreed that training was the least effective way to control labor costs. According to the definitions of these two styles they are more about rules, polices, procedures, and cost effectiveness, while caring less about people and their feelings.

Affiliative and democratic managers were more likely to take into account the feelings of their employees and focus more on empowerment and development of their staff. These styles largely preferred roster evaluation to control the labor cost and least favored scheduling via forecasting. These styles did not agree on how to control the food cost. It is significant to note that the management styles that focus more on employee development and training agree on the ways to control labor cost, while the management styles that focus more on following the rules and the profitability of the company are in agreement on how to control the food costs.

The laissez-faire management style, which is unlike any of the previously listed management styles (Skogstad, et al., 2014), only shared the opinion of the least effective food cost control skill with the democratic managers. Each of their favored cost control methods was unique to itself.

All of these results imply that there is a connection between management style and preferred cost control skills; therefore, the industry will be able to train their managers better. By assessing which type of management style their managers have, restaurants will be able to know which skills they favor, and they can teach them how to utilize the other skills and when the proper time to use the other skills would be. Furthermore, workshops, management training programs, and national conferences could provide proper training and awareness to restaurant owners and managers. These programs could help restaurant owners to understand their companies and why the profitability suffers when too many of the same manager are hired together. No one management style is best, and each style flourishes in its own way; therefore, variety in management styles (which provides variety in cost control methods) could lead to higher profitability for restaurants.

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Does Perceived Manager Support Reduce Hospitality Supervisors’ Emotional Exhaustion?  
The Mediating Role of Time Management and Negative Emotional Reactions

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Abstract

Managers within the hospitality industry often face stressful demands, resulting in adverse effects on their emotional health as well as both physical and mental health issues (Khamisa, Oldenburg, Peltzer, & Illic, 2015), such as emotional exhaustion. Employee emotional exhaustion has been shown to negatively impact job satisfaction (Lewig & Dollard, 2003), performance (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007), and employee turnover (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009). Because the training and development of hospitality managerial employees is known to be costly and time-consuming, the factors that potentially impact hospitality managerial employees’ emotional exhaustion present a crucial area of study (O’Neill & Xiao, 2010).

Existing literature suggests that perceived organizational support and perceived manager support both help reduce frontline hospitality employees’ emotional exhaustion (Karatepe, 2015; Karatepe & Kilic, 2015). In addition, Kemp, Borders, and Ricks (2013) suggested that employees’ perceived control over time/time management in the workplace can reduce their emotional exhaustion. Similarly, negative affectivity and negative emotional reactions both were found to be positively associated with employees’ emotional exhaustion (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Rose, Horne, Rose, & Hastings, 2004). However, studies conducted using a sample of managerial employees, such as supervisors, in the hospitality industry, are far scarcer. Hence, the objective of the current study is to examine the impact and interaction of perceived manager support, perceived control over time, and negative emotional reaction on hospitality supervisors’ emotional exhaustion. The research will help expand the current knowledge of factors influencing managerial employees’ emotional exhaustion in the hospitality industry.

Literature Review

Emotional exhaustion occurs as a response to job-related demand stressors (Lewin & Sager, 2008). Symptoms include dread at the prospect of returning to work, increased absenteeism, diminished self-esteem, depression, insomnia, and withdrawal from the organization or profession (Kahill, 1988; Moncrief et al., 1995). In addition, research in the hospitality industry indicates a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and employees’ job performance and turnover intention (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009;
Managers’ support and emotional intelligence were found to have a significant impact on employees’ job satisfaction, resulting in high levels of service performance (Han et al., 2017).

According to the motivational process of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, job resources such as perceived manager support can motivate and stimulate employees to accomplish their goals and lead to positive job outcomes and lower levels of employee burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Karatepe and Kilic (2015) applied the JD-R model and demonstrated that managers’ support mitigates the positive effects of time- and behavior-based work–family conflict on emotional exhaustion of employees. Similarly, perceived manager support as a job resource may also result in lower hospitality supervisor emotional exhaustion. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H1**: Perceived manager support is negatively associated with hospitality supervisors’ emotional exhaustion.

Previous literature suggests an inverse relationship between effective time management and stress and tension on the job (Macan, 1996; Jaramillo et al., 2005). Individuals who perceive little control over their time may be more likely to become frustrated or overwhelmed (Jaramillo et al., 2005). In addition, Kemp et al. (2013) demonstrated a negative relationship between employees’ perceived control over time and emotional exhaustion. Their results also indicated that perceived manager support can enhance salespersons’ perceived control over time. Based on the JD-R model, perceived manager support may also lead to hospitality supervisors’ positive job outcomes such as enhanced time management skills or more control over time, which further help reduce their emotional exhaustion. The following hypotheses are posited:

**H2**: Perceived manager support is positively associated with hospitality supervisors’ perceived control over time. **H3**: Hospitality supervisors’ perceived control over time is negatively associated with emotional exhaustion. **H4**: Perceived control over time mediates the relationship between perceived manager support and hospitality supervisors’ emotional exhaustion.

According to the basic notion of the Social Exchange Theory, employees tend to reciprocate with more positive attitude/behaviors or less negative attitudes/behaviors if they perceive the relationship with the organization as positive (Lambert, 2000). Hence, hospitality supervisors tend to demonstrate a lower level of negative emotional reactions such as anger or irritation at others when they perceive a higher level of manager support. In addition, previous researchers in the mainstream suggested a positive relationship between employees’ negative emotional reactions and their emotional exhaustion (Rose et al., 2004). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed (see Figure 1 for the proposed research model).

**H5**: Perceived manager support is negatively associated with negative emotional reaction at others. **H6**: Negative emotional reaction at others is positively associated with emotional exhaustion. **H7**: Negative emotional reaction at others mediates the relationship between perceived manager support and emotional exhaustion.

**Methods**

The target population comprises supervisors in the hotel industry. Questionnaires were
distributed at a series of hotel supervisor training seminars in the southern part of the U.S. in 2018. Participants were asked to complete the survey based on their current working experience. The survey instrument included questions of perceived manager support (PMS), perceived control over time (PCT), negative emotional reactions at others (NER_O), emotional exhaustion (EE) and demographic information such as gender, age and organization tenure. All constructs were measured using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). PMS was measured by the six-item scale adapted from Jaworski and Kohli (1991). PCT was measured with a 5-item scale adapted from Macan (1996). NER_O was adapted from Badovick et al. (1992) with three items. EE was measured with eight items adapted from Singh et al. (1994).

Results

Descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis were undertaken via SPSS version 23. A total of 129 responses were collected, of which 115 were usable. Demographic information of the respondents is presented in Table 1. Table 2 contains the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations for the study variables. The reliability analysis of the measurement items was conducted using the Cronbach’s alpha to assess the internal consistency of the scales (see Table 2). All values exceeded the .60 cutoff point (Hair et al., 1998).

Multiple regression analysis was used to examine hypotheses 1 to 5 as shown in Table 3. Gender, age, ethnicity and tenure at current position were controlled for the multiple regression analysis. Perceived manager support was negatively related to hotel supervisors’ emotional exhaustion (β = -.30, p < .001), supporting hypothesis 1. The results also indicated that hotel supervisors’ perceived manager support have a significantly positive impact on perceived control over time (β = .19, p < .05). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was supported. In addition, perceived control over time positively related to hotel supervisors’ emotional exhaustion (β = -.27, p < .05), supporting hypothesis 3. Moreover, perceived manager support was negatively related to supervisors’ negative emotional reactions at others (β = -.34, p < .05), indicating that the higher the level of support they receive from their manager, the less negative emotion they tend to direct towards other people, supporting hypothesis 5. In addition, negative emotional reactions at others (β = .20, p < .05) was positively associated with hotel supervisors’ emotional exhaustion, confirming hypothesis 6.

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) procedure was followed to test the mediation effect of perceived control over time and negative emotional reactions at others on the relationship between perceived manager support and emotional exhaustion. The results of each step were shown in Table 4. In addition, the Sobel test was used to examine the significance of the mediating roles of both perceived control over time and negative emotional reaction at others (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). In Table 4, the test statistics for the indirect effect of perceived manager support on emotional exhaustion through perceived control over time is 2.10 (p < .05) while the indirect effect through negative emotional reactions at others is 2.51 (p < .05). The results indicated that the negative relationship between perceived manager support and emotional exhaustion was partially mediated by both perceived control over time and negative emotional reactions at others. As such, both H4 and H7 were supported.

Discussion and Implications

The current study expanded the JD-R model and confirmed the negative relationship
between perceived manager support and hospitality supervisors’ emotional exhaustion. The study suggested a positive relationship between perceived manager support and hospitality supervisors’ perceived control over time, echoing Kemp et al.’s (2013) finding. In addition, perceived manager support can significantly reduce hospitality supervisors’ negative emotional reactions at others, expanding the application of Social Exchange Theory. Therefore, hospitality managers should provide more support to their supervisors as a means to alleviate their emotional exhaustion and negative emotional reaction at others, as well as to make them perceive more control over time at work. Hospitality organizations should initiate programs or seminars to train their managers to be more supportive of their subordinates. In addition, hospitality organizations can develop strategies that concentrate on the hiring, training, development and retention of managers that demonstrate a high level of support to their subordinates.

Moreover, perceived control over time and negative emotional reactions at others were found to negatively influence supervisors’ emotional exhaustion. Both perceived control over time and negative emotional reactions at others mediate the negative relationship between perceived manager support and emotional exhaustion. Therefore, training programs should be provided to help hospitality supervisors improve their time management skills and effectively control their negative emotions at work. This will help reduce supervisors’ emotional exhaustion. Due to the limited time frame, the current study only collected a small sample. The sample size might influence the results of the study. The causal relationship direction cannot be decided since the study is a cross-sectional study in nature. For future research, it will be interesting to examine whether the same relationships exist among restaurant supervisors. In addition, the relationships among different generational groups and employees from different functional areas can be explored.

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Workplace Design as a Tool for Organizational Effectiveness

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Abstract

The way people work has changed tremendously over the past 25 years due to advances in technology, globalization, shifts in demographics, and the relentless demand for innovation. Knowledge work is becoming more complex, is more time sensitive, and is more dependent on social skills and technological competence (Chan et al., 2007). The workforce as a whole is getting younger and, for the first time in history, there are four generations working together in today’s organizations (EBSCO, 2013). To stay competitive, organizations are trying to adapt to this new way of working. This new way of working, often referred to as distributed work, is “a combination of heads down focus work, formal and informal collaboration of varying duration, and social interaction that occurs in a wide variety of settings within the building, campus or other locations” (O’Neill & Wymer, 2011). Unfortunately, the physical work environment has received minimal attention as organizations develop business strategy and plan for success. For example, work processes have become increasingly more collaborative. In a recent survey of business executives (Steelcase, 2013), the majority of the respondents indicated that more than 60% of their organization’s overall work processes were collaborative. However, 41% of those same respondents indicated that 20% or less of the organization’s overall space supported collaborative work (p. 3). Another survey of more than 2,000 knowledge workers found that “only one in four U.S. workers are in optimal workplace environments. The rest are struggling to work effectively, resulting in lost productivity, innovation, and worker engagement” (Gensler, 2013). This is not surprising given that the sub-optimization of the physical work environment negatively impacts communication among knowledge workers within the organization (Allen, 2007; Becker, 2007), as well as disregarding the high cost of asset investment within the workplace (Kupritz, 2006; Hillsman & Kupritz, 2010). According to Kupritz (2006), “few decisions made by today’s organizations are as highly visible, expensive, and long lasting as the decisions made about physical facilities”. In fact, “facility-related expenses (real estate and equipment) are the second largest operational asset, at about 31% of operating costs” (Hillsman and Kupritz, 2010).

There is a growing body of work that suggests that workplace design can affect organizational performance, including “the health and well-being of the people working in the building, the ability of organizations to attract and retain people, employee engagement, how well teams achieve results, absenteeism, the cost of accommodating organizational evolution or change, the image of an organization to its customers and to its members, the speed of communication, and the cost of energy and other building operations” (USGSA, 2006). Gensler (2014) reports that workplace design can support innovation in multiple ways: it can breakdown organizational siloes to create better knowledge networks, support the productive flow of ideas, and increase communication and the active sharing of information.

Workplace design can enhance or help transform the existing organization, and can add value by “supporting people, the nature of their work, and the business performance they are committed to achieving” (Mitchell-Ketzes, 2003). However, there is a disconnect between how office facilities are designed today and the fundamental needs of the organization. According to Vischer (2006) “managers still tend to see ‘space’ as peripheral to their core activities and,
indeed, to the mission of their companies” (p. 1). One problem is that workplace design is often caught in a battle between the organization’s cost savings strategy, maintaining the status quo, and acting as an agent of change for the organization (Levin, 2005). Companies are building facilities that range from upgrades of their previous environment to radically new environments, and there is little agreement or discussion in the academic literature as to how organizations should develop effective workplace design strategies. However, the literature does suggest two models that can be used to align a workplace design strategy with an organization’s mission and goals in order to maximize the organizational impact.

