Innovations is the research proceedings of the SECSA Federation of International Council of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education.

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Special Thank You To:
Dr. Ann Fairhurst, Chair, the faculty, and staff of the Department of Retail, Hospitality & Tourism Management for hosting our 3rd Annual SECSA Conference.

An extra special thank you to Dr. Jeremy Whaley (conference chair) for his time, effort, and dedication to ensure a successful conference

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**Treasurer**
Open
Southeastern, Central, and South America Federation 2018 Conference
University of Tennessee, Knoxville
March 1-2, 2018

Conference Host and Location:
Department of Retail, Hospitality & Tourism Management
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville
1215 W. Cumberland Ave. JHB-220A
Knoxville, TN 37996
http://rhtm.utk.edu/

UT Visitor’s Center/UT Culinary Institute
2712 Neyland Drive
Knoxville, TN 37996

For conference (host) related questions, please contact Dr. Jeremy Whaley (jwhale15@utk.edu) or Dr. Ann Fairhurst (fairhurs@utk.edu).

Transportation is not provided from the airport to the hotel. Uber is available.

Conference Schedule:

Wednesday, February 28th
Social gathering starting around 7:00 pm until 9/9:30 pm on Wednesday at Blue Coast Grill and Bar-Market Square Please feel free to join us for a bite to eat, beverage or soda, and just to say hello and socialize with other attendees.

Blue Coast Grill & Bar
37 Market Square
Knoxville, TN 37996

Thursday, March 1st
(all times EST) (Shuttle Service will be provided by UTK and operated by UTK graduate students). The shuttle service will begin at 7:00 am until 10:00 am and 5:15 pm until 6:30 pm. Self-parking is available at the Visitor’s Center.

8:00-9:00 – Registration and Continental Breakfast (UT Visitors’ Center and UTK Culinary Institute)

9:00-10:15 – Welcome (Room A)
Dr. Melvin Weber, President SECSA
Dr. Ann Fairhurst, Chair, Department of Retail, Hospitality & Tourism Management, UTK

Keynote 1 – Brian Lee (Blackberry Farm)
Title: Legendary Hospitality
10:15-10:30 – Break

10:30-12:30 – Concurrent Session One-A (Room A at the Culinary Institute) Moderators-Rachel Chen and Jeremy Whaley

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<td>Jeongyeon (Jennie) Ahn, Eun-Kyong (Cindy) Choi &amp; Hyun-Woo Joung (University of Mississippi)</td>
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<td>Too Girly to Order? Exploring Gender-Based Stereotypes About Alcoholic Beverages</td>
<td>Sarah Lefbvre (Murray State University) &amp; Marissa Orlowski (University of Central Florida)</td>
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<td>11:45-12:05</td>
<td>A Conceptual Model of Free Gifts for Customer Experience in Restaurant</td>
<td>EunKyeong Jung &amp; Sejin Ha (University of Tennessee, Knoxville)</td>
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12:30-1:45 – Lunch in the Culinary Institute featuring our signature Ready for the World Café (Note, vegetarian option will be available)
1:45-3:45 – Concurrent Session Two- (Room A at the Culinary Institute) Moderator Stefanie Benjamin

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<td>Thamer Alqahtani &amp; Jeanie H. Lim (University of Tennessee, Knoxville)</td>
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<td>2:35-2:55</td>
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<td>Beyond Accessibility: Exploring How People with Disabilities are Marketed in Hospitality and Tourism Industries</td>
<td>Stefanie Benjamin, Josh Loebner, Ethan Bottone, Samantha Oleniak, Abby Mclaughlin (University of Tennessee, Knoxville)</td>
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<td>Determinants of the Certificate of Excellence Recipient Hotels by TripAdvisor</td>
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<td>Frontline Customer Service Providers: From Their Own Perspectives</td>
<td>David Buchman (Valencia College), Lisa Cain (Florida International University) &amp; Janice Terrell (University of Phoenix)</td>
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3:45-4:00 – Break
4:00-5:15 – Industry Panel Session
The Changing Tide: Women Leadership in Hospitality and Tourism (Room A)

Facilitated by Dr. Stefanie Benjamin

Susan Whittaker, Former TN Commissioner-Department of Tourism Development
Kim Bumpas-President, Visit Knoxville
Tracy Hicks-General Manager, Marriott, Downtown Knoxville.
Rachel Baker-Executive Director Loudon County Visitors Bureau

5:30-7:30 – Opening Reception (Hilton, Downtown Knoxville)

7:30 Dinner on your Own - Please visit “Visit Knoxville’s” website for a host of restaurants found only minutes of walking distance from the hotel.
https://www.visitknoxville.com/restaurants/

Refer to flyer for local restaurants
Friday, March 2nd
(all times EST) (Shuttle Service will be provided by UTK and operated by UTK graduate students). The shuttle service will begin at 7:00 am until 10:00 am and 5:15 pm until 6:30 pm. Self-parking is available at the Visitor’s Center.

8:00-9:00 Continental Breakfast at the Culinary Institute (Breakfast provided by 3 Best Chicks Catering) Outside Room A

9:00-10:15 – Keynote 2 Fred Jacob, CEO - The Pink Bride
Title: Make Your Next Event an Experience

10:15-10:30 – Break

10:30-12:10 – Concurrent Session Three-A (Room A at the Culinary Institute)
Moderator-Michelle Childs

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<td>Faizan Ali, Luana Nanu, Olena Ciftci &amp; Cihan Cobanoglu (University of South Florida Sarasota-Manatee)</td>
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<td>The Glass Ceiling: How it is Perceived and How it Affects Work Engagement Among South Korea Hotel Employees</td>
<td>Sewon Min &amp; Borham Yoon (University of Tennessee, Knoxville)</td>
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<td>Craig R. Marshall (East Carolina University)</td>
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10:30-12:10 – Concurrent Session Three-B (Upstairs room at Culinary Institute)
Moderator James Williams

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<td>Ruth Smith (Bethune-Cookman University)</td>
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<td>10:50-</td>
<td>The Role of Hostel Design in Explaining Consumer Satisfaction and Future Behavioral Intention – A Pilot Study</td>
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<td>11:50-</td>
<td>An Analysis of Corporate Websites to Determine What Restaurants are Doing to Promote Healthy Eating</td>
<td>Borham Yoon &amp; Kyungyul Jun (University of Tennessee, Knoxville)</td>
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12:00-1:00 – Lunch at Culinary Institute (Note, vegetarian option will be available)

1:00-2:00 - Research Forum (Room A)
   Dr. Rachel Chen, University of Tennessee – Knoxville
   Dr. Alleah Crawford, East Carolina University
   Dr. Bonnie Canziani, University of North Carolina at Greensboro
   Dr. Youn-Kyung Kim, University of Tennessee – Knoxville
   Dr. Alecia Douglas, Auburn University

2:00-3:00 - Education Forum (Room A)
   Keeping It Real … Normalizing failure and encouraging transparency in the Classroom -
   Facilitated by Dr. Stefanie Benjamin and Dr. James Williams

3:15-5:00 – Closing Reception and Awards in (Room A) Featuring Sugarland Distilling with
   Brent Thompson - Yes, we will have Moonshine Education and present the awards.
   Awards and Final Remarks: Dr. Melvin Weber, President SECSA

Dinner on your own. Please visit “Visit Knoxville’s” website for a host of restaurants found only minutes of
walking distance from the hotel. https://www.visitknoxville.com/restaurants/

*schedule subject to change within times listed
Applying anxiety and uncertainty management theory to understand Saudi residents' attitudes toward international inbound tourists

Thamer Alqahtani
University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jeanie H. Lim, Ph. D.
University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Abstract

Although tourism is often an important source of income, employment, and wealth (Sadi & Henderson, 2005), the tourism industry in the Middle East is underdeveloped in general. Barriers that stand against this region’s tourism development include cultural and religious differences and significant social challenges that might influence tourists’ selection of these countries as a destination (Sadi & Henderson, 2005). Nevertheless, Saudi Arabia is in a better position in the international tourism market compared to others in the region owing to its two important religious sites of pilgrimage, Mecca and Medina, which attract a large number of Muslims from all around the world every year. Historically, the holy sites have been open only to Muslims. Recently, however, leaders in Saudi Arabia have recognized that the country is positioned to take a leading role in tourism in the Middle East and have strived to create a new mission and vision to drive the industry. Attracting inbound international tourists is a central plank of the country's plan to reduce its reliance on oil. It's aiming for 30 million visitors a year by 2030, up from 18 million in 2016, and it wants annual tourism spending to hit $47 billion by 2020 (Alkhalisi, & Quest, 2017). Key aspects of these movements are the belief that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia can promote tourism in a manner that is consistent with the country's specific social and cultural values while also reflecting the importance of its Islamic faith and value placed on the environment (Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities, 2006). As a first step of the movement, Saudi Arabia has recently announced a new policy or the issuance of tourist visas for incoming international tourists in 2018. This is revolutionary because no tourist visas have ever been issued in Saudi Arabia, business travelers and/or Muslim visitors to sacred places excepted.

Given this transitional status of Saudi Arabia’s travel policies, this study attempts to explore Saudi Arabian residents’ attitudes toward foreign tourists, which are expected to influence tourists’ images of the country as a destination. The term "destination image" in tourism is associated with “all knowledge, perceptions, and beliefs that potential travelers hold about a destination” (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010, p. 577). A distinct and solid destination image enhances awareness about the destination among potential visitors and significantly influences tourists’ selection process (Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002). In 2004, Beerli and Martin suggested that hospitable and friendly people in a destination’s social setting and care for the environment as significant factors that help to form a positive image of a tourism destination.
Saudi Arabia society is considered to be a "high-context communication" society (Hall, 1976). People in a high-context communication culture are ambiguous and indirect. The Saudi culture also demonstrates high degree of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2003) (scoring 80 on that measure, which shows that it has a preference for avoiding uncertainty. People in high uncertainty cultures usually behave the same and any deviation is not acceptable because there is a strong desire for consensus. Thus, the growth and development of the Saudi Arabian tourism industry may face challenges regarding communication between Saudi residents and international tourists. This study proposes that Saudi Arabian residents' anxiety and uncertainty with regard to tourism may influence inbound international tourists’ destination image.

**Literature Review**

Drawing upon anxiety and uncertainty management theory (AUM) (Gudykunst, 1985), this study endeavors to understand the perception of Saudi Arabian residents in terms of interaction and communication with strangers or international visitors. Because uncertainty may be perceived as interesting or challenging or threatening this study assumed that high uncertainty leads to reduced willingness to interact with strangers from a different culture. The authors found that the effect of predictability on the willingness to interact with strangers was moderated by incidental anxiety. However, the expected moderation of the effects of uncertainty was shown only for incidental anxiety, not for integral anxiety (Samochowiec & Florack, 2010). A literature review shows that there is little research examining how communication between host residents and foreign tourists--which is expected to influence foreign tourists’ perception of the destination takes place. The majority of research in relation to intercultural communication tends to focus on how foreign tourists stimulate and adjust themselves to be able to interact and communicate when they move out from their culture to a different culture. Yet, few studies have examined the communication between host residents and foreign tourists from the host residents’ viewpoints. Thus, AUM theory is expected to provide an insightful lens to investigate sources and patterns of host residents’ attitudes and behaviors when they encounter visitors from another culture. For instance, Samochowiec and Florack (2010) examined how an incidental affective state of anxiety manages the effects of uncertainty on willingness to communicate with strangers from another country or culture. Duronto et al. (2005) also define strangers as “being different from us, in terms of some group membership” (p.550). Wood (1934) indicated that the “condition of being a stranger is determined by the fact that it was the first face-to-face meeting of individuals who have not known one another before” (p. 43, 44).