This paper first reviews existing literature that supports the importance of workplace design for various employee and organizational outcomes, including performance, well-being, engagement, innovation, employee retention and attraction, and organizational commitment. Two models are then presented and discussed as a strategy for organizations to align the design of the physical work environment with organizational mission and goals. These include an Aligned Balanced Scorecard Model (Figure 1) and the Star Model (Figure 2).

This research is important because it can help management determine how to best make investments in the physical work environment and prioritize the work environment features. Management can also use this information to develop a workplace design strategy that can contribute to overall organizational performance. A physical environment that aligns with organizational goals is no longer just desirable, it may well be a key to survival

References


Dark-side in Hospitality and Tourism: A Systematic Review of Workplace Deviant Behavior

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Introduction

As an important part of service industry, hospitality and tourism workplaces are known as violent environments (Ram, 2018), where many employees are frequently offended by misbehaviors such as aggression (Devine & Ojeda, 2017), workplace bullying (Rajalakshmi & Naresh, 2018), and sexual harassment (Morgan & Pritchard, 2018) from managers, co-workers and guests. Data on the prevalence of workplace deviant behaviors in hospitality and tourism industry positions in 2nd place among the 11 sectors (Namie, 2014), with a total of 30% of the workers reporting at least one kind of violence, bullying or sexual harassment (Ram, 2018). Furthermore, researchers found that workplace deviant behaviors closely linked with employees’ service quality, job performance (Tuna et al., 2016), job satisfaction, turnover intention (Kong et al., 2018), and emotional and physical well-beings (Chirila & Constantin, 2013).

However, over the past decades, although the prevalence of this phenomenon in hospitality and tourism has attracted some attention, knowledge on this topic is still scattered (Dai et al., 2019; Cheung et al., 2018; Page et al., 2018). Therefore, researchers advocate the urgent needs of raising more awareness of both academics and practitioners to aggressive behaviors in tourism sector (Ram, 2018). Thus, the current study takes the call and aims to conduct a systematic review on workplace deviant behavior in hospitality and tourism, in order to provide a comprehensive knowledge of the existing literature on the situations when employees are victimized, with the intention of raising more awareness both academically and practically, and further shedding light for future research.

Methods

A systematic review was applied on deviant behavior in hospitality and tourism literature to ensure it meets rigorous, transparent and reproducible manner (Okoli and Schabram, 2010; Kim et al., 2018). The data collection process went through three stages: 1) the first stage was a keyword search for peer-reviewed journals in hospitality and tourism field in two databases: Scopus and Web of Science; 2) the second stage was an advanced keyword search via manual search in Google Scholar; and 3) the third stage was a manual search of the reference lists within the existing review papers.

Next, the article titles and abstracts were double-checked by two authors separately to finalize the sample size. Articles failed to meet the criteria were discussed then included/deleted; which leaves 106 final articles for data analysis. Then, based on the suggestions of prior researchers (Lane et al., 2006; Reichertz, 2007; Marasco et al., 2018), data were analyzed in-
depth to present comprehensive understanding of the current study in this topic, such as location of the study, perspective of analysis, methodology, level of analysis and specific themes addressed, etc.

**Results/Discussion/Implication**

This is a research in progress. The results of the research will be presented at the conference. The results of the study will provide a comprehensive literature review of workplace deviant behavior in hospitality and tourism field, such as which behaviors and factors researchers have studies and the outcomes they investigated. In addition, this study will provide useful suggestions for future studies and practical implementations for management in the hospitality and tourism sector.

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The Role of Organizational Support in Psychological Contract Fulfillment to Enhance Employee Performance

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Abstract

A Psychological Contract (PC) plays an important role in how employees perceive their institutions as well as how they will perform (Ballou, 2013). A PC is a set of existing unwritten expectations between employees and their employers. A PC is a system of beliefs that encompasses the actions employees believe are expected of them and what response they expect in return from their employer, and, reciprocally, the actions employers believe are expected of them and what response they expect in return from their employees (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Perceived organizational support (POS) has been viewed as an important factor in the employee-organization relationship that influences stress, well-being and employee Performance (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014).

POS is the perception employees has concerning whether the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. POS also fulfills socioemotional needs, resulting in greater identification and commitment to the organization, an increased desire to help the organization succeed, and greater psychological well-being (Kurtessis et al, 2017). PC and POS are both rooted in the social exchange framework. While PC is a way of representing the employment relationship in the mind of the employee, POS refers to an employee’s belief that the employer values his/her contribution and demonstrates concern for his/her well-being at work. Consistent with the rule of reciprocity norms applied to the work context, in exchange for the fulfillment of obligations and promises by their employer and through POS, employees are more committed, more satisfied, less prone to leave and more willing to make extra efforts that go beyond the job duties (Paillé, 2015).

Although there are ample studies available on POS, PC and employee performance, understanding the organizational support and employee performance, PC fulfillment as a moderator, is limited. This study will investigate the role of organizational support in PC fulfillment to improve employee performance in universities. This research seeks help shape the employer-employee relationships and behaviors in the universities.
Literature Review

Organizational Support

The roots of workers and the institution's relationship can be traced back to the theory of social exchange by Gouldner (1960) and Blau (1964). Gouldner referred to social exchange as a pattern of mutually contingent exchanges of gratification between two parties with a belief in reciprocity norm. Social exchange theory is further discussed by Blau (1964) who suggests that the basis of any exchange relationship can be described in terms of either social or economic principles. The social exchange concept is then expanded to organizational support theory to explain the employee organization relationship. Organizational Support Theory suggested that employees will feel obligated to return the favor upon receiving favorable treatment from supervisors or the organization. Such felt obligation represents employees’ positive orientation toward the organization (Zhuang, 2017). Further, POS has been activated into four dimensions: fairness, job condition, supervisory support, and organizational reward (Osabutey, 2018).

Most prior research has examined the relation of POS on individuals’ work attitudes and behaviors. For example, research has found that POS is positively related to job satisfaction (Mesimo-Ogunsanya, 2017), affective commitment (Gokul et al, 2012), organizational citizenship behavior and task performance (Miao, 2011), employees’ job performance (Mohamed& Ali, 2015), well-being and learning self-efficacy (Nguyen, 2017).

Psychological Contract

The term "psychological work contract" was first used by organizational psychologist (Argylis, 1960). PC can be understood as the understanding of mutual responsibilities and obligations between employees and enterprises. This kind of understanding doesn’t have a written document, but it performs on the unspoken subjective commitment of staffs and enterprise (Cheng&xu, 2016). When employees feel they have not received the benefits from their organization that they expected to receive, this is referred to as a PC breach (Atkinson, Matthews, Henderson& Spitzmueller, 2018). PCs are much broader than economic and legal contracts (Malhotra, Sahadev & Purani, 2017). There are three important dimensions of the PC which distinguishes it from other forms of social and implied contracts: mutuality, psychological and individuality (Jeong, Kurnia, Samson & Cullen, 2018).

Most prior research has examined the relation of PC on individuals’ work attitudes and behaviors. For example, research has found that PC is positively related to job performance (Cheng & Xu, 2016) as well as with POS and organizational citizenship behavior (Ahmad & Zafar, 2018). PC breach is negatively related to organizational identification and affective commitment (Li, Wong & Kim, 2016).

Employee Performance

Gilbert (1978) is commonly described as the father of performance technology; as an engineer, he applied his understanding of the process of technological improvement to human beings. He argued that the absence of performance support, not a person’s lack of knowledge or skill, was the greatest barrier to idealistic or worthy performance. He further identified six variables necessary to improve human performance: information, resources, incentives, knowledge, capacity, and motives (Sonko, 2018).
Although different scholars have indicated different dimensions of employee performance, most of the dimensions can be classified into two main aspects: in-role performance and extra-role performance. In-role performance is related to performance that is specified in the employee’s job description and is recognized by the company’s formal reward system. Extra role performance is related to the employee’s behaviors that benefit the organization and are not specified in the employee’s job description or the company’s formal reward system (Guo, 2016).

Most of the previous research examined the relation of employee performance on individuals’ work attitudes and behaviors. For example, research has found that employee performance is positively related to effective communication (Sonko, 2018), work engagement (Yongxing, Hongfei, Baoguo, & Lei, 2017), job crafting (Guan & Frenkel, 2018), and, self-efficacy (Song, Chai, Kim & Bae, 2018).

Building on this reasoning, the study will:

RO1: Investigate the relationship between organizational support and PC among faculty members in Egypt- and US-based universities.

RO2: Examine the association of PC with faculty member’s performance in those universities.

RO3: Test the moderating role of PC on the relationship between the organizational support and faculty member’s performance in the same universities.

Methods

To achieve the goals of the study, universities present themselves as a proper context. Universities were chosen because they ranked top level in breaching PC among the education sector institutions according to the research pilot study. The population for this study is composed of faculty members in Egypt- and US-based universities. The Egyptian and the American universities represent the developing and developed countries respectively, in which the education, in terms of teaching methods and scientific production of the faculty members, and management style are totally different. Thus, a quantitative research approach will be implemented. An online self-administered survey hosted by Qualtrics in addition to an in-person survey will be used to collect data. The respondent’s contact information, email, office number, etc., will be drawn from their official university and personal websites. The survey instrument will consist of three sections: POS, PC, employee’s performance, in addition to the demographic information of the participants. First, POS will be measured by eight items adapted from Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa (1986, as referenced in Chandrakar, 2017). PC will be measured by two subcontracts: relational and transactional PC. Both relational (6 items) and transactional (9 items) PC will be derived from Raja et al. (2004). Finally, the employee performance will be measured by two sub-constructs: in-role and extra-role performance. The in-role performance will be measured by three items adapted from Goodman and Svyantek’s (1999), and two items adapted from Williams and Anderson’s (1991). Further, extra-role performance will be measured by eight items adapted from Williams and Anderson’s (1991). All items will be measured by five-point Likert-type scales ranging from “strongly disagree =1” to “strongly agree =5). SEM will be used to test the moderating effects of PC fulfillment on the relationship between organizational support and employee performance.

Expected Findings and Implications

This study expects to make a considerable contribution to the practical work of human resources and to provide more insight into how employees’ performance is influenced by PC.
fulfillment. Furthermore, this study expects to help guide decision-makers to fulfill their promise and obligations, as PC breach is possible to have a negative impact on employee or employer behavior. Also, the results of this study expect to identify how organizational support for employees helps in PC fulfillment. Results expect help in improving work employer-employees relationships.

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Solo Female Travelers: A Comparison of Psychographics and Demographics From a Developed and a Developing Country Perspective

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Abstract

Solo travel is becoming one of the fastest growing segments of the international tourism market (Dempsey, 2015), and is driven by shifts in social structure and lifestyle changes (Jordan & Gibson, 2005; Newman, 2010). According to the tourism literature, a ‘solo traveler’ simply refers to a person who arrives in a destination alone (Foo, 1999) or choose to travel on his/her own for leisure (Bianchi, 2016). Based on a survey of 2,300 people by marketing firm Million Gallons Per Year Global (MMGY), about one in four people indicated that they will travel solo in 2018 (MMGY, 2017). Also, between January 1, 2015 and December 2017, the number of searches on Google for solo travel increased by up to 40 percent (GoogleTrends.com, 2017).

According to solotravelerworld.com, solo travelers like to travel internationally and spend a range of $500 to $1500 in one week. Also up to 75 percent of solo travelers are women (solotravelerworld.com, 2018). A 2014 survey by booking.com from their solo travel report revealed that about 72 percent of American women were taking up to three or more solo trips in a given year (Booking.com, 2014). However, empirical research on both the motivations and barriers to travel for this consumer segment is scant.

This study seeks to segment solo female travelers who travel internationally based on key psychographic variables (motivation, barriers, personality) and demographic variables (age, income, marital status, religion, education, and travel destinations) using a quantitative survey design to find any hidden patterns and differences. In addition, the study seeks to carry out these segmentation approaches in two separate countries (Bangladesh and USA) so that we better understand the solo female travel phenomenon in the developing vs. developed world. Findings of this study are expected to help travel planners, tour operators, and policy makers understand this emerging market segment so that they can provide better products specific to the unique needs of this market segment. The fundamental research questions this study will address are as follows:

1. What underlying market segments exist within solo female travelers based on key psychographics such as travel motivation, barriers, and personality in Bangladesh?
2. What underlying market segments exist within solo female travelers based on key demographics such as age, income, education, marital status, and travel destinations in Bangladesh?
3. What underlying market segments exist within solo female travelers based on key psychographics such as travel motivation, barriers, and personality in USA?
4. What underlying market segments exist within solo female travelers based on key demographics such as age, income, education, marital status, and travel destinations in USA?
5. What are the main differences in solo female travelers between Bangladesh and USA in
the nature of these market segments and in their key demographic and psychographic variables?

**Literature Review**

Despite increasing research on solo female travelers, limited research exist on travel motivations and barriers of solo travelers from different countries (Bianchi, 2016). Prior studies have focused on general travel motivations and constraints of participants’ most recent trip (Chiang & Jogaratnam, 2006; Pesonen 2014; Prebensen et al. 2013). However it is reasonable to suggest that motivations and constraints may differ based on a number of factors including participants’ country of origin, type of destination, purpose of travel, whether the trip is domestic or international, and culture (Chiang & Jogaratnam, 2006). The effect of country of origin and/or culture on international solo female travel experiences has received much traction in popular media especially with the upsurge of feminism, social media, and international travel. These travel trends are also influenced by an upsurge in the aging population of singles, an increase in the number of single-parent households, and a rise in delayed marriage and childless couples, particularly in individualistic cultures and the increasing safety standards in many travel destinations across the world (Laesser, Beriteli, & Bieger, 2009).

Hofstede (1980) found that peoples’ intentions and behavior differ based on their cultural group. With the rise in information exchange between countries, people increasingly give superior importance to their own cultural identity (Miller, 2016), which results in differences in their consumption behavior (Cervellon & Dube, 2002; Smith & Bond, 1999). Hofstede’s (1982) theory on cross-sectional differences in consumer behavior can provide useful insight on differences in solo female travel motivations and barriers from developed and developing countries. The five dimensions identified in Hofstede’s research were masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, long-term vs short-term and and individualism- collectivism. This study will use Hofstede (1983) theory on national culture to explain differences in travel motivations, barriers, and demographics and psychographics of solo female travelers from a developing and a developed country perspective.

Motivations describe the ‘driving force behind all behavior’ (Fodness, 1994).

Consequently, underlying motivations can predict travel behavior (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983), such that people who are highly motivated are most likely to overcome constraints and participate in more leisure activities (Fredman & Heberlein 2005). Similarly, the solo female traveler may experience intrapersonal barriers relating to individual psychological traits such as stress, anxiety, attitudes, and perceived self-skill that might prevent her from participating in leisure activities. Furthermore, interpersonal barriers can result from social interactions with friends, family and others that block people’s intention to travel (Fredman & Heberlein, 2005). However, in addition Fredman and Heberlin’s list, barriers prohibiting travel may also exist within the country’s social structure, such as the need to get a visa for international travels, cultural norms, inaccessibility or the glass ceiling effect often experienced by women in society; while for others, motivation to travel may be influenced by the social climate of activism and women empowerment.

Personality traits have been studied in extant literature as impact factors that determine individual behavior (Allport,1938; Milfont & Sibley, 2012). They are formed by the long-term influence of the personal environment and represents relatively stable characteristics of individuals (Servidio, 2015). For example Lasser et al. (2009) found that people who traveled solo tend to be more empathetic, emotional and imaginative, whereas group travelers were described as doers and lovers of material comfort. Demographic variables have also been found to significantly impact travel behavior. The variable age in particular has been negatively correlated with trip chaining, showing that older people tend to make short and simpler trips when compared to younger age groups (Chen &
Also, higher income and education has been associated with travel frequency (Lin & Wang, 2014). As such, analyzing these variables in a solo female travel context could add much insight to the hospitality literature.

Methods

Solo female travelers will be recruited from social media groups such as the Solo Female Traveler Network, BestSingleTravel, Wanderful, and Pintrotters. These social groups were listed by travelranked.com among the top social networks for female travelers. Also, there are several solo female traveler networks that the authors will connect with through Facebook in both Bangladesh and USA to collect data. Additionally we will recruit female international students who study abroad at a southern university in the US (both incoming and outgoing) for pilot testing purposes through the international student services office. We will use a quantitative survey design to segment participants based on key psychographic and demographic variables.

The survey will be adapted from Chen and Wu’s (2009) travel motivation and barriers survey, John (1990) introvert/extrovert personality scales and Hofstede (1980) cultural values scale. Section 1 of the questionnaire will feature questions pertaining to participants’ overseas travel experience in the past three years and the propensity to travel overseas the upcoming year. A binary categorical scale will be used to measure both questions. Section two will measure travel motivations with 19 items and participants’ constraints to travel with 14 items. Section three will measure their cultural values with 26 items, while Section 4 will measure respondents’ personality with 12 items. Respondents will be asked to indicate their level of agreement of items in Sections two and three on a five-point Likert type scale anchored by ‘strongly disagree (=1)’ to ‘strongly agree (=5)’. A binary categorical scale will be used to measure personality traits in section four. The final section will feature participant’s demographic information with six items, such as gender, marital status, age, and educational level by means of a categorical scale. In order to compare solo female travelers between USA and Bangladesh, ANOVA and t-tests will be utilized using SPSS.

Research Implications

Since participants from USA and Bangladesh are also representatives from a developed and a developing country respectively, studying differences in their travel motivations and barriers from a solo female traveler perspective could provide a more targeted approach in how tourism organizations, travel planner, tour operator and policy makers advertise their products and travel services to meet the needs of this specific consumer segment. Similarly, a suitable design of travel experiences and service provider training to identify different motivations will improve the level of satisfaction for solo female travelers (Laesser et al., 2009). Furthermore, universities who recruit international students could easily identify unique characteristics of solo female travelers to attract female students to their programs by modifying their recruitment tactics to reflect the barriers or motivations that affect prospective students from a particular country of origin.

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Abstract

Leadership is defined as a social influence process and involves determining the group or organizations objectives/goals, encourages behavior in pursuit of these objectives/goals, and influences group maintenance and culture (Erkutlu, 2008). Within the hospitality industry, managers are faced with major challenges that require understanding and skill. In order to face the many challenges presented, there is a demand on the leadership ability of future hospitality managers and executives (Salem, 2015), making leadership a necessary skill for today's hospitality students who will serve as tomorrow’s managers and leaders (Erkutlu, 2008). The real challenge is to be able to measure leadership. There are numerous tools today to do this, one example is the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1998). The authors of this research in progress believe that transformational leadership can be the key, thus this abstract proposes to build an instrument to measure transformational leadership.

Literature Review

There are many perspectives to leadership. Coley (1902) stated that leadership is the focus of group processes. Munson (1921) said leadership is the art of inducing compliance, and Nash (1929) said leadership is the exercise of influence. Another researcher stated that leadership is an emerging effect of interaction (Bogardus, 1929). Whereas Davis (1943) stated that leadership is an instrument of goal achievement. Leadership is the initiation of structure (Gouldner, 1950), and leadership is a differentiated role (Gordon, 1955). Neustadt (1960) said leadership is a form of persuasion, while Fiedler (1967) said leadership is an act of behavior. Leadership is a combination of elements (Jago, 1982; Tichy & Divanna, 1986), and leadership is a power relation (Bass, 1990). Leadership is differentiated from management (Peele, 2005).

Leadership can also be seen as personality in its effects. Personality theorists “regard leadership as a one-way effect: Leaders (sic) possess qualities that differentiate them from followers” (Bass, 1990, p.12). The idea of leadership is also reflected in the idea of coaching. According to Best (2010), coaches assume theories and models of development, as well as coaching strategies that are effective in helping current and future leaders to be successful.
Hollander (1964) described the leader/follower relationship as a social exchange. A social exchange viewpoint sees the leader in a transaction by giving the followers benefits (Hollander, 1964).

Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, and Jung (2002) observed that two thirds of Fortune 500 organizations will use some form of teams in their organization. Based on their results, they believe that appropriate and early leadership interventions would have a significant and positive impact on the team’s performance (Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, & Jung, 2002). Furthermore, Kouzes and Posner (2002) stated that “Leadership is a set of skills. Like any skill, with proper motivation and desire, with practice and feedback, through role models and coaching, this skill can be strengthened, honed and enhanced” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 20).

**Transactional and Transformational Leadership**

Two of the well-known leadership styles that are recognized are transactional and transformational. Burns (1978) stated that transactional styled instructors placed greater emphasis on work standards, assignments, and task related goals. It could be premised that transactional styled instructors use a system of rewards (grades) to avoid punishment (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). Transactional leadership is based on the ‘give and take’ relationship and does not try to change the culture in the organization. Transformational leadership is defined as “a leadership approach that causes change in individuals and social systems” (Burns, 1978, p. 1). Burns (1978) first introduced the phenomenon of transforming leadership in his research on political leaders. According to Burns, “transforming leadership is a process in which leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation” (Burns, 1978, p. 1). The transformative styled instructor facilitates students’ understanding on his/her present life, and his/her future life as well (Hallinger, 2003). In this regard, leadership motivates students by appealing to higher ideas and higher moral values. Transformative leadership has caused changes in the life of people and the organizations, and is based on the leader’s personality traits, and the ability he/she has to make a change through their goals, vision, and example (Hallinger, 2003).

According to Matzler, Baurer, and Mooradian (2015), self-esteem is positively related to transformational leadership. In their article, they introduce a variable that helps to explain why some leaders are more likely to engage in transformational leadership than others. This study shows that not all individuals hold the predisposition required to become a transformational leader. It requires a certain degree of self-esteem to be able to inspire and challenge followers, stimulate employees, and instill a sense of confidence in their followers (Matzler, Baurer, and Morradian (2015). Caldwell, et al. (2012) identified 6 perspectives to transformative leadership. They are:

1. Transformational leadership is grounded in moral foundations and comprises four components: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration (Bass & Steidlmier, 1999). The relationship between transformational and transformative leadership is the leader’s ability to seek benefits for the individual, the organization, and for society which will achieve greater profitability than other leadership styles (Caldwell, et al., 2012).

2. Charismatic leadership creates a leader/follower relationship where the leader creates a strong personal bond with the follower (Conger, et al., 2000). The relationship between charismatic and transformative leadership is the leader’s ability to create compelling morally-based personal relationships that inspire and empower others. These leaders have a quest to help others examine their lives, fulfill their potential, and create a better world.
3. Level 5 leadership combines a leader’s personal humility with a ferocious drive to achieve sensational outcomes. Transformative leaders incorporate the Level 5 leader’s passionate commitment and devoted dedication to an organization’s goals while coupling with their deep, personal humility (Caldwell, et al., 2012).

4. Principle-centered leadership governs oneself and honors relationships with others that view leadership as highly ethical obligations to honor implicit duties that others deserve (Covey, 1991). Transformative leaders honor principles, model organizational values, and recognize that effective leadership is the integration of both of these leadership styles (Caldwell, et al., 2012).

5. Servant leadership is “providing leadership that focuses on the good of those who are being led and those whom the organization serves” (Hamilton & Nord, 2005, p. 875). The relationship between servant leadership and transformative is the commitment to the welfare, growth, and wholeness of others that makes this leader credible and trustworthy (Caldwell, et al., 2012).

6. Conventional leadership integrates the roles of the leader as the teacher, role model, and creator in new meaning and truth with partnerships with others within the organization (Pava, 2003). The relationship between conventional leadership and transformative leadership is the establishment of a continuous learning culture to create new insights in organizational structure (Caldwell, et al., 2012).

Leadership Within Hospitality Education

Transformational leadership is an integral part of the success of a business within the hospitality industry. It is important for hospitality educators to develop leadership within the classroom so that students are prepared and ready when entering the industry. Students might find it problematic to lead until they have experienced effective leadership as part of their higher education (Astin & Astin, 1999, p. 2). Research on student-learning outcomes showed that “university graduates do not have the important skills that are required by employers, such as communication, decision making, problem solving, leadership, emotional intelligence, social ethics skills, and the ability to work with people from different backgrounds” (Bonitto & Noriega, 2012, p. 5). Not only do employers note the importance of these skills, but faculty members and alumni state the need for leadership in hospitality management graduates (Arendt & Gregoire, 2005). This supports the notion that the hospitality management curriculum should include leadership development (Astin & Astin, 1999). Hospitality management faculty could help students develop and enhance their leadership behaviors by certain activities and assignments incorporated in their coursework.

Methodology

The researchers will develop the transformational leadership criteria based on the work of Astin and Astin (1999). Once the criteria are developed, the researchers will employ a Delphi panel of ten academicians and ten professional leaders. Based on previous work, this sample size makes the process manageable for both parties involved. The Delphi panel will be completed in two electronic rounds: 1) the importance of the criteria, and 2) the scale to be used to measure transformative leadership. The purpose of a Delphi panel is to utilize a communication method to create convergence of expert opinions around a specific issue or topic. Once the instrument is created, based on the Delphi panel, the next step will be to send the proposed instrument to 2,500
CEO’s, COO’s, HR Vice Presidents, HR Managers and HR Directors electronically utilizing Qualtric’s Survey.

Discussion/Implications

The results will help determine the type of Delphi panel to use in order to measure transformational leadership. This will help within two major institutions, higher education and professional work settings. By identifying transformational leadership capability within college students, educators can develop assignments that will help further the development of these leadership skills. In the professional setting, human resource professionals can design training programs that will further the development of transformational leadership within the organization’s work force.