Some individuals find uncertainty interesting and challenging, which can lead them to enjoy interacting with strangers from another culture, while other individuals perceive uncertainty as threatening, which may result in their avoiding interaction with strangers (Samochowiec and Florack, 2010). Previous studies identified uncertainty, anxiety and avoidance as determinants of local residents’ attitude toward and communication styles with strangers in Japan when they encounter such strangers for the first time; they found different patterns when residents faced strangers from similar cultures compared to when they met those from different cultures (Duronto, Nishida, & Nakayama, 2005; Stephan & Stephan, 1985). The authors looked at interpersonal and intercultural communication and identified that strangers can help to understand the difference between this two types of communications. This finding illustrates that lack of a feeling of security and information about strangers are main drivers of anxiety among local residents when they interact and meet with new people from different
cultures. In other words, the level of anxiety will increase when residents are communicating with people from different cultures. Not unexpectedly, high levels of anxiety reduce local residents’ motivation to interact with strangers (Turner, 1988). Thus, it is important to help local residents manage their uncertainty and anxiety in order to reduce the level of tension with which they communicate with foreign tourists.

In summary, the purpose of the research study is to explore the Saudi Arabian residents’ attitudes toward inbound international tourists by employing anxiety and uncertainty management theory (AUM) in order to examine how tourists and local people manage the cognitive and affective aspects to enhance the communication process. This study will be guided by the following two research questions:

1) What is Saudi residents’ general perception of inbound international visitors?
2) How does the government’s new travel policy for inbound international tourists influence Saudi Arabian residents’ perception of the foreign tourists?

Methods

This study will employ a qualitative research method by conducting in-depth personal interviews. Participants will include 15 Saudi Arabian local residents from Jeddah City. Jeddah is the second largest city in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, with a population of 4,000,000 people. The city has a significant location on the coast of the Red Sea. Jeddah is also known as an economic hub and the gateway to Makkah and Medina, the holy cities for Muslims around the world. This study will employ a female interviewer to interview female participants and a male interviewer to interview male participants due to Saudi Arabian cultural norms regarding gender separation. Participants willing to share their experience will be recruited via their Twitter accounts to participate. After the initial contact, the researcher will provide his/her name, contact information, and purpose/objectives of the study via email. The sampling method in this study will be snowball sampling. Each interview will take about one hour. Participants must sign up for the time and location of the interviews based on their availability. The interviews will be recorded, and notes will be also taking during the interviews.

Interview questions will focus on the perceptions of Saudi residents in order to understand their cultural characteristics, willingness to interact with Western tourists, personal attributes, and motivation to communicate with international tourists. The interviews will follow a semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire format, which allows for a focused and in-depth conversation. Examples of interviews questions include the following: (1) Describe how you feel when meeting with international tourists; (2) Do you feel any different when you interact or chat with a stranger from your own culture vs. a stranger from another culture; (3) Tell me about how you think you will react to or handle a behavior if it is different from your own behavior; and (4) Describe your perception of international tourists or strangers. Although an interview guide will be employed to draw out the fullness of an informant’s personal perception and expectations, the interviews will focus heavily on issues that emerge from the informant’s narration. Thus, some questions will be modified or omitted based on the flow of the dialogue (Moustakas, 1994).

Expected Findings and Implications

Data analysis is expected to reveal potential social and cultural challenges that Saudi Arabia might encounter when the government opens its gate to receive more inbound
international visitors. In particular, this study is expected to discover diverse sources of anxiety about unknown future events. Thus, this research is expected to contribute to countries like Saudi Arabia that are making efforts toward tourism development by highlighting the importance of domestic residents' attitude in visitors' destination image and providing an insight into how to manage local residents' anxiety and uncertainty when they encounter strangers from another culture so that they can provide a welcoming and friendly atmosphere to inbound international visitors.

References


Investigating relationships among festival attendees’ perceived value, satisfaction, revisit intention, and eWOM

Jeongyeon (Jennie) Ahn, MS.
The University of Mississippi

Eun-Kyong (Cindy) Choi, PhD.
The University of Mississippi

Hyun-Woo Joung, PhD.
The University of Mississippi

Introduction

Festivals are increasingly becoming an important part of the tourism and hospitality field (Bowdin, O’Toole, Allen, Harris, & McDonnell, 2006) as they serve as agents promoting a positive destination image, contributing to the local economy, and providing activities and entertainment for visitors (Getz, 1993, 2008; Wooten & Norman, 2008). For festivals to be successful, repeat visits and loyalty are crucial since it is cheaper to maintain recurrent visitors than to attract new visitors (Wang, 2004). It is very important for festival organizers/marketers to provide quality service and outstanding experience for festival attendees to revisit.

Perceived value and satisfaction are important antecedents of revisit intention and willingness to recommend (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Deng & Pierskalla, 2011; Kim, Kim, Ruetzler, & Taylor, 2010; J. Lee, & Beeler, 2006; Yuan, Morrison, Cai, & Linton, 2008). One of the ways to recommend a product or service is through word-of-mouth (WOM). Especially, with the advent of the Internet, electronic WOM (eWOM) on social media has become a very popular way to share opinions (Y. Chen, Fay, & Wang, 2011). However, there is still limited research on eWOM in the context of festivals. Therefore, the objective of this study is to evaluate the effect of perceived value on satisfaction, revisit intention, and the willingness to post eWOM on social media.

Literature Review

Perceived value of a festival is one of the most important antecedents of satisfaction (McDougall & Levesque, 2000; Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000; Petrick & Backman, 2002) and revisit intention (Cheng & Lu, 2013; Kim et al., 2010; Zeithaml, 1988). According to Eggert and Uлага (2002), perceived value has a direct impact on revisit intention as well as an indirect impact with satisfaction playing a mediating role in between. In addition, Kim et al. (2010) argued that perceived value has a significant effect on WOM. With the Internet contributing to the emergence of eWOM on social media, the current study investigated the relationship between perceive value and willingness to post eWOM on social media.

Satisfaction is also another important predictor of revisit intention (Choi & Chu, 2001; Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000; Petrick, 2004). It has been reported that satisfaction has a positive influence on future intentions of consumers such as revisit intention (Appiah-Adu, Fyall, & Satyendra, 2000; Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Cronin & Taylor, 1992) and willingness to
recommend (Bolton & Lemon, 1999). Thus, the current study proposed that satisfaction has a positive impact of revisit intention and willingness to post eWOM on social media.

Revisit intention is a type of post-visit behavior of tourists, and previous studies have supported that higher satisfaction results in greater revisit intention in the future (Assaker, Vinzi, & O’Connor, 2011; Chi & Qu, 2008; del Bosque & Martín, 2008). Therefore, it is essential for festival organizers/marketers to understand and predict revisit intentions of festival attendees. Another type of an important post-visit behavior is willingness to recommend. It is an indicator of loyalty as well as an important potential marketing tool for marketers. Since tourism is an experiential product relying heavily on recommendations of those who have already experienced it (Haywood, 1989), festival organizers/marketers will benefit tremendously from understanding the willingness to post eWOM on social media of festival attendees.

Based on the literature review, a conceptual model and the following five hypotheses were proposed:

H1: Respondents’ perceived value of the festival has a positive impact on visitor satisfaction.
H2: Respondents’ perceived value of the festival has a positive impact on revisit intention.
H3: Respondents’ perceived value has a positive impact on their willingness to post eWOM on social media about the festival.
H4: Respondents’ satisfaction with their festival experience has a positive impact on their revisit intention to the festival.
H5: Respondents’ satisfaction with their festival experience has a positive impact on their willingness to post eWOM on social media.

Methodology

A self-administered questionnaire was developed based on a comprehensive literature review on festival attendees’ perceived value, satisfaction, revisit intention, and eWOM (Báez-Montenegro & Devesa-Fernández, 2017; Baker & Crompton, 2000; C. Chen, & Chen, 2010; Y. Chen, et al., 2011; Dellarocas, Xiaoquan, & Awad, 2007; Deng & Pierskalla, 2011; Hudson, Roth, Madden, & Hudson, 2015; J. Lee, & Beeler, 2006; Petrick, 2004; Sen & Lerman, 2007; Smith, Menon, & Sivakumar, 2005; Tarn, 1999) which was reviewed by two academics and two festival organizers for content validity. Data were collected at the annual art, music, and food festival in North Mississippi, USA. Trained field researchers were located at the north, south, east, and west entrances and randomly intercepted the attendees. Incentives were provided to increase the response rate. The collected data were compiled and analyzed using IBM SPSS v24 and Amos v24. The analysis of a proposed structural model followed Anderson and Gerbing’s (1988) two-step approach. Multi-item scales of constructs were subjected to the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to determine the model fit of the measurement model. After the CFA, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to test the hypothesized relationships.
Results

Sample Profile

Out of 382 respondents, 33.5% (n = 124) of them were male, and 66.5% (n = 246) were female. The average age of the respondents was 29.50 (SD = 14.79), and the majority age group was 20-29 years old (n = 222, 64.0%). The major ethnic group was White (76.9%), followed by Asian (12.6%), African-American (6.2%), Hispanic (2.9%), and Native American (1.3%). The majority of the respondents were either college graduates (25.2%) or in college (42.0%). Respondents’ annual income was almost equally spread over the ranges given. More than half of the respondents (68.6%) were never married, followed by married respondents (24.6%).

Results of CFA

A CFA was conducted to evaluate the overall measurement model fit. Each of the overall goodness-of-fit indices in this study suggested that the four-factor model fits the data well, \( \chi^2(48) = 125.998, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.625, CFI = .976, TLI = .967, RMSEA = .065 \) (90% CI: .052-.079), and SRMR = .033. The internal consistency of the constructs was ensured using composite reliability coefficients ranging from .772 to .941 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Construct validity was examined by assessing convergent and discriminant validity (see Table 1). Both factor loadings, ranging from .619 to .912, and average variance extracted (AVE), exceeding the cut-off level of .50, were satisfied within the acceptable range (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Comparing AVEs with the squared multiple correlation coefficients between any paired constructs indicated ensured discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 1

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>PV</th>
<th>SAT</th>
<th>INT</th>
<th>eWOM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>.464b</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>.147</td>
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<td>SAT</td>
<td></td>
<td>.775</td>
<td>.627</td>
<td>.178</td>
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<td>INT</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td></td>
<td>.667</td>
<td>.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eWOM</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td></td>
<td>.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRc</td>
<td>.772</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td>.857</td>
<td>.941</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: PV (Perceived value), SAT (Satisfaction), INT (Revisit intention), eWOM (Willingness to post eWOM on social media).

aAverage variance extracted (values on the diagonal), bSquared multiple correlation, cComposite reliability.