References


The Influence of Sustainable Local Food Supply Chain on Customers’ Food Experience and Revisit Intention

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Introduction

The foodservice industry serves billions of meals every year (Gössling et al., 2011). Therefore, the industry has a critical role in the local and global food waste challenge (Martin- Rios et al., 2018). The hospitality industry is currently subject to persistent demands from customers for sustainability practices due to the increasing consideration of the sustainability actions by large numbers of travelers and tourists during the journey and accommodation (Kularatne et al., 2019). This was confirmed by Kang et al. (2012) whose disclosed that American hotel consumers had deeper concerns about their environment and showed a higher price premium for green hotels (Kim et al., 2019).

Sustainability practices in the FSCM have become one of the most important factors influencing customers’ perceptions and decision-making process (Xu & Gursoy, 2015). Thus, hotel managers have paid more attention to the integration of environmental and social aspects with economic considerations, known as the triple-bottom-line (TBL) dimensions of organizational sustainability in the FSCM and operations management practices (Brandenburg et al., 2014). Furthermore, prior research revealed that sustainability practices have become significant determinants of customer loyalty, their willingness to pay a premium (Xu & Gursoy, 2015) and are more likely to pay a repeat visit (Szuchnicki, 2009). Also, a green hotel image has been found to positively affect customers' perceptions and increases their revisit intention for a future stay (Lee et al., 2010). True sustainability requires a long-term collaboration among all stakeholders involved in hotel FSM, which involves various suppliers and retailers of all hospitality goods, services, and customers to whom the goods and services are delivered (Xu & Gursoy, 2015).

Recently, consumers are becoming increasingly aware of the items they consume, including their origin, the inputs used during production, the labor standards implemented, and the environmental impact of production (Beske et al., 2014). This led to an increasing interest in local food for tourists and customers of food service establishments. Locality is a concern of residents and travelers who show an increasing interest in locally grown food and locally produced food items (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). The increase interest for local food among consumers, social movements, the media and academia because local food is more sustainable, ecological and healthier (Schmitt et al., 2017). Local food is considered potentially enhancing sustainability in tourism i.e., the ecological, social and, economic impacts. Therefore, the sustainability of local food has been under scrutiny of the consumers (Beske et al., 2014).

Local residents typically turn to local food because of issues related to ethics, environment, and sustainability, they perceive these food products as more socially responsible. At the same manner, discovery and consumption of local food and beverages has been given increasing
attention by tourists, which made food an essential pillar of the tourist experience, providing various sources of special meaning and pleasure. Certain travelers and tourists determine their destination according to the gastronomy menus (Matson-Barkat & Robert-Demontrond, 2018). Several research studies investigated the sustainability (Kularatne et al., 2019) and customer experience (Sheng & Chen, 2013; Matson-Barkat, & Robert-Demontrond, 2018) in the tourism and hospitality industry in general and few studies investigated the sustainability of hotel supply chain and customer behaviors (Xu & Gursoy, 2015). To date, to our knowledge, there is no study investigated the influence of the sustainability of the local food supply chain on the customer food experience and their intention to revisit. Hence, this study try to find answers to the following:

RQ1: To what extent do green hotels in the USA adopt sustainable local FSC practices in their hotel FSCM?

RQ2: To what extent do the sustainability dimensions (environmental social and economic) of local FSC affect customers experience?

RQ3: To what extent do the adoption of the sustainable local FSC affect customers revisit intention?

**Literature Review**

**Local Food and Food Sustainability in the Hospitality Industry**

Local food is often regarded as a more sustainable alternative to global food (Hall & Gössling, 2016). Residents typically turn to local food due to the social, environmental, and economic responsibility to optimize local food sustainability (Mirosa and Lawson, 2012), through utilizing locally grown and produced food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). Also, locally food-orientation by tourists and travelers enhanced local agricultural practices and foodways (Roy et al., 2017). The key characteristics of local food are: short distances between producers and consumers; organic and low external input production methods; and sustainable production, distribution and consumption (Roy et al., 2017). Local food has many beneficial attributes for instance, better environment, greater social justice, healthier food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016), more freshness, short transport and security (Aaltojärvi et al., 2018).

However, the linkage between local food supply chain and sustainability remain discord (Roy et al., 2017), local food is regarded as potentially enhancing sustainability in tourism and hospitality industry (Green & Dougherty, 2009). Thus, the interest of the sustainability of FSCM in the food industry, due to climate change, water usage, toxic discharges, environment change, and the food demand of a growing population, was increased (Benis and Ferrao, 2017). These sustainability challenges put substantial pressure on food industry to utilize local food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). Hall and Gössling, (2016) argued that purchasing within the local food system could generate a multiplier effect that will benefit the local economy.

Sustainability of supply chain management practices is defined as a development that meets the needs of contemporary generations without sacrificing the ability and opportunity of future generations to meet their needs in the supply chain (Ashby et al., 2012). A sustainable food system is “a collaborative network that integrates several components in order to enhance a community’s environmental, economic and social well-being” (Calgary, 14th December, 2018). There are three dimensions of the food sustainability. First, the environmental dimension focuses on minimization of negative effects on environment caused by operations of a supply chain. Second, the social dimension refers to maximization of the social-welfare of related stakeholders in the supply chain such as employees, customers, suppliers and anyone else who is affected by the operations of the supply
chain. Finally, the economic dimension focuses on generating and keeping long-terms of profits while minimizing the negative environmental and social consequences (Xu & Gursoy, 2015).

Customer Food Experience and Revisit Intention

Customer experience “ originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a product, a company, or part of its organization, which provoke a reaction” (Gentile et al., 2007, p397). In the hospitality and tourism context, discovery and consumption of local food and beverages has been given increasing attention by tourists, which made food an essential pillar of the tourist experience, providing various sources of special meaning and pleasure. Moreover, certain travelers and tourists determine their destination according to the gastronomy menus (Matson-Barkat, & Robert-Demontrond, 2018). Food tourism was defined by Hall and Mitchell (2001, p. 308) as “a visit to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a specialist food production region are the primary motivating factors for travel”.

However, the excessive literature of the customer experience and food experience in the various disciplines, there no global accepted dimensions for food experience. For instance, Jensen, and Gustafsson (2005) mentioned that product, interior decoration, contact with staff, contact with customers, and the occasion are the five key themes influence the restaurant experience. While, Matson-Barkat & Robert-Demontrond (2018) measured the customer food experience with another five dimensions such as, sharing experiences, family togetherness and transmission, cultural guidance and customer-to-customer interaction. Otto and Ritchie (1996) developed a model to assess the quality of the service experience (refer to Otto and Ritchie, 1996) which consisted of four dimensions: hedonics, peace of mind, involvement and recognition. The model has been applied to service experience in various studies in the tourism industry (Astrapellos et al., 2010; Chen & Chen, 2010) but not widely applied to the hospitality industry. In so doing, this study will depend on the conceptualized model by Otto and Ritchie (1996) to assess the customer food experience. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: The environmental, social and economic dimensions of the sustainable local food supply chain will have a significant positive impact on customer hedonics in green hotels.

H2: The environmental, social and economic dimensions of the sustainable local food supply chain will have a significant positive impact on customer peace of mind in green hotels.

H3: The environmental, social and economic dimensions of the sustainable local food supply chain will have a significant positive impact on customer involvement in green hotels.

H4: The environmental, social and economic dimensions of the sustainable local food supply chain will have a significant positive impact on customer recognition in green hotels.

H5: The environmental, social and economic dimensions of the sustainable local food supply chain will have a significant positive impact on the customer revisit intention in green hotels.

H6: Customers’ food experience will have a significant positive impact on their revisit intention.

Methods

Led by the hypotheses, this research will adopt an integrated, mixed-methods approach corroborate the research findings. First, a systematic review and meta-analysis will be conducted on literature on the sustainability of local FSCM in green hotels. Second, two surveys with a panel of
green hotel operators and consumers will be conducted to test hypotheses 1 – 6. Two questionnaires will be developed using measurement scales adapted from the comprehensive literature and related models. Additionally, all of the items will be measured by five-point Likert scales ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. The online questionnaires will consist of six sections including: the hotel’s perception of the sustainability of local food supply chain, environmental factors, social factors, and economic factors and hotels and decision makers’ profile. While the customer questionnaire will consist of four sections: the customer’ perception of sustainability of local food, experience context, revisit intention and consumer demographics. Data will be analyzed using the covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM). The data will be drawn from the publications of Smith Travel Research (STR) and green hotels association in the USA.

**Study Implications**

These research results will represent an important extension to the sustainability of local food supply chain and customer food experience literature of the hospitality industry to bridge the gap of food sustainability and customer food experience. The most important implication of the study will investigate how green hotel operators adopt the sustainability practices of the local food products. This will help formulate an integrated theoretical model explaining the influences of the sustainable local food supply chain practices of the green hotels on customer food experience. The study will be a pioneer study to use the service experience model of Otto and Ritchie (1996) to assess the customer food experience in green hotels. This study will help spread the usage of local food products in a sustainable manner to perform business actions in the hospitality industry which in turn will help to save the whole environment and local society. Finally, due the social and economic impact of the sustainability of local food supply chain practices, this will add a positive impact on the economy of the country.

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intention.


The Gay Campground Experience

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Abstract

Camping is a global tourism phenomenon that is nature-based and allows for the flexible and temporary accommodations in the natural environment among other campers (Nolan & Baxon, 2000). As of 2013, more than 40 million Americans went camping, generating 497.7 million camping overnights (Coleman Company Inc. & Outdoor Foundation, 2014). Camping is a unique isolated temporary space. Similarly, the LGBT\(^1\) community has long been creators of physical and temporary “gay spaces” to express their identity and meet others. The importance of “gay spaces” providing opportunity to socialize with others is extended to the camping phenomenon (Vorobjovas-Pinta, & Hardy, 2016). This study proposes to build upon camping literature and investigate the unique essence of gay camping. The investigation asks three questions: (a) what are the gay camping service quality factors (b) what is the relationship between service quality and LGBT community and (c) what is the relationship between guest perceptions of LGBT community and camping intentions.

Literature Review

The theoretical foundation of the gay camping phenomenon lies in gay travel motivation and gay spaces. Homosexual is assumed to be a biological term, while gay is a term used to describe homosexual men and women and lesbian is a specific term for gay women (Valentine and Skelton, 2003). To summarize gay tourists’ motivation literature, gays tend to travel to search for their identity, meet others, escape from daily routines, express themselves, and for intimate encounters (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996; Clift & Forrest, 1999; Hughes, 1997). Being gay is a key factor in a guest travel and leisure market and its subcultures or identities (Hughes, 1997). Gay travel (Casey, 2009), Pink tourism (Poria, 2008), Alternative tourism (Ivy, 2001), Gay-centric, gay-related (Hughes, 2002) are a number of labels associated with LGBTQ travel. The LGBT community has created various “gay spaces” to express their identity and meet others (Hughes, 2006). These “gay spaces” consist of bars, clubs, community centers, and campgrounds, providing opportunity to express cultural and gay identity Murphy (1982).

Similar to gay travel, gay camping has a strong social component and provides guests a sense of well-being (Frable, Platt, & Hoey, 1998). A growing body of research suggests recreation and leisure with like-minded persons offer benefits for gays (Iwasaki, MacKay, MacTavish, Ristock, & Bartlett, 2006; Jones & McCarthy, 2010; Kivel & Kleiber, 2000). The experience provides a relief from distress, relief of social stigma, and enhancing mood (Coleman & Iso-Ahola,
confirmed the social nature of gay campground, but also indicated that the amenities at the
campground were more satisfying and supporting environment than social life in the city where they
lived most of the year. What remains to be investigated is the specific quality factors of the guest
experience and how amenities and campground features relate to the social aspects of the LGBTQ
community and the guest intent to camp in the future.

Methods

With the lack of empirical investigation of gay camping, this study builds upon overall
camping and gay travel literature to investigate camper perceptions of a quality and valued guest
experience. By employing exploratory factor analysis, the investigators provide the industry with
descriptive factors of a valued and quality Gay Campground experience (question a.). In addition to
the physical features and activities that add to guest value, it is important to identify the intrinsic
relationship of the guest experience to their involvement in the gay community (question b.) and
their intended behaviors (question c).

The Principal Investigator (PI) gained approval from 12 of the 35 gay-owned or friendly
campgrounds in the United States and Canada. The PI visited the campgrounds to collect data via an
intercept approach at the campground’s public areas. A total of 24 gay campground service quality
dimensions were created from a review of campground website and related travel literature. In
addition to amenities and features, survey questions were added to measure LGBT awareness of
consequences (sample item: hosting a glamping experience may generate greater acceptance of the
LGBT community) (Bamberg & Schmidt, 2003). Five additional questions measured camping
intentions (sample item: I plan to attend a gay campground in the near future) (Ajzen, 1991; Han,
2013).

Findings

Data were examined using IBM SPSS 22.0. A total of 182 participants participated in the
survey instrument (Table 1). The average age of the respondents was 50.5, and the ages ranged from
20-83. Respondents were predominately male (92.8%), White/Caucasian (84.7%), and gay (83.5%).
71.1% of the respondents had incomes higher than $50,000, and 51.3% had an associate’s degree
or higher. 33.9% of the respondents were single, 18.3% were married, and 20.6% were living with
their partner.