Results of SEM

After validating the measurement model, the proposed structural model was tested using SEM. Each of the overall goodness-of-fit indices indicated the structural model fits the data well, \( \chi^2(49) = 132.642, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.707, CFI = .974, TLI = .965, RMSEA = .067 \) (90% CI: .053-.081), and SRMR = .039. Figure 1 depicts the proposed model with the standardized path coefficients. The positive impacts of perceived value on satisfaction (H1) and willingness to post
eWOM on social media (H₃) were significant with the estimates of .681 (p < .001) and .162 (p < .05), indicating H₁ and H₃ were supported. However, there was no significant impact on revisit intention (β = -.011, p = .869), indicating H₂ was not supported. Furthermore, H₄ and H₅ (i.e., effects of satisfaction on revisit intention and willingness to post eWOM on social media) were supported with the estimates of .803 (p < .001) and .324 (p < .001).

Figure 1. Results of the structural equation modeling

Notes: Straight line = significant, dashed line = not significant; * p < .05, *** p < .001

**Discussions and Conclusion**

The findings reported that perceived value has significant influences on satisfaction and the willingness to post eWOM on social media which is in line with previous studies (Eggert & Ulaga, 2002; C. K. Lee, Yoon, & Lee, 2007; McDougall & Levesque, 2000; Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000; Petrick & Backman, 2002; Petrick, Morais, & Norman, 2001). Also, the results confirmed that satisfaction positively affects revisit intention and the willingness to post eWOM on social media. However, no direct relationship was detected between perceived value and revisit intention. This is contrary to Eggert and Ulaga’s (2002) findings that perceived value has a direct impact on revisit intention. Given these results, it seems satisfaction is a crucial mediating factor that links perceived value and festival attendees’ post-visit behaviors (revisit intention and willingness to post eWOM). Thus, it is suggested that satisfaction is essential in enhancing attendees’ loyalty towards a festival.

The findings of the study provide festival organizers/marketers in a similar festival setting with useful insight for understanding the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, revisit intention, and the willingness to post eWOM on social media. The study is expected to help them better understand festival attendees’ needs and predict their future intentions, thereby utilizing the predictions to enhance the quality of the festival. This will help improve the satisfaction level of attendees and lead to an improved profitability of the festival. Especially, since the study incorporates the willingness to post eWOM as one of the constructs in the structural model, it provides the organizers/marketers with insight for the current popularity of social media as a marketing tool.
One of the limitations of this study is that the structural model does not cover every possible variable related to behavioral intentions of attendees. It is recommended to consider other aspects such as visitor motivation and the contents of the festival. Another issue is that the findings may not be applicable for every occasion since the study was based on one specific festival. The scale of the festival is quite small, therefore, may not best fit other cases of large-scale festival settings. Likewise, the sample of the study was chosen using a convenience sampling method and cannot represent the general population. It would be useful if another research can be done in the future in a different setting to address a larger population.

References


The role of employment in academic performance: Hospitality students’ perspectives

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to understand how hospitality students perceived the role of paid employment in their academic success and degree completion. Twelve senior hospitality students at a southeastern university in the United States who were employed over 20 hours per week, participated in this qualitative study. The results of the study showed that students not only experienced many challenges with concurrent work and full-time studies, but they experienced significant learning in their various employment positions. The results of the study identified, (a) a need to engage students in strategies that will help them to achieve a balance of their employment and college life, and (b) a need to modify the curriculum to accommodate work-based learning which would integrate students’ hospitality-related work experiences into the students ‘academic experience with an additional benefit of academic credit.

Introduction

The practice of undergraduate students engaging in paid employment concurrent with undergraduate studies is an inevitable phenomenon that generates positive and negative effects (Dadgar, 2012; Ibrahim, Freeman, & Mack, 2012; Robotham, 2012; Tessema, Ready, & Astani, 2014). While hospitality students may gain many benefits from working and studying simultaneously, they experience challenges such as balancing employment and college life, attending classes consistently, completing coursework in a timely fashion, and completing courses successfully, all of which affect their academic performance (Schoffstall, 2013). The purpose of this study was to understand how hospitality students perceived the role of paid employment in their academic success and degree completion. By understanding the role of paid employment in hospitality students’ academic performance, program administrators and faculty members can review policies and curriculum effectively and purposefully in ways that will support employed students on their academic journey. There is a lack of current research about hospitality students’ perceptions of the role of paid employment in their academic performance. For this reason, this study contributes to the literature about higher education. The guiding research question for this study was: What are full-time undergraduate hospitality students’ perceptions regarding the role of paid employment in their academic performance?

Literature Review

Within the United States, approximately 40% of full-time undergraduate students 16 to 24 years old were employed in October 2012, of which seven percent worked 35 or more hours per week, 18% worked 20 to 34 hours per week, and 15% worked fewer than 20 hours per week (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). There are several motives for the trend of college student employment. Some students work and study...
simultaneously to pay their college tuition and fulfill other financial obligations (Hall, 2010), others engage in employment to gain experiences that relate to their academic discipline (Schoffstall, 2013), while others seek to begin their career journey prior to college completion (Wang et al., 2010). For whatever reasons students work, they are often faced with the issues of: (a) balancing college and work successfully, and (b) being adequately involved in their academic environment (Guo, 2014; Schoffstall, 2013; Tessema et al., 2014).

Previous research described both adverse and positive effects of paid employment on students’ academic achievement. Pike et al. (2008) found that students who worked more than 20 hours weekly on or off campus experienced negative impact on their grades. Similarly, Richardson, Kemp, Malinen, and Haultain (2013) reported that the students who worked longer hours had lower GPAs than the students who worked fewer hours. According to Tinto (1993) employment reduces the amount of time and energy that a student would normally devote to academics. In many cases, students have difficulty maintaining or exceeding a cumulative GPA of 2.5, their GPAs decreased once they begin employment, and their time of degree completion was extended (Guo, 2014). According to Robotham (2012), students who are employed place great emphasis on their jobs to the extent that their academic performance becomes compromised. Schoffstall’s (2013) showed that even though employed students gained valuable experience, they encountered difficulty with attendance, punctuality, levels of stress, insufficient study time, grades, and reduced involvement in the hospitality program and institutional activities. While there are adverse effects of concurrent employment and study, there are also many benefits. Simultaneous employment and full-time college helps students to develop their leadership, communication, teamwork, organization, customer service, numeracy, decision-making, and professional skills that are beneficial in their post-graduation careers (Guo, 2014; Pollard et al., 2013; Robotham, 2012). It is imperative to note that due to the limitations of this proposal, the Literature Review is condensed. A more robust review of literature will be provided in the final paper.

**Methodology**

A qualitative research design with a case study approach was conducted in December of 2015 at a private, non-profit, coeducational university located in the southeastern region of the United States that enrolled 84 full-time hospitality majors. Data was collected from twelve students over the age of 18 in the form of semi-structured interviews. The purposeful sample of twelve students included four students who were employed on campus, and eight students who were employed off campus (See Table 1). The researcher selected a small number of participants because a small number aligns with the goal of the study, which was to gain in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. Each participant was (a) a full-time hospitality management student, (b) either currently or previously engaged in any form of paid employment while enrolled in the hospitality program, (c) currently employed or previously employed for a minimum of 20 hours per week for at least one semester within the past 12 months (See Table 1).
Findings

The four major themes that emerged during the data analysis stage were (1) reasons why students engage in paid employment, (2) the negative impact of employment on academic performance, (3) positive outcomes of paid employment on academic performance, and (4) managing employment, college, and other demands. All participants stated or implied that they participated in paid employment while enrolled in college to fulfill financial needs as well as to acquire experience for future employment. Participant 5 stressed that her role as a mother placed added pressure on her to support her child financially while Participant 12 stated that he did not have a family to support him, so he had to fend for himself. Ten participants confirmed that employment negatively impacted their grades and GPA because they worked long hours, late hours, or their jobs caused them to be tired. As a result, they failed to complete assignments in a timely manner and could not attend classes as scheduled. The study revealed that concurrent school and employment contributed to the students’ nonchalance, procrastination, lethargic behavior, and submission of mediocre quality work. Students did not participate adequately in extra-curricular activities because they devoted non-academic time to employment. This finding aligns with conclusions of a study conducted by Robotham (2012). Robotham found that employed students sacrificed their social life and devoted less time to extra-curricular activities, placing greater emphasis on their employment than they did on their academic performance and social life. Although the pattern of negative effects of paid employment on academic performance was dominant, all participants perceived positive outcomes of paid employment on their academic performance. All participants reported or implied that the benefits they gained from working and studying concurrently were invaluable. Ten of the 12 Participants remarked that they experienced transfer of learning from the classroom to their jobs in addition to applying what they learned on the job to their assignments and projects completion, and classroom discussions. All Participants expressed that their employment experiences helped to prepare them for future careers. The findings that developed from the fourth theme ‘Managing employment, college, and other demands,’ aligned with Pollard et al. (2013) and Guo’s (2014) studies which showed that concurrent fulltime college and employment pose many behavioral challenges as students did not manage their employment, college, and other demands on their time efficiently, as evidenced in their comments regarding attendance and a lack of balance between work and school.

Implications

Even though the practice of concurrent full-time college and employment is inevitable for hospitality students, academic performance would be better achieved if students had an improved understanding of how to balance both entities successfully. Moreover, the evidence of learning and the students’ application of employment experiences to their academic assignments, projects, and classroom discussions, are clear indications that there is a need to modify curriculum to accommodate work-based learning which would integrate students’ hospitality-related work experiences into the students ‘academic experience with an additional benefit of academic credit. Perna (2010) stated, “Colleges and universities must educate both professors and administrators about the prevalence of student employment and how to connect students’ workplace and
academic experiences and then change institutional policies, practices, and structures to promote such connections” (para. 8). This study has implications for positive social change because a balance of college and employment in addition to an integration of employment and academic experiences may improve students’ overall academic performance, leading to improved graduation rates and better post-graduation employment opportunities for hospitality students.

References


Table 1

Personal and Demographic Information for each Participant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant #</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Average Number of Hours Worked Weekly</th>
<th>Number of Jobs Held Concurrently</th>
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<th>Employment Location 1</th>
<th>Industry Employed 1</th>
<th>Classificat 1</th>
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<td>Store Associate</td>
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</table>
Response rates in hospitality-related journals

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Abstract

This paper will be looking at response rates (RR) in published hospitality related journals. This study will draw upon existing knowledge of response-rates collected from five different hospitality related journals. An in-depth analysis of the different sampling size, the type of the sampling size, along with other specific characteristics and creating a detailed comparison, it will allow the end result to bring forward the different techniques best suited across respondents. A conclusion based on he trends in relation to the response rate will be made. These final results will not only aid researchers while designing their surveys, but it will possibly appeal to the industry too, creating more efficient questionnaires, that will encourage a higher guest participation. The existing guidelines prove to be unsure regarding the design of an effective survey. The respondent type and the some of the enhancing techniques may be more or less effective in certain samples.