The first research questions related to expected quality features, amenities and activities
that at gay campgrounds was addressed by examining the websites and media to identify 24
common service quality dimensions. To gauge guest perceptions of their most valued service
quality dimensions (research question two), an exploratory factor analysis utilizing Varimax
rotation was conducted to reduce the dimensions into factors (Table 2). After reducing cross-
loadings, four factors emerged and were named Activities/Features (six factors: liquor/grocery,
gay activities, tourist activities, Wi-Fi, laundry, billiards, $\alpha = .783, 27.5\%$ of variance);
Campground Amenities (two factors: full hook up and AMP, $\alpha = .714, 9.8\%$ of variance);
Relaxation (two factors: spa hot tub and steam room/sauna, $\alpha = .718, 6.8\%$ of variance); and
BBQ/Bonfire (two factors: bonfire and BBQ pit picnic, $\alpha = .682, 5.3\%$ of variance).

Examination of KMO, eigenvalues, and Barlett’s Test of Sphericity (KMO = .743,
Approximate Chi-Square = 587.185, $df=66, p < .001$, total variance explained = 49.544%) suggested
the factor structure was a good fit.

The factor analysis organized the service quality dimensions into related groups of common
factors of a valued gay campground experience; Activities/Features, Campground Amenities, Relaxation, and BBQ/Bonfire. These factors were necessary to address the third research question unique to gay travel literature, wherein there are unique factors or essences of gay travel that relate to LGBT community and camping intentions. The researchers employed multiple regression analysis to explain the relationship of between the four service quality factors and LGBT Community (α = .830, Table 3). The regression model produced $F=3.036 (4,175) = p < .019$, $R^2 = .065$ (Table 4) where Campground Activities/Features ($b = .0223, p = .008$) was significant (Table 5). The results indicated that the participants related specific activities and features of a gay campground to the LGBT community. With the relationship to the LGBT community confirmed, the regression analysis continued to determine the significance of the relationship between LGBT community and behavioral intentions, (α = .807). The regression model produced $F = 47.084 (1, 180) = p < .001$, $R^2 = .207$ (Table 6 & 7). LGBT community ($b = .0455, p < .001$) was significant (Table 8), indicating that the four factors of a gay campground experience relate to a campers camping intentions following their current stay.

Implications

The investigators purposefully investigated gay campground media to identify 24 service quality dimensions. These dimensions became dependent variables in both factorial and regression analysis to explain the essence of the gay campground experience related to the LGBTQ community and camping intentions following their stay. The two most valued of the factors were activities and features (27.5% of variance) and campground amenities (9.834% of variance). The results indicate that the participants appeared to assign value in a camping experience if the campground has the infrastructure necessary for a quality experience, such as a liquor/store, wifi and laundry. However, within the activities and facilities factor, some of value was explained by activities that are social in nature, such as gay specific activities/events, proximity to local tourist sites and shared experiences, such as billiards. The remaining quality service factors were more social in nature with relaxation in the spa or steam room explaining 6.8% of variance, followed by the social factor of BBQ/fire pit representing 5.3% of variance.

The factor analysis was important in identifying specific infrastructure needs for a quality guest experience, however the results hint at predominately social and community essences of the gay campground experiences. Similar to prior gay travel studies (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996; Clift & Forrest, 1999; Hughes, 1997) these “gay spaces” offer opportunity to express their identity, equal to the physical facilities and activities available during their stay. The investigators purposefully designed the study to identify quality guest service factors and confirm the relationship of those factors to the LGBT community and intent to camp again. The study is limited by the sample size of 182 guests from 12 different campgrounds. Future studies may conduct a broader analysis to provide insight into the service quality factors and their marketing and financial significance in the gay travel space. Furthermore, qualitative analysis would better address the how and why questions that that provide data to explain the relationship of those factors to the LGBT community and intended behavior.

The results are important for campground owners and operators because like camping, the quality service factors indicate the infrastructure needs that are most valued by campers.

Unique to the gay campground however, the results remind the industry that the essence of the gay travel experience is fundamentally social in nature with activities and features that enhance a sense of belonging to the LGBT community. For those operators who wish to enhance the guest experience, the facilities and features appear to be a basic requirement, however those factors that
are “gay spaces” that foster behaviors common in the LGBT community are the essence of the gay campground experience.

References


How can El Gouna in Egypt Become a Green Destination?

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Abstract

Tourism stimulates economic growth, contributes to gross domestic product (GDP), job creation, and foreign exchange generation (Archer 1995; Durbarry 2002; Castro et al., 2013). Overall, tourism contributes to 10% of world Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 10% of employment. Tourism value in global exports is about US$ 1.6 trillion a year. In 2017, the international tourists were about 1.326 billion (UNWTO, 2018). The World Economic Forum (WEF) estimates that 6% of the total numbers of international tourists pay extra for sustainable tourism options and, 34% are willing to pay extra for these options (WEF, 2009).

The main purpose of this study is to evaluate different green certification bodies globally and based on this critical review to analyze El Gouna in Egypt as a case study for a green destination. Based on previous literature the main certification bodies are EarthCheck, Green Destinations, Green Globe, Quality Coast and Biosphere (Akhter & Darzi, 2013). These certification bodies are under the umbrella of Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC), which is supported by United Nations (GSTC, 2018). Four main categories of criteria, derived from destination criteria of GSTC, are used by certification bodies. They are: (1) Demonstrate Sustainable Destination Management, (2) Maximize Social and Economic Benefits to the Host Community and Minimize Negative Impacts, (3) Maximize Benefits to Communities, Visitors and Cultural Heritage, and Minimize Negative Impacts and finally, (4) Maximize Benefits to the Environment and Minimize Negative Impacts. All certification bodies follow the principles of sustainable tourism (Buckley, 2002). However, there are differences among their criteria as well. For instance, Biosphere added a separate category about "social inclusiveness, employment and poverty reduction". Biosphere and Quality Coast recognized the importance of peace and security (Biosphere tourism, 2019; Moller, 2013). In addition, EarthCheck included a section to Biodiversity Benchmarking (Altintas & Güzel, 2018; Becken & Shuker, 2019). The specific added criteria are related to the uniqueness of the destination.

To review the certification bodies in a specific destination, El Gouna in Egypt is chosen as a case study. El Gouna is a private self-sufficient city built on 10km on the Red Sea coastline in Egypt located north of Hurghada. It is one of the special tourist destinations in Egypt (Hilal, 2017). It has all the boundaries of a tourism destination; the size, the owner company which is Orascom Hotel for Development, the facilities in the city whether hotels or restaurants and some villas and apartments for local residents (Lee, 2000). El Gouna is on its way to achieve sustainability. The main principles and most of the destination criteria by GSTC are available in the city. The city of El Gouna is committed to promote initiatives in order to minimize any environmental impacts. These
include the use of renewable energy both in residential and tourism sectors, the use of treated waste water in agriculture, the re-use and recycling of 85% of produced wastes and the implementation of farming projects to locally grow organic products (Dabaieh et al., 2018). The researchers are in the process of collecting data via documentary analysis, interviews, and observations.

The initial study findings suggest that there is a good opportunity for El Gouna to use the sustainable measurements and destination criteria of GSTC. The city meets several green destination criteria in the areas of minimizing the environmental impacts of using energy, water resources and waste management. On the other hand, El Gouna can use these sustainable criteria as a tool to brand itself and attract special types of tourists.

This study will offer El Gouna an opportunity to analyze and improve its green destination performance. In addition, this study may provide a checklist for other tourism destinations in Egypt to achieve and maintain green destination certification. As being one of the first studies that focus on green destinations in Egypt, this study should offer clear theoretical and practical implications on green destination certification in Egypt and similar destinations.

References


The Impact of Hotel Customers’ Nonverbal Behavior on Employees’ Emotional States

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Abstract

Nonverbal behavior, such as facial expressions, gestures, posture and intonation, constitutes about 93% of interpersonal communication and acts as a medium of emotional contagion (Mehrabian, 1968). Thus, social interactions depend on how individuals interpret nonverbal behavior and make appropriate emotional responses (Hargie, 2006). Considering the importance of social interactions in the hospitality industry, the current study aims to investigate the influence of customers’ nonverbal communication on hotel frontline employees, using Emotional Contagion Theory. More specifically, the study tries to understand if customers’ nonverbal behavior affects employees’ perception of customers’ emotional states and consequently employees’ emotional states. Understanding customers’ nonverbal cues helps employees to regulate their emotions in instances where it is natural for them to mimic negative affect (Dallimore, Sparks, & Butcher, 2007). There are several studies on nonverbal behavior in educational environments (Gulec & Temel, 2015) and health centers (Mast, 2007). However, there are very few studies on this subject in the hospitality sector (Jung & Yoon, 2011). These studies primarily focused on the effect of employees’ nonverbal behavior on guests, however, since the communication is a mutual process, the investigation of the influence of customers’ nonverbal behavior on employees seems critical.

Literature Review

The theory of emotional contagion. It is a generally accepted principle that emotional responses can be contagious. In fact, people tend to pick up emotional cues from others in an interaction and may even begin to display similar emotions themselves. This psychological phenomenon, known as emotional contagion, allows people to “catch” emotion from one person to the next (Hatfield et al., 1994). Emotional contagion is often thought to be involuntary, whereby people automatically mimic the facial expressions, movements, and posture of those with which they are in conversation, unwittingly mirroring the nonverbal emotional responses of the other (Hatfield et al., 1994).

Emotional contagion was studied in the service industry from a number of different perspectives. In the service industry, some research looked at how the mood of service employees can be impacted by customer mood, particularly looking at those relationships from the standpoint of how much emotional labor the employee has to exert to manage their own moods while under the influence of the emotions of a customer (Chu, Baker, & Murmann, 2012). For example, negative emotional contagion was addressed in a study by Dallimore et al. (2007) which looked at how employees’ moods could be affected by facial expressions and verbal anger in customer complaint
interactions. In reverse, the literature suggests that angry customers, or those displaying other negative emotions, can in fact be calmed by the positive display of emotion by an employee (Du, Fan, & Feng, 2011). Thus, knowing about how employees are affected by customers’ emotional states can help them to regulate their emotions accordingly.

**Nonverbal communication.** Nonverbal communication is a type of communication that occurs through sending and receiving nonverbal cues such as facial expressions, posture, and gestures. According to Mehrabian (1968), the total influence of a message is 7% verbal and 93% nonverbal. Nonverbal communication happens in a framework in which a series of codes and signs which, once combined, transmit all the information from the source to the receiver, by different communication channels. Nonverbal communication has some specific characteristics which make it different from verbal communication: as long as there is some visual, auditory, tactile, or olfactory information, the nonverbal channel is “on”, the sending and receiving of nonverbal signals may occur simultaneously, and most nonverbal messages are sent and received automatically and outside of awareness (Patterson, 2012). The current study considers facial expressions and body movements in order to explore emotional states.

**Facial expressions.** The face plays a significant role in the expression of emotions since it can express more than 10000 emotions (Freitas-Magalhaes, 2012). In order to recognize facial expressions of emotions, Ekman & Friesen (1978) provided a protocol called the Facial Action Coding System (FACS). FACS encoded movements of facial muscles and matched these movements with emotions using motion cues, for example, a genuine smile is characterized by crinkled eyes, crow’s feet in area between eyes and ears and no signs of tension on forehead. The current study uses this protocol to relate emotional states with these expressions.

**Body movements.** According to Wallbott (1998), emotional states are reflected directly not only into the face but also into the motor reactions of the body. In order to recognize non-facial expressions of emotions, Calvo, D’Mello, Gratch and Kappas (2015) provided expressive elements of various non-facial expressions, for example, anger is expressed through head backward, arms raised forwards and upwards, and shoulders lifted. This study uses Calvo et al.’s (2015) list of cues to explore emotions.

**Expression of emotions through nonverbal cues.** Emotions constitute a vital part of human interactions. Human beings transfer their emotions through both verbal and nonverbal communications. However, “What people say when they are in the midst of an emotion may not always reveal what they are actually feeling or thinking, not even what they are aware of feeling or thinking” (Ekman, 1993, p. 386). Thus, considering the significant role of nonverbal cues in the conveyance of emotional states, this study investigates the role of facial and non-facial expressions as two major categories of nonverbal cues in the contagion of hotel customers’ four universal emotional states to employees. These four universal emotional states are the most common ones in customer-employee communication process and can be explored independently from cultural contexts: anger, fear, joy, and sadness (Ekman, 1993).

**Nonverbal communication and hospitality.** In the prior literature of hospitality, there are a very few studies on the nonverbal communication. Jung & Yoon (2011) conducted a study on the effects of nonverbal communication of restaurant employees on customers’ emotional responses. Their results indicated that employees’ kinesics and proxemics have an effect on customers’ positive emotions, whereas employees’ kinesics and paralanguage have an effect on customers’ negative emotions. In another study, Yuksel (2008) investigated the effect of employees’ nonverbal behavior on customers’ emotional reactions and evaluation of service employees. The results showed that positive nonverbal cues such as open body posture and appropriate eye contact induce
positive emotions in customers and result in positive evaluation of service employees. In this respect, Blue and Harun (2003) highlighted the importance of nonverbal behavior and emphasized that hospitality employees should learn “hospitality language” including both verbal and nonverbal communication skills in order to have effective interactions with customers.