Response Rate is an important factor when considering both the credibility of a study and the publication of it (Mellahi and Harris, 2016). The literature review is looking at RR in different fields, not concentrating on hospitality related journals, having this as a case, the information from the following studies will be used as a pathway for the analysis and recommendations regarding RR. The literature focuses on various techniques which would increase RR, but these techniques are not tailored for specific industries, but rather generalized, creating what now is known as “tailored design method” (TDM; Dillman 2000; previously referred to by Dillman as the “total design methods”).

Design

Six different hospitality related journals were analyzed, with a total sample of 1,359 surveys, covering over 1,000,000 individual respondents, during the period of 2012 to 2015. Different types of respondents will be defined, and their response rate level will be summarized accordingly.
By looking at a large amount of published response rates, we will be adding on to existing knowledge on the topic by looking at the enhancing techniques used by different journals overseeing the hospitality industry. The aim of the result is to aid academic survey researchers and not only, with empirically based guidelines, shaped for successfully collecting data from the Hospitality Industry participants. It is vital for any researcher to be able to increase the response rate. Baruch (1999), explains that the higher the response rate the more valid and dependable the results are, although several emphasize on this point there is no minimum response rate or a any standardized general rule. Currently the researchers are only evaluating reactively the response rates, after they have been collected, the goal of this study is for the guidelines to be used reactively according to the type of respondents. The results of this study will be discussed, and the implications for RR in hospitality related research will be presented.

Reference List


An investigation of medical and recreational marijuana impacts on recruiting talent in the hospitality industry

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As more states legalize either medical marijuana or recreational marijuana, hospitality employers could be faced with a recruiting dilemma. Currently marijuana is illegal by the federal government, regardless of the laws passed by individual states. The majority of hospitality organizations still perform drug screens during the hiring process. This research intends to analyze hospitality organizations’ abilities in recruiting top talent in states with laws where medical and/or recreational marijuana has been passed.

Literature Review

In the United States, the amount of people who use marijuana has increased rapidly. The impact of the increase in marijuana usage could potentially adversely affect the workplace. Safety concerns are one of the main reasons for prohibiting marijuana in the workplace. Marijuana has been linked to increases in job accidents and injuries. Organizations are affected by the changing attitudes of employee’s perception of marijuana usage. There are reported issues with attendance and productivity, which causes the morale of the organization to be negatively impacted. Even though some states have legalized the recreational use of marijuana, the laws do not require an employer to compromise workplace safety (Dougherty, 2016).

Sanchez (2016) states, there is a large united front of businesses, CEOs, commerce and tourism groups against legalizing a drug that is still prohibited by federal law. Not only is the legalization of marijuana making it more difficult to recruit workers, legalization could lead to an increase in workplace-safety problems, high worker-compensation costs, and reduced productivity. It is also noted that in states where recreational use of marijuana is legal, operating in those states is less appealing to potential employers.

The states that have created laws to legalize the recreational use of marijuana have not authorized employees to work while impaired, nor does the law require employers to allow possession or consumption of marijuana at work. Most employers have set standards for marijuana use, similar to those in place to prohibit alcohol use while working. The major concern for companies is, alcohol use can be tested for current impairment while marijuana use cannot. Overall, the larger issue is testing for marijuana impairment. Before Arizona legalized marijuana, a CEO stated that the legalization would be detrimental to Arizona’s workforce and society overall. The CEO also stated that the majority of the issues from his Colorado facilities are due to failed drug tests, productivity, and absenteeism. Employers are staying clear of opening a business in those states where it is legal (Sanchez, 2016).

Employees using marijuana can have an adverse impact on a business, customers, associates, and the public. Rusche and Sabet (2015) developed a white paper for The National Families in Action to educate employers on how marijuana laws will affect employers’ abilities to conduct business, how marijuana laws are changing, and what employers can do to protect their ability to operate on a normal basis. Regardless of the state legalization, private employers are not required to accommodate the use of medical marijuana in the workplace. There have been
proposals for marijuana to be removed from the US Controlled Substances Act to allow states to experiment with their marijuana policy, and if this should happen, employers will have little control over the decision not to allow the use of the drug (Randisi, 2016)

If an employee uses the drug outside of the workplace, the drug may still impact the ability to work efficiently once they return. The drug can have an impact on the human body for up to 24 hours. For example, nine pilots smoked a marijuana cigarette and tried to fly in a simulation machine, and seven pilots still showed an impaired performance 24 hours later with only one pilot recognizing he was still impaired. Studies have linked the drug use to increased absences, tardiness, accidents, and workers compensation claims. Many studies have indicated that the use of marijuana can result in a negative impact on the ability to learn, memorization skills, and performance on IQ exams. These outcomes can result in employees being less productive in the workplace (Randisi, 2016).

According to Slavik (2017) the legalization of marijuana has left organizations wondering if they should scale back on testing or remove marijuana from the testing panel. The main concern with scaling back is the risk of injury to employees. In an effort to maintain safety in the workplace most employees state that they would rather take a test than take a chance working next to someone who is high. Organizations are obligated by federal and state law to maintain a safe work environment, which could cause a sort of grey area with regard to marijuana use. If a company has contracts with the federal government or would like to obtain federal contracts in the future, they most likely would not want to scale back their drug testing policy. Those contracts are legally obligated to meet the Drug Free Workplace Standards, which includes testing. Another reason to not scale back the drug testing policy is that a company does not want to be known as the employer where all the marijuana users apply.

Employers or company owners can prohibit marijuana use on their property whether it be an employee or a customer. As of now, laws do not require employers to tolerate the use of medical marijuana. The most difficult part for employers is trying to determine when an employee is under the influence of marijuana. Even if the employee is legally using marijuana on their personal time and one of the following is found while working, being in the possession of, impaired or under the influence of marijuana disciplinary measures may be taken. Supervisors have to be trained to identify the physical signs of marijuana use unless the employee is physically observed smoking or ingesting the drug. (Stover, 2014).

Stover (2014) stated, Illinois has a law describing that an employee is impaired when the employee presents articulable symptoms and decreases in performance including the following: 1) speech, 2) agility, 3) coordination, 4) irrational or unusual behavior, 5) negligence, 6) carelessness in operating equipment, 7) disregard for safety, 8) involvement in an accident that results in injury or property damage, or 9) carelessness that results in injury or property damage. To avoid the safety risk, employers should clearly state their guidelines on the use of marijuana. Lastly, employers need to stay updated on all of the laws in each state to better prepare themselves for any impact on their company or the hospitality industry as a whole (Stover, 2014).

Methods

The research will use a mixed method approach to identify items that can be used to survey hospitality industry human resource leaders. The first step will be to survey 25 hospitality industry human resources leaders to determine what methods are being used to recruit top talent
in the states that currently have legalized either medical or recreational marijuana while still being compliant with federal law. The second step will be to find common best practices and develop a survey instrument based on the interviews conducted. The final step will be to test the instrument to ensure it is reliable and valid. Once the instrument is proven to be valid, it will be administered to hospitality industry human resource leaders. The target population of the survey will be hospitality HR professional recruiting employees in states where medical and/or recreational marijuana have been legalized by state legislature.

**Discussion and Implications**

According to Stover (2014) the recreational use of marijuana is still prohibited by federal law but states are gradually becoming more accepting. Currently marijuana falls under the Controlled Substances Act of 1970 (CSA), this act classifies marijuana as a Schedule 1 prohibited substance. Since it is classified as a Schedule 1 according to the CSA, marijuana is considered to be a substance that: 1) possess a high potential for abuse; 2) has not been accepted for medical use in the US, and 3) lacks accepted safety for use under medical supervision. The following states have passed recreational and/or medical marijuana legislation: Alaska, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Washington, Washington DC, and West Virginia. Alaska and Washington were the first states to pass a marijuana law in 1998.

The states that have laws allowing medical marijuana do not currently provide employees protection against discipline by employers for using the drug. Regardless of the law in one’s state, an employee can be prohibited from working under the influence of marijuana if they are in violation of the federal law or cause the company to lose a contract granted by the federal government. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) does not require an employer to accommodate medical marijuana usage; however, if the employee is legally authorized to use medical marijuana, the disability could be recognized and protected under the ADA (Stover, 2014).

Abraham (2015) discussed how employers still maintain a “Zero Tolerance” policy regarding the use of illegal drugs in order to comply with the Federal Drug Free Workplace Act. Employers should take time to carefully consider their substance abuse policy. There are many reasons employers may want to be committed to a drug-free workplace, including improved workplace safety and increased productivity. An employer is free to regulate employee conduct related to illegal drug use, including prohibiting being under the influence, which may be defined as having any detectable level of illegal drugs in an employee’s body or any noticeable perceptible impairment of the employee’s mental or physical faculties. There are a number of options for employers who are addressing the use of recreational marijuana (Abraham, 2015)

**Limitations**

The data for this study will attempt to collect recruiting information from organizations targeting employees in states were medical and/or recreational marijuana has been legalized by the state. Hospitality organizations may be reluctant in sharing recruiting practices because they may feel the recruiting practices for the organization are proprietary. The other challenge that
may surface is that national organizations may not have changed their overall recruiting process since they recruit for positions throughout the United States. With these limitations in mind it will have to be made clear that the focus of this research is state-specific and any information gathered will be confidential and reported out anonymously.

References


Exploring the economic impact of a large-scale event (wine and food festival) on an urban tourist destination

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Introduction

Large-scale events can have a significant positive impact on the local community (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011). These events help bring together both tourists and locals alike to attend the event and spend money in the local community. The impacts of these dollars can be felt locally in different areas (inside and outside the festival). Inside the event people spend money on ticketing, food and beverage, retail/merchandizing, and on different products and services that might be offered (trade show). Outside the event people spend money on transportation, retail, food and beverage, and lodging. All of this spending can have a positive impact on the local and surrounding host destination (Bracalente et al., 2011; Chhabra, Sills, & Cubbage, 2003). For instance, in 2007 it was found that an estimated $2.6 million of gross sales transactions were directly or indirectly related to local food festivals in Northeast Iowa counties (Çela, Knowles-Lankford, & Lankford, 2007). Messina Hof Wine and Food Festival has generated more than $600,000 for food, drinks, tickets, gifts and car fares for a rural Texas region (Brown, Var, & Lee, 2002).

More and more food and wine festivals continue to emerge each year (Meretse, Mykletun, & Einarsen, 2016). Consumers are constantly searching for new and unique experiences including food and wine (Lee & Arcodia, 2011). Urban food and wine festivals often showcase local restaurants fare, local wineries and pubs, this helps to promote local businesses and create a positive image in the minds of the consumer (Hollows, Jones, Taylor, & Dowthwaite, 2014). Thus, it is not just the destination that receives benefits, but local business including restaurants, wineries, wine/food distributors, event companies, hotels, and transportation. Up until now, the majority of impact studies have focused on rural and regional wine and food festivals (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014; Çela et al., 2007; Chhabra et al., 2003). Additionally, with a major city, it is important to show the many stakeholders in a community the import to a large festival on the local businesses and economy. Thus, these stakeholders will be more likely to support these types of events on an annual basis. Consequently, the purpose of this work in progress is to evaluate the economic impact of a large-scale food and wine festival on the host city and the surrounding area.
Literature Review

Festivals

Festival tourism is a celebration/gathering for both locals and tourists. These celebrations occur on a specific date or dates, and often have a food, beverage, musical, holiday, seasonal or heritage component (Getz & others, 1991; O'Sullivan & Jackson, 2002). Festivals have experienced rapid growth in the last 20 years, increasing in size, popularity and quantity (Bachman, Norman, Backman, & Hopkins, 2017; Bachman, Norman, Hopkins, & Brookover, 2016).

Food Tourism and Food Festivals

Food is a major contributing factor and has become increasingly important to the tourism product when potential visitors assess a destination (Chang & Yuan, 2011; Jones & Jenkins, 2002). In fact, food tourism is considered a specific niche in tourism, in which consumers travel to destinations in order to visit food festivals, restaurants, and food producers/vendors (C Michael Hall & Mitchell, 2005; C Michael Hall, Mitchell, & others, 2001). Food tourism is also known as cuisine tourism, gastronomy tourism, culinary tourism, and taste tourism (Smith & Costello, 2009). Food acts as a catalyst to tourism for the types of experiences/emotions it provides. People associate food with relaxation (on a picnic), communicating with others (social motivation), learning (about new tastes and cuisines), and hospitality (service and the overall experience) (Çela et al., 2007; Kim, Goh, & Yuan, 2010).

Food is often used to help to brand and differentiate destinations with their unique flavors/tastes and restaurants (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014; Ilbery & Saxena, 2009; Sims, 2009). One way that destinations can market and brand themselves utilizing food tourism is through food festivals. Food festivals are often used by rural and urban destinations to differentiate their location, showcasing the local restaurants, flavors and tastes that make the destination unique (Kalkstein-Silkes, Cai, & Lehto, 2008). Food festivals themselves can often play a role in the branding of a region typically through providing value and appreciation of food produced in a specific region (Çela et al., 2007; I. Lee & Arcodia, 2011).

Food and Wine Festivals

Food and wine festivals combine the tourist draw of both wine and food, in this way, food and wine festivals can attract a significant amount of both locals and tourists to a specific destination to celebrate the pairing of wines with local cuisine (including tasting food from local restaurants, local wines). The impacts of wine and food festivals can be far-reaching, attracting both international and domestic travelers (Hoffman, Beverland, & Rasmussen, 2001; W. Lee, Sung, Suh, & Zhao, 2017; Smith & Costello, 2009). Wine and food festivals allow destinations to showcase their landscapes, culture, and diversity in local people, food, and wine. This can help build place identity and loyalty to the destination in which the tourist becomes reliable for the types of experiences the destination promises. Thus, people will more likely revisit the destination in the future (Beckman, Kumar, & Kim, 2013; Hoffman et al., 2001; Hollows et al., 2014; W. Lee et al., 2017).
Large-scale events

Large-scale public events draw interest in a community and provide a positive means of marketing a destination and the types of activities that appeal to the general public (Kalkstein-Silkes et al., 2008; Sims, 2009). These types of public events include sporting events, cultural celebrations, political and state fundraisers and rallies, business and trade-related events (expositions), association/corporate events, education and scientific events and festivals (beer, wine, food, music, heritage, holiday) (Getz & others, 1991). In terms of cultural celebrations, there are four kinds of events; festivals, carnivals, commemorations and religious events. For sport competition, there are amateur/professional and spectator/participant. Examples of large scale sporting events include the Summer and Winter Olympic Games, FIFA World Cup, Rugby World Cup, Cricket World Cup and British/Irish Lions Tour (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011).

Economic impacts of festivals/events

Large-scale public events such as food and wine festivals introduce economic benefits to the host destination and surrounding areas (Beckman & Chang, 2015; W. Lee et al., 2017). As a festival held in a community, there are impacts including social, culture and economic impacts. In terms of time periods, the impact of a festival on community is distinguished between the three links. Forward link refers to the impact of the incident itself. Backlinking is a strong background goal of justifying or justifying an incident. Parallel connection is a residual side effect of the incident itself, not directly under the control of the event organizer (Hiller, 1998). Before holding a festival, there are many expectations of the festival impacts on local city. According to Uysal, et al. (1993), six of these impacts include 1) creating a positive image of the local city; 2) minimizing negative impacts, 3) developing sustainable development; 4) fostering a better relationship between hosts and visitors; 5) preserving nature, social and culture environments; and 6) bringing in money to local economy. It has been found that stakeholders value festivals/events when they see a positive economic impact (Mair & Whitford, 2013).

Hosting festivals can attract people to travel to the local city and increase consumption. During the festival period, visitors spend money on lodging, food and beverage, purchases of souvenirs, and admission and registration (Chhabra et al., 2003). The size of the economic impact depends on the number of holiday days and the characteristics of other attractions and connections in the local economy. For the multi-day festivals, people spend the most on accommodation, and people spend the most on catering in the single-day festivals (Chhabra et al., 2003). The additional economic income is the increase of jobs and length of work due to the holding of events. However, there are some negative economic impacts. The negative economic impact includes increases in the amount of refuse/garbage collected, increase in the amount of wastewater treated, and in some cases, property damage (Brown et al., 2002). In addition, other economic impacts include increases in housing prices for large-scale events, due to rising demand and land acquisition around the venue. This is residual to the event itself and not directly under the control of event organizers (Hiller, 1998).
Methodology

The researchers plan to survey festival attendees on various spending patterns directly before, during and after the 2018 South Beach Wine and Food Festival, Miami, Florida. Spending amounts for each respondent will be reported in various categories including transportation, food and beverage, lodging, retail, ticketing/festival expenditures, and other expenditures in the local area (movies, other attractions, tours, etc.). The researchers will utilize a street-intercept (face-to-face) surveying method, data collection will take place at four separate sub-events at the festival. A minimum of 400 respondents in total will be surveyed at the festival. Data for each respondent will be collected on demographic characteristics, including gender, age, marital status, educational qualification, occupation type, annual income, and location of residence (county, state, and country). This will help to determine if each respondent is a tourist (travelling greater than 50 miles-one way) or local (less than 50 miles). Furthermore, this will provide insight into demographical factors that may impact spending habits at large-scale events. The survey will be collected on portable electronic tablets, respondents will indicate their answers to the questions during or immediately after their visit to the event.

Analysis of demographic data will be conducted using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21.0. and will include the following factors: (1) descriptive statistics concerning demographic information, such as gender, age, marital status, educational qualification, occupation type and annual income. The impact of festival attendees will be calculated utilizing and input/output IMPLAN model to determine an estimate of the value of the festival on Miami Beach and surrounding areas. Local spending on various categories will be collected including restaurants, bars, ticket sales, retail, hotel rooms and transportation/parking. The event itself (South Beach Wine and Food Festival) brings in over $10,000,000 in revenue each year via sponsorships and ticket sales. It will be interesting to note the far-reaching impact that the event has on Miami beach, its residents, surrounding businesses, and on the faculty and our students.

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Does consumers’ perception of fairness on green hotel initiatives influence revisit intention?

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Introduction

The hotel industry is becoming more aware of how their day-to-day practice collectively impacts the environment (Webster, 2000). These environmental effects are evidenced in the form of air and water pollution, waste generation as well as energy induced emission (Bohdanowicz, 2005; Kasim, 2009; Chan, Wong & Lo, 2009). Consequently, to attract potential customers, some hotels identify as ‘green’ (Pizam, 2009), since such an image is influential to customers’ decision-making processes and behavioral intentions (Prendergast & Man, 2002).

Although some hoteliers indicated that implementing green initiatives have increased their competitiveness in the marketplace, (for example, earning recognition and increasing customer retention) enhanced the firm’s profit, (Chan & Wong, 2006; Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007), investor relations, social benefit and operational efficiency (Rahman et al., 2012), others remain hesitant due to the uncertainty of financial benefits and the significant upfront costs to implement new green practices (Kang, Stean, Leo, & Lee, 2012). In Chan and Lam’s (2003) study, the cost and effect of changing the type of water heater used in an outdoor swimming pool in a Hong Kong hotel was examined. Although the original heater and annual energy cost amounted to US $5148 and the new heater and annual energy expenditures decreased by US $2574, the initial cost of installing the pump and new system amounted was US $5792. Furthermore, these hoteliers are still faced with the challenge of paying environmental tax fines or penalties for noncompliance with environmental guidelines or implementing cost to abate the environmental impacts (Chan & Lam, 2001). Therefore, it is not surprising that most green hotels charge premiums to offset these costs (Kang et al., 2012). Nevertheless, it is still unclear how this increased cost affects customers’ perception of fairness or behavioral outcomes for green hotel initiatives.

Given the pervasiveness of consumer interest in green initiatives and the contradictory findings on the outcomes of consumers’ action towards green hotel practices, more research is needed on antecedents of green hotel initiatives to mitigate the gap between consumers’ expectations and actions (Olson, 2013). A more useful suggestion is to test how consumer’s perception of fairness towards green hotel initiatives affects their behavioral outcomes. A better understanding of consumer perception is pertinent to designing green programs and initiatives that are effective (Han et al., 2011). Consumer perception is a psychological factor that precedes purchase behavior, thereby enabling a deeper analysis of how individuals select, organize and
interpret information received from the environment (Sheth et al., 2004). Since consumer perception affects action and buying habits, this has strategic implications for marketers due to fact that decisions are based on perception instead of object reality (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010). Therefore this study will assess consumers’ perception of fairness based on price vs non-priced green hotel initiatives and their revisit intention towards hotels that offer these practices.

**Literature review**

*Perceived fairness and behavioral outcomes*

In a buyer-seller context, fairness is often judged from an equity vs inequity perspective based on a comparison between investments (e.g. time, search efforts, price paid etc.) and benefits received in return (e.g. quality, utility, etc.) (Adams, 1965; Walster, Berscheid , & Wakster, 1973). If the customer perceives that the relationship is unbalanced, and in favor of the service provider, then perceptions of unfairness and injustice may occur (Choi & Mattila, 2004). Fairness perceptions influence consumer reactions to service such that positive fairness perceptions often leads to re-patronage and positive word of mouth intent (Blodgett et al., 1997), while negative fairness perceptions may negatively influence consumers’ shopping behavior (Campbell, 1999). Although the literature is saturated with several studies addressing fairness perception of price, (e.g. Campbell, 1999; Bolton et al., 2003; Vaidyanathan & Aggarwal, 2003; Xia, Monroe & Cox, 2004) only a few have focused on fairness price perceptions in hospitality literature, with none specifically in the context of green hotels, where consumers are also asked to participate in non-priced green initiatives. Consumers assess fairness of price by using internal references such as the last price paid and/or external references such as price most frequently paid and/or the posted price (Heo & Lee, 2011). In the hotel industry, fairness perceptions of price have been studied mostly in a revenue management context (Beldona & Kwansa, 2008; Choi & Matilla, 2004, 2005, 2006; Kimes, 1994). It was found that information had a significant effect on fairness perception, while other consumers perceived the process unfair when no information is provided (Choi & Matilla, 2004).