Considering the importance of nonverbal behavior in the contagion of emotions, this study focuses on the effect of customers’ nonverbal cues on hotel employees and hypothesizes following statements using the Theory of emotional contagion and nonverbal behavior literature:

\[ H_1: \text{Customers’ nonverbal behavior is positively related to employees’ perception of customers’ emotional states.} \]

\[ H_2: \text{Employees’ perception of customers’ emotional states is positively related to employees’ emotional responses.} \]

**Gender as a moderator.** The current paper considers the moderating role of gender in this context, because prior literature showed there are differences in how men and women display and interpret nonverbal cues (Hampson et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2009).

\[ H_3: \text{Gender moderates the relationship between customer’s nonverbal behaviors and the employees’ perception of customers’ emotional states.} \]

\[ H_4: \text{Gender moderates the relationship between employees’ perception of customers’ emotional states and employees’ emotional responses.} \]

**Methods**

**Study design and sampling.** In order to conduct this study, pictures and silent videos will be designed according to FACS and Calvo et al.’s (2015) list of nonverbal cues in order to depict customers’ nonverbal behavior. Then, the pictures/videos will be uploaded in Qualtrics and a pre-test, survey, post-test will be added. Then, frontline employees of 4- & 5-star hotels in US will be invited to complete the experiment. Participants will be asked to perform a pre-test on their current emotional states at the beginning. Then, they will be asked to see/watch the pictures/videos and complete a survey and finally a post-test on their emotional states. In terms of the sample size, researchers aim to collect about 250 samples.

**Employees’ current emotional state (pre-test).** In order to control employee’ emotional states, participants will be asked to select the emotional state that most closely represents their current mood from a preselected list of the universal emotions and rate their feelings using a scale developed by Borg (1982), which adopts a ratio to measure categorical data relative to subjective experiences.

**Employees’ perception of customers’ emotional states.** To measure employees’ perception of customers’ emotional states through emotional contagion, a 15-item scale developed by Doherty (1997) will be used. This scale measures five emotional states: two positive (love and happiness/joy) and three negative states (fear, anger/aggression, and sadness). Since love is not identified in the literature as having universally recognized nonverbal cues (Ekman, 1993), the three items measuring that emotion will be dropped from the scale leaving a 12-item four-point Likert instrument. The measurement tool will be assessed for its validity and reliability.
**Self-reported emotional states (post-test).** In order to measure the participants’ emotional contagion intensity, they will be asked to report and measure how happy, sad, angry, and fearful they will feel upon watching the pictures/video scenarios. Feelings will be rated using the scale developed by Borg (1982).

**Demographics.** Participants will be asked about their demographic information including age, gender, marital status, nationality, educational level, and the length of hospitality service.

**Proposed analytical methods.** A Paired Sample T-test will be conducted to examine whether there is any significant difference between employees’ emotional states before and after the experiment. If a significant result is observed, SEM will be conducted to test the hypotheses.

**Expected Findings and Implications**

It is expected that participants will have some level of emotional contagion indicating that they experience similar feelings to the ones depicted in the pictures/silent videos. Moreover, it is expected that the participants who show a high propensity for emotional contagion will have a higher intensity of emotional connectedness. Regarding the moderating role of gender, it is expected that women will show higher propensity and intensity for emotional contagion.

Theoretically, the study will contribute to the literature of emotional contagion and nonverbal communication in the hospitality context since it tries to explain the effect of nonverbal emotional cues on employees’ emotional states. It is noteworthy to say that previous studies mainly focused on verbal communication. Also, they mostly considered the influence of employees’ emotional states on customers. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the effect of customers’ emotions on employees through nonverbal behavior. Additionally, this study will examine the role of gender in the process of nonverbal communication.

Practically, the current study will help hotel frontline employees to recognize their susceptibility to be influenced by their customers’ emotions through nonverbal cues. Also, it will help them to understand the underlying reasons of their negative/positive emotional states during interaction with customers. Once employees become aware of their emotions and manage them consciously, they will be able to communicate more effectively with customers. In addition, the study will help human resources managers of hotels to hire applicants with less tendency to get emotional when their customers are in a bad mood. Also, it will highlight the importance of training in nonverbal communication skills.

**References**


A Qualitative Investigation into Millennials’ Food Selection and Eating Habits

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Abstract

Millennials enjoy eating out more than all other generational groups. Given this, the current study aims to investigate the factors affecting Millennials’ food selection and eating habits. Data was collected via semi-structured interviews with 50 millennials. The research findings highlight interesting findings about their food selection and eating habits.

Literature Review

Millennials, also called as Gen Y are the generational demographic cohort born between early 1980s to early 2000s (Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013). They represent about 25% of the U.S population and 50% of the global consumer population comprising about 21-27% of consumer discretionary purchases that represent over a trillion dollars of direct buying power (Fry, 2016; Millennial Marketing, 2019). Described as confident, achieving, involved, enthusiastic, sheltered, and special (Gursoy et al., 2013; Stewart, Oliver, Cravens & Oishi, 2016). Millennials focus more on fresh, preferably organic, less processed and less or non-artificial food and ingredients (Lutz, 2015; NextShark, 2018). As a result, many restaurant companies, ranging from fast food to fine dining are actively trying to attract Millennials as their customers. The current study aims to investigate the factors affecting Millennials’ food selection and eating habits.

Methodology
Following a critical review of literature, semi-structured interview questions were developed and qualitative data were collected via 50 Millennials by way of face–to-face interviews in Orlando, FL. Interviews lasted from 20 to 45 minutes and each interview was audio recorded with the permission of the study participant. Data analysis involved content and thematic analyses to identify patterns.

**Expected Results and Implications**

The research findings reveal Millennials’ food selection and eating habits in U.S. They are important for different segments within the restaurant industry. The research findings also offer theoretical implications and suggestions for future research.

**References**


Consumer Perception of Online Channel Distributors on Intentions to Book: Roles of Price and Consumer Knowledge

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Abstract

Hotels primarily use several distribution channels such as hotel direct, central reservation offices, travel agents, and online booking systems to attract transient market. While distribution costs can sometimes be as high as 30% of hotel revenues, hotels start offering travelers incentives to book directly through them. Yet, little attention has been paid to the revenue management implications with the focus of distribution channels. This research attempts to see the effect of channels on behaviors, considering perceived price and consumer knowledge. The purpose of this study is 1) to examine the effects of channels and prices on intentions to book and 2) to study the role of consumer knowledge on the relationships. A 2 (channel) x 3 (price) x 2 (consumer knowledge) quasi-experiment is designed to test research objectives. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) will be used to test significant differences.

Keywords: Distribution channel, online booking, consumer knowledge, price perception, room rates

Background

Distribution channels act as the intermediary that brings hospitality and tourism products to customers. Branded hotels utilize multiple Web based distribution channels, offering multiple rates to their customers over each distribution channel (O'Connor, 2001). To attract transient market, hotels primarily use several distribution channels such as hotel direct, central reservation offices, travel agents, and online booking systems (Choi & Kimes, 2002; Lim & Hall, 2008).

Online Travel Agents (OTAs) are third party booking websites, such as Expedia.com and Booking.com. OTAs have increasingly gained market share (Feinstein, 2018); according to the Hitwise data as of May 2017, online travel agency accounts for 58.28 percent of market share, whereas hotel-direct bookings accounts for 41.72 percent (Schaal, 2017).

Hotel profitability has unfortunately been challenged (Lim & Hall, 2008; Myung, Lan, & Bai 2009). Selling a room through channels can be costly to hotels and direct bookings provide more profits to hotels (Green, 2006). While each channel costs the hotels differently from another, distribution costs can sometimes be as high as 30% of hotel revenues (Green, 2006; Feinstein, 2018). In fact, OTA firms have recorded high profit margins, and some believe that this value transfer from hotel companies to their intermediaries is largely fueled by the hotel fees and commissions making up most of the OTA profits (Green & Lomanno, 2012). Distribution channels including OTAs promise incremental business by enlarging the potential consumer base to those who would not otherwise have been attracted (Lim & Hall, 2008). However, Green and Lomanno (2012) argued that the U.S. hotel market at the comp set level operates as a near zero-sum game. Given limited hotel demand growth in the U.S. market (on average 1.6% for the last 20 years), they found channel vendors help hotels shift share, from one hotel to another or one time period to another instead of creating substantial new industry level demand (Green & Lomanno, 2012). Others in fact claimed that an inverse relationship
exists between customer usage of brand.com and the OTA channels that when the percentage of bookings through OTAs rose, there was a decline in the percentage booked through brand.com, lowering the hotels’ yield (Green & Lomanno, 2012; O’connor & Piccoli, 2003).

Burden on commissions is high enough that recent conflicts occur between hotel brands and OTAs. Hotels offer travelers different incentives such as packages and preferred booking rates to loyalty members to bypass the OTAs and encourage them to book directly through them, such as the "Stop clicking around" campaign by Hilton and the "It pays to book direct" by Marriott (Feinstein, 2018). As a result, Expedia.com has started the battle with branded hotels in last two years. Expedia.com has penalized most of branded hotels such as Marriott, Hilton, and IHG the major players for offering lower rates to loyalty members than Expedia.com, claiming violation of rate parity. Expedia has been fighting back with four tactics; place them after non-branded hotels and OTA friendly hotel brands such as Best Western and Choice, minimize the size of the branded hotels display on site, show zero inventory on the searching engine, and delist the branded hotels completely. While OTAs and hotel brands are in fearful battle, hotel operators and owners are losing a considerable portion of bookings from Expedia.com. Hotel owners and operators are now forced to seek alternative channels to regain bookings lost from Expedia.

Some operators are matching the rates with OTA while risking penalties upon termination of flagship from brands (Based on feedback from informal interviews with hoteliers). Others are opting in ‘pay per click’ from Expedia to boost temporary bookings. It should be noted that Marriot International has still in battle with Expedia delaying 2019 contract past due, which possibly trigger industry-wide overhaul (Fox, 2019).

There are several reasons for the growth in the use of OTAs for hotel bookings. The number of consumers who use Internet for travel arrangement has dramatically increased; online travels sales totaled 190.4 billion U.S. dollars in 2016 and expected to reach 232.49 billion by 2021(Statista.com, n.d.). Especially, for purchases of intangible goods such as hotel rooms, the internet is favorably positioned (Toh, Raven, & DeKay, 2011). To reduce uncertainty, consumers seek to check photos of intangible goods and consumer generated reviews. Travelers often consult online reviews before making online hotel reservations (Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009; Toh, et al., 2011; Luo, Feng, and Cai, 2005). OTAs offer travelers quick product and price comparisons across multiple suppliers and thus decrease search costs (O’Connor, 2001; Feinstein, 2018; Rao & Smith 2005).

In this research, it is expected that travelers more likely choose to book through OTAs because consumers perceive products purchased through the internet to be cheaper than those not purchased through the internet (Toh, et al., 2011). Empirical studies have shown inconsistent results. For example, Gazzoli and others (2008) compared online room prices of global hotel chains across online distribution channels and their own brand websites, using 2,800 room rates on the internet. They found that 66 percent of U.S. hotels presented rate consistency, discrepancy is less than $4, across all channels. In another study, indirect distribution channels (e.g. travelpcity.com) offered lower room rates than direct distribution channels in Hong Kong (Law, Chan, & Goh, 2007). Studying pricing consistency at smaller independent hotels in the UK, Lim and Hall (2008) found pricing across channels show no comparable differences. It turns out that no channel is consistently cheaper (Hanks, Cross, & Noland, 2002). Still, according to O'Connor (2001), consumers know the cost of web distribution is lower than any other channels and expect savings to be passed on to them and to find the cheapest rates via electronic routes. This has led consumers to associate rooms sold over the internet with lower price (Lim & Hall, 2008). Yet, there are lack of empirical studies that validate such perception. In general, little attention has been paid to the revenue management implications with the focus of distribution channels (Choi & Kimes, 2002). In addition, price is the
most important factor affecting purchase intentions (Liu & Zhang, 2014), and consumer knowledge affects information search, processing behaviors, and choices (Alba & Hutchinson 1987). It will be interesting to see the effect of channels on behaviors, considering perceived price and consumer knowledge. Thus, the purpose of this study is 1) to examine the effects of channels and prices on intentions to book and 2) to study the role of consumer knowledge on the relationships.