In corporate responsibility literature, it was found that consumers perceived an additional benefit in the purchase of a product coming from a socially responsible company; also, respondents judged the 10 percent price differential charged by the socially responsible firm as fair, even when this percentage is more than its’ competitors (Abrantes-Fereira et al., 2010). Although this finding has several implications for marketers in the hotel industry, the actual monetized value was also not consistent in literature for green hotels. Some studies suggested consumers would comfortably pay more for green initiatives ranging from $1 - $5 (Kubickova et al., 2015) while others suggested 8.97 to $25.43 US regardless of the room cost (Kuminoff, Zhang, & Rudi, 2010). According to expectancy theory, “motivational force experienced by an individual to select one behavior from a larger set is some function of the perceived likelihood that that behavior will result in the attainment of various outcomes weighed by the desirability (valence) of these outcomes to the person” (Jacoby, 1976, p. 1050). In other words, individuals are more likely to choose green initiatives fairly when outcomes exceed the customer’s expectations than when they fail to do so (Oliver, 1997). In organizational behavior research, fairness is evaluated based on informational, procedural justice, interactional justice and distributive justice (Colquitt, 2001). This study will only focus on distributive and procedural evaluations of fairness since this is more ideal to the research design. Distributive fairness will be
assessed based on three price-based scenarios, while procedural will be reflected in two non-price based scenarios. Based on the scenarios, consumers will have a reference point to which each assessment of fairness is being judged. For priced based scenarios, this will be the $100 cost for the room rate prior to exposure to better-than, worst-than or equal to contexts; while the non-priced based scenarios will feature better-than and worst-than scenarios. It is expected that participants in a better-than scenario for both price and non-price context will evaluate fairness more favorably than those placed in a worse-than context.

Revisit intention

Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1975) developed the theory of reasoned action in the late 1970s to explain social behavior from a product purchase to sexual expression. They proposed that beliefs, attitudes and intentions were predictors of a subjects’ ability to perform or not perform a certain behavior. In other words, an individual’s behavior is most directly measured from his/her intention to perform the behavior. Some studies found that while consumer’s previous experiences influence their revisit intentions (Mathieson, 1991; Zeithaml et al., 1996), they differed across gender (Han et al., 2011). Also, satisfaction and attitude were significantly associated with revisit intention towards green hotels (Han & Kim, 2010). Therefore, this study proposed that participants who perceive the green hotel initiative as fair will more likely revisit the green hotel than participants who perceive the green hotel initiatives as unfair.

Methodology

Research design

This study will use a 3 x 2 between subjects design. One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) will be used to test if there are significant differences in perceived fairness between groups based on five scenarios; three price-related (better-than-expectation, equal-to-expectation, worse-than-expectation) and two non-price-related (better-than-expectation, worse-than-expectation).

Target population

Since prior studies suggest that perceived fairness differs across national borders and customer segments (Haws & Bearden, 2006), this study will seek to target customers who used both green and non-green hotel facilities from various nationalities. To be eligible for this study, participants would need to have prior experience staying in a hotel. Participants will be recruited from the Hartsfield-Jackson Atlanta Georgia Airport, since this is known as one of the busiest airports in the world since 1998 with travelers across the world (Sood, 2013). Not only does this airport attract more travelers than any other airports in the world, it facilitates more aircraft movements to travelers around the world (Sood, 2013). Holbrook and Hirshcann (1982) distinguished the two purposes of consumption as being primarily utilitarian or hedonic. Therefore, the researcher will operationalize the utilitarian choice as a hotel stay for business purposes and the hedonic choice for leisure or vacation purposes. In other words, purpose of travel will be used as a control variable to capture responses from a minimum of 200 travelers. In an effort to maximize responses and eliminate non-response errors, a double-dipping method will
be utilized; if participants indicate their interest to participate in the survey, but were in a hurry, their email address will be requested to send an electronic version of the survey. Participants will also be given an incentive of $2 for each completed survey.

The returned questionnaires that are fully completed will be coded and entered into an Excel spreadsheet, and will then be transported into SPSS or R-Studio software for further analysis. After transporting the data, the database will be cleaned to correct any response errors or anomalies. Following preliminary analysis of descriptive findings, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) will be conducted to test for significant differences between the groups.

Measures

Customers’ perception of fairness will be measured using two items, a seven and eight point Likert-type scale adapted from Choi and Matilla’s 2004 study. Questions such as, “how would you rate the green hotel’s pricing policy and practice?” 1 = ‘very unfair’ and 7 = ‘very fair’. And “how likely are you to make the reservation?” 0 = ‘Not at all likely’ and 7 = ‘Extremely likely’. Due to the fact unfairness problem surfaces when people make social comparisons (Choi & Matilla, 2004), using two items to test variations in fairness perceptions is adequate in that several scenarios will be presented. Differences will be analyzed by the least significant difference (LSD) test for multiple comparisons. Revisit Intention will also be adapted from Lee et al.’s (2010) study. Participants will be presented with statements regarding their revisit intention for a green hotel. Each item will be rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 to 7 (1 = “strongly disagree” and to 7 = “strongly agree”).

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A review of articles on green hotel practices: A focus on methods

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Introduction

The growing interest in environmental issues within the hospitality literature is evidenced by an increase in the number of publications on energy policy and environmental awareness between 2005 and 2010 (Myung, McClaren, & Li, 2012). While this trend is a relatively novel line of research inquiry, it continues to grow based on the importance of environmental issues (Chamorro, Rubio, & Miranda, 2009). Terms such as ‘environmentally friendly’, ‘green practice’, ‘eco-friendly’ are often used interchangeably in the literature to refer to green hotel practices. Green hotels are environmentally-friendly properties whose managers implement programs that save water, reduce energy and reduce waste disposals to protect the environment and reduce operational costs (Green Hotel Association, 2008). These hotels are driven to maintain green practices because of high consumer demands (Bohdanowicz, 2005; Rahman, Reynolds, & Svaren, 2012). Due to the upsurge in green consumerism, more recent articles published between 2010 and 2014 have focused on the effects of green practices on relationships with customers and employees while ignoring the primary purpose of green practices which is rooted in the concept of environmental protection (Kim, Lee, & Fairhurst, 2017). Furthermore, there is a lack of information on diverse perspectives to sustainability issues in the hospitality industry beyond ‘eco-efficiency’ gains (Jones, Hillier, & Comfort, 2016). This suggests that underlying environmental issues have not yet been addressed despite the advancement in literature and the communal agreement about its importance. Although the concept of assessing green practices in a hotel context is relatively new (Chamorro et al., 2009), scholars suggest that when a research stream is in its infancy or evolving stage, more conceptual studies are needed to build a foundation for empirical studies (Knight, 1999). Furthermore, scholars also suggest that an acceptable approach to advance an emergent field of study requires qualitative methodological procedures since this will make important contributions to developing empirically based, conceptual and theoretical frameworks (Funk et al., 2010; Xiao & Smith, 2006).

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to qualitatively review, analyze and synthesize the research methodologies used in environmental-related hospitality studies specific to the lodging industry. In particular, this study sought to use a qualitative approach to answer two research questions:

(a) How has green hotels been researched from an economic, environmental and social perspective?

(b) What were the methodological approaches used in these studies?

Addressing these questions will guide hospitality scholars on how the literature has evolved over the years and equip them with the necessary tools to compare methodological
techniques and verify areas of saturation and gaps in the literature to build on for future research, thus formulating a research agenda for coming years. Also, marketing professionals and hoteliers will be aware of popular perspectives on green practices that have been implemented by prior hotels and can be guided in their marketing approach accordingly.

Literature review

Sustainability in hospitality research

Globally, hotel chains and independent properties of all sizes are now actively involved in environmental practices. Nevertheless, green hotels have not lived up to their environmentally-friendly potential. In assessing the forces that drive change in the industry, scholars and consumers have denigrated the lodging industry’s efforts to go green, often stating that their primary incentives are related to financial gain, due to implementing low-cost measures (Kirk, 1998). Such measures often include hoteliers simply hanging a sign that says they are green (Heung et al., 2006), or changing the sheets or towels less often (Pizam, 2009). Consequently, many hotels integrate the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) into their business practices, since this not only enhances their external reputation but provides a more holistic approach to being more socially responsible. The goal of CSR is to achieve financial success in ways that honor ethical values, respect people, communities and the natural environment (Parguel et al., 2011). Ultimately, this concept is rooted in stakeholder theory, which was created out of the belief that companies should be sensitive to the interest of not only their primary shareholders, but also those of a wider variety of stakeholders such as managers, employees, customers, suppliers, independent agencies, local government, and parent firms to be more successful (Carroll, 1979; Nesteruk, 1995). Despite these findings, the literature has addressed green issues in the hotel industry separately. According to Jones, Hillier & Comfort’s (2016) personal reflection on sustainability within the hospitality industry, although companies claim to implement sustainability programs, they are often focused on eco-efficiency gains and have adopted “a weak approach to sustainability” (p. 23). Taking a holistic perspective enables the transfer of sustainable development ideas from theory to practice in contemporary decision-making (Hardi et al., 1999). Adopting all three perspectives also means both humans and ecosystem time scales are included when measuring sustainability impacts. Notably, the nature of human activities is of such that activities in one location can have implications on other geographic location and people far away (Hardi et al, 1999).

The importance of methodology assessment

In social sciences, methodology refers to “the acceptance of standardized procedures to which research is carried out and evaluated” (Collins, Joseph, & Bielaczyc, 2004, p.4), and was first developed as a means to test and refine theoretical principles based on prior research (Collins et al., 2004). The high interrelated nature of theory and method gives emphasis to the importance of studying research methods (Van Maanen, Sorensen, & Mitchell, 2007). Also, the method section was cited by reviewers as mostly being responsible for the outright rejection of a research manuscript (Byrne, 2000). Particularly, this section of the research paper provides specific, detailed information about the project and a clear blueprint for replication (Kallet, 2004). Hence, evaluating methodological design enables researchers to not only assess the
development of a theory, but also the design procedures used, so that a final judgment can be made on its legitimacy to advance a field of study.

Method

Content analysis was used to analyze and synthesize the research methodologies used in environmentally related hospitality studies specific to the lodging industry from an environmental, economic and social perspective. The University of Wisconsin-Madison Library’s rating of the top 10 research database updated in January 2017 was chosen. The top 10 databases featured subjects from both general and specific disciplines. Five of the ten options that were general and multidisciplinary in focus were selected (Academic Search Premier, Google Scholar, JSTOR, Scopus and Web of Science). Articles were also retrieved from Green File and Hospitality and Tourism Complete databases to enhance the representativeness of articles specific to green hotel attributes. An inclusion criterion used in the research required that articles have the operational definition of environmentally-friendly practices according to the Green Hotel Association (2008) baseline description. Also, the articles were filtered based on studies published from 2007 to 2017 in English and were only included if they were solely about hotels and were published in a peer-reviewed journal. Articles that were not published in English or featured green practices relative to several segments of the hospitality industry were excluded.

To address the first research question, the theoretical framework proposed by Kahn (1995) that assumes a link between social, economic and environmental domains as well as the individual category definition for each perspective was used to guide the analysis. Data was coded immediately with the predetermined codes (economic, environmental and social) and entered into excel spreadsheet. Next, to ensure inter-coder reliability, two researchers were recruited to verify ten randomly selected articles (4 environmental, 3 economic and 3 social articles) used in this study. Excerpts about the article’s theme, without defining words specific to each perspective was used as the article description. This was done due to the fact that some articles featured titles or abstracts that could not easily be identified as environmental, economic or social; therefore, the author had to delve beyond the surface to determine the perspective used. The results showed 85% inter-coder reliability, which is above the acceptable range proposed by Weber (1990).

Findings

The articles generated from the search exercise displayed thousands of articles that needed additional screening. Hung and Law’s (2011) procedure was implemented to ensure article’s appropriateness for the current study. After sorting, the final number of articles reviewed was 52. The studies analyzed were fairly dispersed over several geographical locations. 56% of articles did not use a theory to validate their methodological procedures or argument development. To address the first research question, the frequency of green hotel articles from an economic, environmental and social perspective was analyzed. 33 articles were published on environmental issues (64% of the total articles), 10 on economic issues, and rarely on social issues (n = 5). This finding is line with prior studies (Myung et al, 2012; Kim et al, 2017). Findings for the second research question showed that almost all of the studies analyzed were empirical in nature (98%), with only one being argumentative. 29 articles used quantitative methods (56%), 17 used mixed methods (33%) and six were qualitative (12%). Also, 29 articles
used some type of survey method to collect data (56%), 16 articles used secondary sources (31%), while eight articles used telephone interviews (15%) to collect data. The sampling procedure mostly used were stratified (n = 16) and random (n = 15) sampling (See Table 4). The type of sample commonly used in the articles reviewed were collected from both customer (n = 15) and managers (n=15) in the hotel industry, followed closely by data collected at the property level (n=13) (See Table 5). Statistical analyses most commonly used was regression (n=13), qualitative coding and themes (n = 8), and factor analysis (n = 7) (See table 6).

**Discussion and conclusion**

The majority of the studies analyzed from an environmental perspective focused on issues at the property level such as solid waste management and best practices, and fairly addressed the theoretical assumption proposed by Kahn (1995) that the environmental domain should look for ways in which resources will not be used up at a faster rate than they are being replenished. On the contrary, articles reviewed from the economic and social perspective fell short of Kahn’s (1995) theory in that the issues addressed were not extended to impoverished people in the community or addressed social issues based on the ‘idea of equity among the people’. The descriptive analysis of the research methods highlights the need to diversify the design, data-collection procedures, sample type and data analysis techniques to be used in the future studies on environmentally-related issues.

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Determinants of the Certificate of Excellence recipient hotels by TripAdvisor

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Introduction

Over the last two decades, the number of Internet users has increased dramatically. Compared to the 1.2 billion users in 2006, the number of Internet users in 2017 tripled to 3.7 billion (Internetlivestats.com, 2017). With the increasing number of users, the Internet has reshaped the customer decision-making process. While the factors of traditional customer decision-making—need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase evaluation—remain the same, the ways that customers find information, purchase products, and evaluate their purchases have changed (Moon, 2004). For example, now customers can easily access not only product information but also other customers' reviews/ratings of products and services. The reviews left on a company’s website as well as social networking sites (e.g., Facebook.com) significantly affect a business both positively and/or negatively depending on the type of information put in a review because customers perceive information left online by peers to be more accurate and trustworthy than information provided by a company (Foux, 2006; Mangold & Faulds, 2009).

The products offered by hospitality and tourism companies consist of both tangible and intangible products (Lewis, 1989). The substantial role of intangibility has caused customers to be more concerned about the quality of products before actual consumptions of products; this uncertainty could be minimized by online reviews from other customers. Customer reviews are reflections of customer satisfaction, and researchers have widely identified factors affecting hotel customer satisfactions as: customer service (Magnini, Crotts, & Zehrer, 2011), breakfast (Yang et al., 2011), Internet access services (Yang et al., 2011), cleanliness (Magnini et al., 2011), location (Magnini et al., 2011), etc. Some of these factors cover customers’ subjective evaluations based on their experiences at the hotel (e.g., customer service), whereas other factors are related to objective hotel features—whether certain hotel amenities (e.g., breakfast and Internet access services) are offered or not. Major online retailers such as Amazon.com display customer reviews as well as the facts about product features to assist potential customers (Archak, Ghose, & Ipeirotis, 2011), and TripAdvisor.com is no exception.

Since its founding in 2000, TripAdvisor.com has become one of the popular travel websites which enables customers to make reservations for hotels, restaurants, flights, and attractions in 29 countries (TripAdvisor LLC, 2017a). TripAdvisor.com also allows customers to leave text comments regarding hospitality and tourism companies and to express their evaluations using the bubble rating system from one bubble being considered “poor” to five bubbles being “excellent.” As of 2016, the website has received more than 353 million reviews and comments by real customers (TripAdvisor LLC, 2017a). In addition to hosting customer reviews, TripAdvisor.com awards a certificate of excellence to top businesses every year including accommodations, restaurants, airlines, and attractions. To qualify for TripAdvisor's certification, companies must uphold an average bubble rating of four or
five based on a certain number of reviews—TripAdvisor has not published specifics. Additionally, the company must have been listed on the website for at least one year (TripAdvisor LLC, 2017b). This honorable designation significantly increases business performance in areas such as net sales, customer counts, and average customer spending (Kim, Li, & Brymer, 2016).

Hotels provide rooms as a basic service for travelers, but the additional features and amenities that each hotel offers vary by the hotel type, location, price, level of service, brand affiliation, types of the hotel, etc. However, each hotel customer might consider certain amenities as essential, but exactly what they are searching for cannot be known. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate how customers chose hotels utilizing top online reviews as determined by the certificate of excellence. Specifically, this study compared several published characteristics/amenities available on TripAdvisor.com for hotels that had received the certificate of excellence and for hotels without it to test whether the preferred characteristics/amenities differed between the two groups. Also, this study explored a model to determine hotel characteristics which influence the certificate of excellence.

Methodology

Hotel listings data for four metropolitan areas (i.e., Chicago, Los Angeles, Miami, and New York City) in the United States were collected from TripAdvisor.com on September 27th 2017 via access to the top-level domain: https://www.tripadvisor.com. The collection process included two phases:
1. Collecting a list of relative hyperlinks for hotels from city-based search results pages and
2. Iterating through the list of individual hotel listings pages to collect target data.

The data collection was completed using the R core, version 3.3.3, which offers support for libraries such as htrr and rvest that facilitate data ingestion and processing flows across HTTP networks. Additionally, the REPL provided by the premier integrated development environment for R programming, RStudio (https://www.rstudio.com/), served as a useful interface for iterative development of the script executed to retrieve and process hotel listings on TripAdvisor.com. By using the xlsx package, the script created an Excel workbook and wrote out the collected data into a spreadsheet resulting in information on 1,036 hotels. The information included the number of reviews, ranking, bubble rating, hotel class, free Wi-Fi, free breakfast, “green leader” recognition, and average price of each hotel room. Using IBM SPSS statistical analysis version 25, descriptive statistics were computed on all variables to identify characteristics of hotels with and without the certificate of excellence in four cities. Additionally, a logistic regression analysis was conducted to obtain the probability of receiving the certificate of excellence.

Results

Out of 1,036 hotels in four cities, slightly more than half of the hotels did not receive the certificate of excellence (52.61%). There were more hotels that received the certificate of excellence in Chicago and NYC, while fewer hotels were awarded the certification in LA and Miami. The majority of hotels that received the certificate of excellence in the four cities provided free Wi-Fi, but free breakfast was offered by only a few hotels with the designation.
A logistic regression model was used to predict the certificate of excellence for hotels on TripAdvisor.com. This model explained 80.7% (Negelkerke $R^2=.807$) of the variance in the outcome variable certificate of excellence. This model produced a good fit to the data as assessed by the Hosmer and Lemeshow test ($\chi^2(8)=4.05, p=.852$), and overall, our model correctly classified 91.2 of the included observations. Out of eight proposed determinants, six items significantly predicted the certificate of excellence, and thus altered the odds of a particular hotel receiving the certificate of excellence. Specifically, free Wi-Fi was the strongest determinant of the certification ($Wald = 155.468, p < .001$), followed by bubble rating ($Wald = 43.861, p < .001$), the number of reviews ($Wald = 17.024, p < .001$), hotel ranking ($Wald = 7.732, p < .01$), green leader recognition ($Wald = 7.405, p < .01$), and hotel class ($Wald = 3.998, p < .05$) as indicated in table 1. However, the average room price and free breakfast did not increase the possibility of receiving the certification.

Discussion and Implications

Consistent with findings by Bulchand-Gidumal (2011), the results of this study showed that free Wi-Fi service significantly affects online reviews. Adding to the existing body of knowledge, this study found that free Wi-Fi increases the probability of receiving the certificate of excellence most significantly. In this digital era, Wi-Fi plays an essential role in people’s daily lives. Even though several hotels still charge for Wi-Fi, results indicate that hotels should provide free Wi-Fi to increase their online ratings, and, ultimately improve their chances of receiving the certificate of excellence from TripAdvisor.com. The expense could be justified in light of the benefits that this recognition brings to the hotel.

This study looked at the variable of “green leader” considering the increasing environmental concerns, hotels have implemented environmentally-friendly practices throughout their properties (Millar & Baloglu, 2011). Some hotels even have obtained certifications for being environmentally-friendly. However, researchers have presented mixed views on the impact of environmentally-friendly practices on customer satisfaction. The findings of this study confirmed green practices within a hotel property increase the probability of receiving the certificate of excellence.

Price has been identified as one of the most important factors affecting customer satisfaction by several researchers. However, surprisingly in this study, the average room price did not increase the probability of receiving the certificate of excellence. This could be because the actual price that each customer paid might have a significant difference with the average room price published on the TripAdvisor.com caused by the revenue management from each property.

The findings of this study provide indispensable information for hotels to be successful with massive online reviews. By understanding the main characteristics of hotels that received TripAdvisor’s certificate of excellence, hotels without the certificate can benchmark their offerings against hotels with the certificate and implement changes to improve their reputations and chances for better online reviews.
Table 1

*Logistic Regression Predicting the Certificate of Excellence*

<table>
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<td>.511</td>
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*Note.* Negelkerke $R^2=.807$, Cox & Snell $R^2=604$. $\chi^2(8)=845.31$.

**References**


A conceptual model of free gifts for customer experience in restaurant

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Understanding and managing customer experiences is fundamental to marketing. In particular, designing effective promotional strategies (e.g., serving complimentary or free gifts in return for customers’ business with restaurant) is critical for marketers to enhance customer experiences. Research on complimentary gifts, however, seemed to maintain the nascent state until recently: Chun and Hiang (2016) shows that companies offer gifts to build relationships with customers, gain attention, and improve the overall service experience. This study aims to contribute a more detailed understanding of consumer experience with complimentary gifts service by developing a conceptual model that examines key factors. Two key factors of interest are timing difference as a service factor and consumption occasion as a consumer factor. Timing difference of free gifts (i.e. pre-informed/anticipated or surprise free gifts) is commonly found in restaurants’ management of free gift service. Dining consumption occasions (i.e. ordinary or special occasion) may also play a role in consumer experience with the free gift occasion. The purpose of this study is to present a conceptual model that comprehensively describes how consumers evaluate their experiences with a restaurant who offers a complimentary gift as a function of its timing (whether the gift is anticipated or surprising) and consumer’s occasion of his/her restaurant visit (whether it is an ordinary occasion or a special one).