Methodology

To examine the effects of channels and prices on intentions to book and a moderating effect of consumer knowledge on the relationships, a 2 (channel: direct vs. OTA) x 3 (price: low, mid, vs. high) x 2 (consumer knowledge: expert vs. novice) quasi-experiment was designed (See Figure 1). Four questions concerning intentions to book are adopted from (Van der Heijden, Verhagen, & Creemers, 2003)’s (e.g. How likely is it that you would book from this website?). Consumer knowledge are assessed based on respondents’ subjective knowledge and usage knowledge (Raju, Lonial, & Mangold, 1995). Each question is measured by using a 7- point Likert scale. In addition, respondents are asked their frequency of travel, and membership status. Lastly, demographic information is asked such as age, gender, and education. Several variables are controlled such as purpose of trip, hotel property, room type, length of stay, booking time, and party size. Scenarios are limited to leisure travelers since most of guests use the internet for bookings are leisure travelers with high price elasticities of demand (Luo et al., 2005). The scenarios and instruments are taken to industry experts and they check the design of the questionnaire and the quality of measures employed.

Approval from the University’s Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects is received before the questionnaire is distributed. Surveys will be collected using Web based panels from a marketing firm. A recommended minimum cell size is 20 observations per group. In the case of the extant research, there are two factors each with two levels and one factor with three levels, thus requiring 240 observations for an adequate analysis (Hair et al., 2006). Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) will be used to test significant differences.

Discussion

This study addresses the effects of channels and prices on intentions to book and a moderating effect of consumer knowledge on the relationships. It should be an alarming sign for hoteliers if consumers choose to purchase travel arrangement with OTAs over direct channels regardless of price and consumer knowledge. It is becoming increasingly complex for hoteliers to decide on which channel to use, as hotel managers often have little help in deciding which channels can best match their needs (O'Connor & Frew, 2004). This study attempts to provide information needed for revenue managers, general managers, and hotel owners to make decisions and to formulate new strategies concerning consumers’ misperception and their online distribution strategies.

References


Man Versus Machine: Optimal Teaching Techniques

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Introduction

There has been a noticeable increase in the prevalence of universities that offer sports and recreation management, and more specifically golf management, throughout the U.S. in recent years. The overarching aim of the Professional Golfers’ Association (PGA) accredited golf management programs are to teach their constituents how to successfully operate, manage, and teach at golf facilities across the country. In order to earn membership into the PGA of America, students must pass a playing ability test (PAT) and they must also be able to demonstrate aptitude in instructing the game of golf. Therefore, it is vital that they understand how to improve their own sport performance, as well as improve the performance of others.

Performance improvement may be achieved through practice, through coaching or through the use of technology that identifies areas for improvement. The purpose of this study is to identify whether practice alone, coaching, technology, or the combination of coaching and technology proves to be the most beneficial technique for engendering optimal performance among the student athletes.

Literature Review

Performance Coaching

Performance coaching involves “intensive commitment to the preparation of programs with obvious attempts to influence and to control performance variables” (Rynne, Mallett, & Tinning, 2006, p. 224). In the case of golf, performance variables include club head speed, distance hit off the tee, loft of the ball, ball spin, and accuracy. This may be achieved through a structured coaching program that controls for time, place, and resources. The emphasis of focus is placed on performance enhancement rather than the affective performance increases (e.g. enjoyment, satisfaction, enhanced perceptions of competence) as those variables are not as pertinent to aiding these individuals pass the PAT and become better professional golfers (Lyle, 2002). Because performance coaching has been shown to increase performance, the following hypothesis was created:

H1: Students receiving coaching will have greater performance outcomes that those who are not receiving coaching.

Technological Assistance

GPS systems, trackman golf systems, golf simulators, and other technologies are often used to assist professional athletes with improving their games (Oliver, Horan, Evans, & Keogh, 2016). Oliver et al. (2016) have recently sought to understand how one supervised session a week over a
seven-week period impacts golf swing variables and musculoskeletal screening measures. While this study has begun to fill the gap, there is a paucity of academic research analyzing the results of performance assisting technologies and comparing them to human techniques to discern how they influence the player’s ability to improve their performance over time.

H2: Students receiving technological assistance will have greater performance outcomes that those who are not receiving any coaching or technological assistance.

H3: Students receiving technological assistance will have greater performance outcomes that those who are receiving coaching assistance.

H4: Students receiving both coaching and technological assistance will have greater performance outcomes than those who are only receiving coaching or technological assistance, or who are not receiving any coaching or technological assistance.

**Placebo Effects**

As with many experiments, the placebo effect, or in this case the enhanced playing ability due to an awareness of the goal for improvement, is something of concern. Sports literature regarding the placebo effect has demonstrated that internal and external focus of attention may influence the placebo effect (Rossettini et al., 2018). That is, when an athlete focuses his or her attention on a specific movement or motion, that may impact the movement and the way in which they perform that movement or motion, without any other manipulation. The placebo effect is important to consider in this particular experiment because students will be asked to focus on performance enhancing motions, regardless of whether or not they are provided coaching or technological assistance. Thus, it stands to reason that there may be increased performance across all segments of the experiment due to the placebo effect and an awareness that improved performance is the focus. Accordingly, this is something that must be controlled in an experiment.

**Goal Setting, Need for Achievement, and Self-Efficacy**

Ample research has demonstrated that setting goals leads to increased performance across myriad tasks (Kanfer, 1991; Locke & Latham, 1990; Phillips & Gully, 1997). The goals an individual sets may be influenced by their self-efficacy, as the concept of self-efficacy represents both self-perceived ability and an intention to allocate effort to the specified goal (Kanfer, 1987; Phillips & Gully, 1997). Additionally, need for achievement (nAch) is defined by Jackson (1974) and is represented by an individual who has high standards for themselves and aspires to undertake and excel at difficult tasks. Thus, the setting of tangible goals, in conjunction with self-efficacy and need for achievement may contribute to increased performance. Accordingly, McClelland’s Three Needs Theory which consists of achievement, affiliation, and power serves as the theoretical underpinning for the study (McClelland, 1961). If an athlete is motivated by achievement, he is goal oriented and may take risks to attain the goal. If an athlete is affiliation motivated, he may be more inclined to fit in with the group. Finally, if an athlete is motivated by power, he may be more apt to perform better as this type of motivation is characterized by a need to win. This study will examine how these motivational theories explain golf players’ performance across four experimental groups.

**Methodology**

A 2x2 experimental design will be employed in order to investigate whether or not the use of coaching, technology, the combination of coaching and technology, or nothing is most beneficial for increased performance over time. Because practice has been shown to positively impact performance, the amount of time each athlete practices is something that will be controlled. The placebo effect will also be considered. The sample size will consist of 100 current and previous PGA golf management
students. In order to participate, individuals will need to have passed the player ability test. Participation will be voluntary and individuals are free to exit the experiment at any time. Assignment into one of the four categories will be random. Those subjects who are assigned to the coaching group will receive scripted instruction from a coach on how to improve one aspect of performance a week for the duration of the study. Those subjects who are assigned to the technology will be instructed to use the technology to improve one aspect of performance a week for the duration of the study. The subjects who are assigned to the group receiving coaching and technological assistance will receive scripted instruction on how to improve the same aspect of performance each week for the duration of the study. Finally, those individuals in the control group will receive nothing and will simply log their practice each week.

**Anticipated Results**

It is anticipated that the groups that receive both coaching and technological training will have the greatest, statistically significant improvement in their performance over the other three groups. It is anticipated that the group that receives only human coaching will perform statistically greater than the group that receives no coaching or technological training and statistically greater than the group that receives technological coaching. This is anticipated due to the need for achievement and an awareness of human presence that technology does not afford. It is also anticipated that the group that receives no coaching or technological training will have the least statistically significant improvement in their performance.

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The Benefits and Perceived Usefulness of Simulation Learning in Hospitality Education

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Introduction

Several studies are focusing on the rapid growth and development in technology aiding the learning outcomes and course development in the hospitality and tourism sector. Some of these studies focus on active learning (Morosan, Dawson, & Whalen, 2017), service learning (Lin, Kim, Qui, and Ren, 2017), students’ perception of readiness (Sun, Lee, Lee, & Law, 2017), virtual field trips (Patiar, Ma, Kensbock, & Cox, 2017), and electronic learning (Annaraud & Singh, 2018). Most universities are now offering hybrid and online courses. As reported by the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), as of 2014, 28% of all undergraduate students were taking at least one online course, with 12% of this figure being fully online. (Bailey, Vaduganathan, Henry, Laverdiere, & Pugliese, 2018). The existing literature suggests it is not just technology making the difference in students learning, but also their perceived attitudes toward those teaching systems to increase effectiveness (Sun, Lee, Lee, and Law, 2016).

An analysis has been conducted regarding the incorporation of cloud-based, educational simulation learning into educational courses. Over the last several years, Troy University added simulation labs to two courses: Hotel Management and Restaurant Management. A discussion of the students’ perspective of the SIM labs benefits, ease of use, and perceived usefulness of this trending learning component has been reviewed, and we are able to compare the variance from both online and face-to-face viewpoints. By studying a specific simulation learning component of this type of e-learning, we can to gain valuable contextual explanations to support the other types of active learning techniques mentioned above. Since each real-life learning program is unique and context based, we feel this study can assist in supporting the exiting literature.

This study looks at the effectiveness of simulation learning techniques within both face-to-face and online courses. The specific objective for this study was to answer two questions: (a) What are the specific benefits the simulation learning component adds to the course(s)? (b) How do students perceive the usefulness of the simulation learning component to their prepared readiness to enter the industry? These objectives were realized by analyzing the contents of an open-ended survey administered at the end of the course. This study is valuable in gaining insights into the student’s perspective and help in needed adjustments to better utilize this type of active learning.

Literature Review

Fishbein and Ajzen’s research (1980) was aimed at understanding attitude-behavior consistency. Their research program resulted in the development of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The theory assumes that behaviors are frequently a consequence of reasoning processes. Behaviors are a product of intentions to behave in select ways, attitudes toward performing, and social influence under conditions of volitional choice.

Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) ( Davis, 1989; Annaraud & Singh, 2017)
The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was developed by Davis (1989) as an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) of Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980). The TAM suggests that users’ decision to adopt an electronic device is primarily determined by perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. The TRA has been well supported and used in social psychology research, and theorizes that a person’s behavior is determined by the individual’s intention to perform a certain behavior and that intention is a function of his/her attitude toward the behavior and his/her subjective norm.

**Experiential Education**

Experiential education has been one of the most popular approaches in recent years to help enhance students’ learning experience (Lin, Kim, Qui, and Ren, 2017; Kiser & Partlow, 1999). Experiential learning is “the process by which knowledge is created through transformation of experience: knowledge results from the combination of understanding and transforming the experience” (Kolb, 1984, p. 41). This type of learning is considered one of the key features of the service industry education.

Electronic learning (e-learning) is a mode of how various teaching techniques are being utilized to actively engage students in an experiential manner. E-learning has become synonymous with all levels of all educational technologies that support and teach either electronically or technologically (Annaraud & Singh, 2017). Active learning is a practice that simultaneously involves a student in an activity and makes them reflect on the activity (Bonwell & Eison, 1991). Active engagement leads to higher retention and thus makes active learning more effective.

By using the TAM model, identified specific beliefs that support the perceived ease of use (E) and the perceived usefulness (PU). Perceived usefulness is defined as a person’s salient beliefs that using technology will enhance their job performance (Davis, 1989). Perceived ease of use is a person’s salient beliefs that using the system will be free of problems, issues, and/or challenges. Therefore, these two items will add to a positive attitude toward the behavior, which will strengthen the intention to use, which in turn would lead to a greater likelihood of actual system use and success.

**Methodology**

All students were enrolled in a SIM lab with an external party and were expected to go through the 10 modules that went along with the course materials. This was a mandatory portion of the class and the students received a grade for their work. A survey was administered to students enrolled in a hotel management course that took place face-to-face with the SIM lab component being added as a homework assignment and to be worked on individually, and also administered to the online students in a restaurant management course where the SIM lab was incorporated into the course work. The researchers conducted a survey made up of five open-ended questions that were designed to measure the student’s benefits, ease of use, perceived usefulness, and satisfaction. The surveys were administered at the end of the term/semester and were analyzed in a qualitative manner to develop recurring themes based on frequency numbers. The students were made up of two groups; one set were face-to-face classroom (hotel management) and the other were strictly online students (restaurant management). Both sets of students were enrolled in an online simulation program designed by a third party. Each instructor had the same amount of information and were able to send the questions to the third party site support if issues were being problematic to any individual student. This work was built in as part of the course and the students did receive a grade as determined by the instructor of each group.

The results (n=59) were analyzed in a qualitative manner by two researchers for frequency of benefits, ease of use, difficulties, and perceived usefulness. Coding process took place with recurring text blocks that helped to group categories and subcategories of perceived outcomes. Salient points
were derived from this process. In future research, these salient beliefs will be used to construct another measurement instrument to conduct the quantitative portion of the study, as recommended by the theory of planned behavior procedures (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980).

**References**


Real or AI: 2D Virtual Reality in Hospitality Education

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Introduction

The focus in the hospitality industry is to deliver the intangible, service. In a broader sense, this focus is across the hospitality industry landscape, from frontline workers to the executive level, providing service to the internal and external customer. For decades learning and development specialists have focused on different training methods to include face to face and online components, and have implemented strategies such as role playing and on the job training (Schön, 2017). However, with the current technology advances there should be a better way to deliver real life training to give employees the opportunity to learn and experience service in a safe environment. Providing well educated workers to the hospitality industry is the goal of hospitality education. Using real world examples in a safe environment, educators can produced well equipped students to the industry.

Introducing learning through virtual environments such as Virtual Reality 2D Simulation, enhances the student learning outcome. This conceptual model provides a framework to determine the validity of utilizing Virtual Reality 2D Simulation to enhance student learning in regards to conflict management and customer complaint resolution in the hospitality industry. Furthermore, this study gathers data to investigate the importance of employee emotional intelligence (EQ) in the customer service environment.

Literature Review

Virtual Learning Environment

Over the last decade, there have been dramatic changes to technology-mediated learning environments throughout educational platforms (Niemi, Harju, Vivitsou, Viitanen, Multisilta, & Kuokkanen, 2014). Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) tools have become more interactive, hands on, synchronic, and “real life” in formal and informal learning and are based on cognitive research theory steeped in behaviorism (Skinner, 1938) and constructivism (Piaget, 1932). The spaces in which virtual learning exist include mobile devices such as tablets and phones, Web 2.0 applications, and social media outlets (Niemi et al., 2014). These learning spaces offer a platform for individual or group participation and communication where the “self” becomes immersed in the learning (Hilli, 2018).
Customer Service

Customer service is a vital component to firm success within the hospitality field. Research indicates that frontline employees are the face for customer experience and that frontline employees showing certain skills and competencies will enhance the customer’s experience (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013). Capable employees create relationships that develop customer retention in a competitive industry (Castellanos-Verdugo, Oviedo-Garcia, Roldan, & Veerapermal, 2009). Studies have shown that the value provided to organizations from training is questionable if the knowledge and skills acquired are not transferable to real world application (Shen & Tang, 2018). Training through virtual reality 2D-Simulation creates an environment for developing knowledge and skills while bridging the gap between training and application in the workforce.

Emotional Intelligence

Recognizing one’s own emotional state and that of others is crucial for entering a customer-centric industry (Walsh, Chang, & Tse, 2015). Goleman (1998) introduced a model of Emotional Intelligence (EI or EQ are used interchangeably) that focused on competencies and skills to drive performance in the workplace. Self-awareness, self-regulation, social skill, empathy, and motivation are thought to be learned and need to be honed by the worker (Goleman, 1998). EQ is an important factor in dealing with employee and customer relationships (Kim & Agrusa, 2011). EQ allows employees to cope with and deescalate stressful scenarios on the job (Jung & Yoon, 2015). Emotional information and understanding are best communicated through facial expressions and voice control, such as tone or volume (Karle, et al., 2018). Having the ability to accurately portray and interpret nonverbal communication is pertinent to successful professional interactions (Karle, et al., 2018).

Methods

Participants

A convenience sample of students enrolled in Human Resources for Hospitality, and Front Office Operations has been selected. The study takes place during the 2017 fall semester, 2018 spring and fall semesters and continues in the 2019 spring semester.

Procedure

The participants were given a one page “prompt” prior to entering the simulator. This prompt gave the overall scene, the problem, and the setting of the simulation scenario. Participants were then walked to the simulator, and started the simulation. In the simulation, participants engage in a pre-selected scenario given to them related to the hospitality industry and they interact with an avatar that responds to individual suggestions.

Data Collection

Qualitative data is collected through personal self-reflections that are gathered from participants at the end of each simulation. The Student Engagement Survey (Green, Tanford, & Swift, 2018), a 28-question instrument, was implemented to collect qualitative data regarding student engagement and satisfaction by using 2D Simulation technology in the classroom. The SES measures four constructs: active learning, involvement, knowledge, and enjoyment. The study also gathered
data on stress levels while participating in the simulation by using stress belts. These stress readings are intended to gauge how participants feel throughout the simulation as well as how they feel upon repeating the process.

**Data Analysis**

This study will continue to utilize both qualitative and quantitative methods to gather and synthesize data in the upcoming 2019 academic year.

**Conclusion**

Overall, this study aims to clarify the importance of incorporating virtual learning environments to enhance learning outcomes for hospitality students. Once the students experience “real life” problems faced in the workplace setting, they are then better equipped to transition to the workforce. Experiencing these real problems develops the skills and competencies needed to solve conflicts by applying what is learned in the classroom.

The results of student perceptions of simulated experience working in hospitality through Virtual Reality 2D-Simulation and how these findings can be generalized to the hospitality workplace will be discussed further once the data is analyzed. The 2D-Simulations allow participants to experience and practice expressing vital communication signals with an avatar that responds in real-time, to further develop emotional intelligence. By using 2D-Simulation learning to apply managerial theories into real-world working scenarios, the learning gap from theory to practice could be lessened. The 2D-Simulations provide a safe environment to practice practical scenarios for the hospitality workplace, that allow for impactful training and development through experience.

**References**


Women in Leadership: Rising to the Top in a #MeToo World

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Abstract

Females in the United States represent the majority in both food and beverage operations and academic programs, yet are grossly underrepresented in high level management positions (Remington & Kitterlin, 2018). The prevalence of sexual harassment in the industry adds an even greater challenge to the female food and beverage professional in terms of navigating the workplace and road to advancement. While sexual harassment in food and beverage is not a new phenomenon, the Me Too movement has brought the issue to the forefront and opened avenues for discussion of a topic that may not have otherwise received such heavy attention. Thus, the purpose of this study is to explore the experiences of women leaders in the food and beverage industry, and how they navigated their way to the top in a #MeToo world.

Literature Review

Female hospitality, tourism and travel industry employees experience pay and job status discrepancies in addition to stereotypes and other workplace inequality issues (Burrell, Manfredi, & Rollin, 1997; Nepur, Deepa & Khimya, 2013; Stephen, Isaac, George, & Dominic, 2014; Wan, 2014), despite the significant contribution they make. Extant literature has revealed that career advancement, compensation, and training opportunities are the three most prevalent areas in which females in the hospitality industry experience disparate treatment (Cave & Kilic, 2010; Crafts & Thompson, 2006; Doyle, Findlay, & Young, 2012; Higgins, 2004; Kara, Uysal, & Magnini, 2012; Munoz-Bullon, 2009; Pinar, McCuddy, Birkan, & Kozak, 2011; Skalpe, 2007; Stephen, Issac, George & Dominic, 2014; Zong, Couch, & Blum, 2011). Additionally, because women are not typically in a place of authority in the workplace, they are unable to influence the strategic plans that might facilitate their promotion, thus perpetuating their inability to rise to a higher level within the organization (Trzcinski & Holst, 2012).

Social perceptions encumber women from management positions; in a male dominated society, woman leadership styles are often viewed as inadequate and ineffective within hospitality entities (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2003; Yoder, 2001). Gender Stratification theory highlights inequality between men and women, viewing women as inferior to their male counterparts (Mills, 2003). There are three causal conditions to gender stratification theory: Sex Politics, the Gender Organization of Production, and the Gender Organization of Reproduction (Mills, 2003). Gender Stratification theory viewed women as sex objects, segregated entities (e.g., men in leadership positions and women in support roles) in the work environment, and reproduced into specific gender roles (e.g., women are meant to nurse children and cook and clean).

The Great Man theory laid the foundation for this paradigm, postulating that leadership roles are designed for men and excluding women from this notion of being an effectual leader.
(Denmark, 1993). Males have dominated authoritative positions for centuries, and some males and females are unwilling to relinquish their old paradigm of a male-dominated society (Yoder, 2001). A schism may emerge when this old paradigm clashes with today’s unique work environments, environments that are heavily populated with women and other minorities with disparate views and personalities. Yet, it is challenging to remove perceptions when women remain the minority in executive management positions; women voices are silenced by this lack of leadership representation (Savery, 1990; Trzcinski & Holst, 2012).

Sexual harassment in the food and beverage industry has been studied for years, with the nearly unanimous conclusion that this behavior occurs frequently in this workplace setting, so much so that it may even be considered ‘normal’ (Matulewicz, 2015; Matulewicz, 2016). In context, this involves any unwelcome sexual advances (verbal, non-verbal or physical), as well as any behavior or activity sexual in nature that creates a hostile work environment (Ineson, Yap & Whiting, 2013; Mkono, 2010; Theocharous & Philaretou, 2009; Yagil, 2008). This prevalence in the food and beverage industry is attributed to a variety of factors, including the nature of the work and close relationships formed between both employees and guests, a failure of management to respond to said behaviors, the presence of tipping for service, power imbalances, workplace climate, and the close quarters of work spaces (Dupere, 2015; Poulston, 2008; Waudby & Poulston, 2017). The negative impacts of such behavior in the workplace include legal costs/victim compensation, negative company image and reputation, decreased job satisfaction, increased turnover and absenteeism, and decreased productivity and morale (Poulston, 2008; Waudby & Poulston, 2017).

Per the Me Too website, “The ‘me too.’ movement was founded in 2006 to help survivors of sexual violence…find pathways to healing. Our vision from the beginning was to address both the dearth in resources for survivors of sexual violence and to build a community of advocates, driven by survivors, who will be at the forefront of creating solutions to interrupt sexual violence in their communities. In less than six months, because of the viral #metoo hashtag, a vital conversation about sexual violence has been thrust into the national dialogue.

Our work continues to focus on helping those who need it to find entry points for individual healing and galvanizing a broad base of survivors to disrupt the systems that allow for the global proliferation of sexual violence… We want perpetrators to be held accountable and we want strategies implemented to sustain long term, systemic change.” (Me Too, 2018). Given the minimal attention devoted to this topic in training and academic settings (Ram, Tribe & Biran, 2016), this movement has opened avenues for discussion that may have been previously closed, and has brought the issue to the forefront of the minds of industry leaders, operators, and patrons.

**Methods**

A Delphi study will be conducted in order to investigate the path of leading women in the food and beverage industry and the influence of workplace sexual harassment. As is common practice in a Delphi study, a panel of experts (leading female industry leaders) will be put together and asked to participate in three rounds of data collection in order to cultivate ideas and information (Paliwoda, 1983; Yousuf, 2007). First, the selected participants will be asked to answer a set list of open-ended questions and offer opinions on scenarios independently (Hayes, 2007). Then the panel will be asked to further flesh out thoughts and ideas based on the findings from the initial questionnaire responses. Each round of information is compiled and once all rounds are completed, the data is consolidated to convey the emergent themes based on consensus among researchers (Hayes, 2007).
Previous scholars, government agencies and other researchers have effectively employed this method with the express purpose of gaining an expert group consensus on topics for study (Crews, 2004; Day, 2002). It has proven effective as it uses a methodical process for exploring complicated issues and obtaining a group consensus (Hsu & Lin, 2013; Stitt-Gohdes & Crews, 2004). The Delphi method also facilitates a comprehensive dialogue with a group of subject-matter experts and serves as an alternative to a single-phase survey method for data collection (Stitt-Gohdes & Crews, 2004). Hospitality, tourism and travel scholars have previously employed the Delphi study technique and have touted it has an effective research tool (Bengisu & Balta, 2011; Hilliard, Scott-Halsell, & Palakurthi, 2011; van Ginneken, 2011), that is particularly useful for evaluating best practices, opportunities, facilitators and/or barriers in the workplace (Park, Kim, & Choo, 2014; Sox, Crews, & Kline, 2014).

The first phase in a Delphi study will typically take the form of a questionnaire sent to a panel of ‘experts’ asking for their opinions, experiences, judgments, etc. (Pfeiffer, 1968). In this study, a convenience sample of 20 female leaders in the food and beverage industry in the United States will be emailed an invitation to participate in the study. Those who elect to participate will be emailed a brief questionnaire of open-response questions regarding the challenges, barriers, and other work experiences they faced during the progression of their careers (that they felt were specific to their being female), as well as what they continue to face today. Questionnaire items will be developed based on a review of the literature, and driven by the purpose of the study. These responses will be analyzed for themes/patterns. Each theme/pattern will then be developed into a statement that could be ranked on a 5-point Likert scale for participants to indicate agreement or disagreement with each item.

During phase 2, participants will be emailed an online questionnaire (derived from phase 1), and asked to indicate their agreement (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree). Participants were asked to indicate level of agreement on items. Responses to this online survey will then be analyzed in order to produce the online instrument used in phase 3.

During phase 3, participants will be emailed a second online questionnaire (derived from phase 2). Of the # participants originally invited to participate, # completed all segments of the Delphi study. As with any Delphi study, attrition is to be expected. A time period of one month will be allotted for each of the three phases of the study, for a total of 3 months of data collection. Reminder notifications will be sent mid-way through each data collection phase. No incentive will be provided for participation, but final study results will be made available to each participant.

**Expected Findings and Implications**

The purpose of this study is to explore the experiences of women leaders in the food and beverage industry, their experiences with sexual harassment, and their strategies for rising thru the ranks. It is expected that findings may inform decision makers and policies for the future, as well as the next generation of female leaders in the hospitality industry.

**References**


hospitality industry: a comparison between France, Italy, Spain, and the UK. 