Literature Review

Understanding anticipation and surprise through Utility Theory

Effects of anticipation and surprise can be explained by utility theory in economics (Kahneman et al., 1997). Economists define utility as the experience of feelings and emotions or the experience of pleasure and pain (Bentham, 1789), resulting from the outcome of a choice (Ettema et al., 2010). Along the stages of consumption, utility is categorized into: anticipated, experienced, and remembered utility (Kahneman et al., 1997). Anticipated utility occurs before a purchase or actual event; experienced utility occurs during an experience; and remembered utility is derived after the experience, reflecting the retrospective evaluation of an outcome. Among them, this study focuses on anticipated and experienced utility, which together form customers’ overall utility on dining experience when receiving a free gift from the restaurant. Adapting Bentham (1789)’s definition, this study defines utility as the experience of pleasure or pain deriving from a dining occasion in which a customer receives a complimentary reward from the restaurant. Specifically, anticipated utility refers to pleasurable experience from expecting the future consumption of a free gift. Experience utility represents pleasurable experience derived from the current consumption of the gift in a real time. Since gift receipts are deemed to be associated with positive emotions rather than negative emotions, both anticipated and experience
utility are defined as pleasure experiences.

First, anticipation involves a forward-looking behavior (Elster & Loewenstein, 1992; Loewenstein, 1987). Elster and Loewenstein (1992) proposed two mechanisms, namely consumption effect and contrast effect, to examine how anticipation affects individuals’ present utility by intensifying hedonic experience. Whereas the consumption effect pertains to anticipatory savoring, which refers to immediate pleasure derived from the anticipation of a future positive event, the contrast effect concerns a comparison between the present and anticipated better future. Further, which effect prevails is determined depending on how future experiences vividly can be imagined. Anticipation research so far has been focusing on anticipation of future consumption, paying less attention to that of current consumption. For example, anticipating an upcoming positive experience can make a waiting time more pleasant (Kumar, Killingsworth, & Gilovich, 2014). Since consumers consume their expectations (Kumar et al., 2014), they can also derive utility from ongoing experience. We focus on a free gift as a marketing strategy in order to investigate how savoring an anticipated free gift influences customer’s overall service experience. We propose that overall customer satisfaction is enriched by pleasure experience from both anticipating a free gift and a future purchase that a customer will pay for. In this study, anticipation is expected to occur when a free gift is notified in advance (i.e. pre-informed free gift) to customers when they make a dinner reservation online.

Second, surprise can be regarded as the opposite of anticipation. Surprise is a functional emotion (Reisenzein & Studtmann, 2007); It becomes positive (e.g., delight) or negative emotions depending on the event (Kim & Mattila, 2013). Consumers experience surprise when encountering schema-discrepant or unexpected events (Horstmann, 2006). They use schemas, their knowledge structures as “informal, unarticulated theories about objects, situations, and events” (Meyer et al., 1997, p.253) as reference points to assess and compare experienced events. When a schema-discrepant or unexpected event occurs, one encounters an interruption of mental processing, from which a feeling of surprise arises (Meyer et al., 1997).

Surprise has been studied in various unanticipated service instances such as in-store instant coupons and gift giving (Vanhamme & de Bont, 2008). In-store instant coupons increase sales by eliciting positive feelings about the unexpected event, thereby leading to spend more (Heilman, Nakamoto, & Rao, 2002). Likewise, gifts can evoke recipients’ pleasure, which may be further amplified by its unexpectedness (Vanhamme & de Bont, 2008). The amplification property explains that in comparison to non-surprising, surprising elements during service experience intensify customers’ assessments of the service (Vanhamme & Snelders, 2003). This is because the abnormality of an event enhances the affective response to the event (Kahneman & Miller, 1986). As such, surprise can amplify accompanying emotions (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Many studies have shown that surprise has positive effects on delight, customer satisfaction and word-of-mouth (e.g., Kim & Mattila, 2010). We suggest that surprise can be the lack of anticipation or the full of un-expectedness. And thus, its essence might not create anticipated utility toward future experiences since it does not give a chance to savor in advance. Accordingly, we propose that overall customer satisfaction and delight are enriched by the amplified emotions from a surprise experience as opposed to a known gift-receiving one.
Consumption Occasion

Customer evaluations of the restaurant service can be affected by the consumption occasion. Consumption occasion is divided into ordinary (i.e., regular dinner with family and friends) or special (i.e., birthday, wedding anniversary, or holiday) (Zauberman, Ratner, & Kim, 2008; Wildschut et al., 2006). The context of special consumption often involves “interactions with important others (e.g., friends, family, loved ones) or momentous events (e.g., graduation, anniversary, the birth of a child)”, therefore, people desire to remember the special moment (Wildschutt et al., 2006, p.988). People memorize special life events through material and experiential purchases as a way of meaningful connections over time (Goodman, Malkoc, & Stephenson, 2016). Chun and Hiang (2016) argued that tangible objects play an important role as a memory maker to help them recall special experiences and evoke memories of places, times, and people. Based on the literature, we assume that those in special occasions are likely to enrich ongoing experiences to enhance their ability to recall previous memories in the future. Accordingly, this study investigates whether the customers’ tendency in a special consumption occasion might have a difference on free gift preferences when compared to customers in ordinary consumption occasions. In this sense, we predict that whether the consumption occasion is ordinary or special has a differential impact on which timing of a free gift will be more preferred and how the free offering, in turn, influences customers’ overall utility and evaluations. We see whether how the tendency for memory in a special occasion affect free gift preferences.

The Proposed Model

The affect-as-information theory (Schwarz, 1990) provides a mechanism to explain how a free gift offered by a restaurant might influence customers’ emotions and in turn judgments such as satisfaction and behavioral intention (i.e. word-of-mouth). The theory states that customers use their affective reactions to make judgments by asking themselves, ‘How do I feel about it?’ (Schwarz & Clore, 1988, 1996). They often draw on their feelings toward objects and situations as informational inputs to judgments such as satisfaction and liking (Schwarz & Clore, 1996). The variable of overall utility captures customers’ emotions in this study.

Taken together, we expect that the timing difference of whether a restaurant offers a free gift as a surprise or informs customers in advance to give them the chance to pleasurably anticipate the free offering might result in different customer evaluations. Moreover, such effects can be varied by the customer’s consumption occasion in which ordinary dining occasions (e.g., regular dinner with family and friends) tend to involve less affective sharing than special ones (e.g., birthday, wedding anniversary, or holiday) (Zauberman et al., 2009). Taken together, we propose a conceptual model and propositions following:

P1. On ordinary consumption occasion, pre-informed (vs. surprise) free gifts are preferred and anticipation of the free gifts before consumption enhances consumer’s overall utility about the dining experience, which in turn lead satisfaction with restaurant service and word-of-mouth intention.

P2. On special consumption occasion, surprise (vs. pre-informed) free gifts are preferred and enhance consumer’s overall utility about the dining experience, which in turn lead satisfaction with restaurant service and word-of-mouth intention.
Fig 1. A conceptual model

![Diagram]

**Conclusion**

We aim to enrich the current knowledge of complimentary gifts as a customer service strategy in hospitality by developing a conceptual model illustrating key factors. Future research is necessary to confirm or disconfirm the model and address further variables relevant to this to fill in the remaining gaps.

**Reference**


Scarcity messages: Does it impact on customers’ purchase intention in restaurant setting?

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Hyung-Min Choi
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Introduction

A fierce competition of the restaurant market is in part attributed to little growth of the number of new restaurant businesses as well as the high rates of business failures (Judkis, 2017). Sales promotion tools can be used as one of the important strategies that make restaurants viable in this competitive landscape. Particularly, restaurant operators have traditionally and widely used price discounts and coupons as their primary sales promotion tools due to the easy to use feature in the small and medium-sized restaurant settings (Varadarajan, 1984). Furthermore, some restaurant companies apply scarcity messages to their price discount, showing restriction on available time or quantity. For example, Starbucks, a worldwide coffee shop brand, used to offer the “Friends & Family Deal” which provided 30% discount off to their customers and was only valid on specific time periods for three days. In addition, Lotteria, one of the most popular quick-service restaurant brands in South Korea, carried out a promotion to sell a brand-new sandwich with only 50 cents, and the promotion was benefited to the first 100 customers only.

Even though the restaurant companies are currently offering a variety of discounts with scarcity messages, hospitality academics have limited knowledge about the effectiveness of the quantity and time restrictions. Some scholars demonstrated that the quantity limitation effectively stimulated product sales, and promotional restrictions exhibited positive impact on purchase intentions at high discount levels rather than at low discount levels (Aguirre-Rodriguez, 2013; Inman, Peter, & Raghubir, 1997; Suri & Monroe, 2003). However, regardless of the prevalence of scarcity studies in various fields, a dearth of research has been conducted that not only examines the effects of scarcity messages on customers’ purchase intentions in the restaurant setting but also compares the effects by the type of message. This gap leaves room for more empirical studies. Thus, the objective of this study is to ascertain the relative effectiveness of scarcity messages on purchase intentions. Specifically, the researchers, by using an experimental research method, compare the effects of scarcity messages between time-limitation and quantity-limitation on customers’ purchase intention in the restaurant setting.

Hypotheses development

Previous studies on scarcity messages show that restricted messages can positively affect consumer purchase behavior. Specifically, regarding the time-limited studies, Imman and McAlister (1994) demonstrated that the redemptions of the coupons increase around the expiration date as customers try to avoid losing expired coupons. Aggarwal and Vaidyanathan
(2003) show that time-limited promotions (such as “store coupons”) accelerate purchases. Time-limited nature of promotions (such as “10 Hours Only Sale”) influences purchase willingness. Moreover, in accordance with quantity-limited studies, Imman et al. (1997) verified that product sales were positively affected by the purchase quantity limit, and quantity limits and time limits were assessed to be higher than the unrestricted control situation when discount level is high. Wansink, Kent, and Hoch (1998) also show that among three limit levels (i.e., no-limit, 4-limit, and 12 limit per person), consumers in the limit of 12 condition purchase much larger quantities than consumers in other conditions. This result was consistent with the study of Inman et al. (1997), in which they argue that purchase quantity limits significantly promote sales compared to no-limit situation. Consequently, the researchers would expect that scarcity messages (i.e., limited-time scarcity: LTS and limited-quantity scarcity: LQS) on sales promotion products would be significantly different from the no-scarcity messages in the sales effectiveness. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H1:** Compared with no-scarcity message on sales promotion products, scarcity messages on sales promotion products (LTS and LQS) would have different effects on consumer purchase intentions.

Interestingly, Aggarwal, Jun, and Huh (2011) conducted a new experiment on the scarcity message in their study. They make comparisons between time-limited and quantity-limited, as well as between restricted and unrestricted situation, and argue that sales promotion effects are different between LTS and LQS. For example, LQS is more competitive than LTS because LQS is limited to the sales portions, whereas LTS is not restricted by the quantity of the offers but only by the exact time limit. Therefore, consumers find LQS more attractive than LTS. Furthermore, their empirical studies show that LTS and LQS are significantly different in mean purchase intention score and the LTS situation leads to a lower mean purchase intention score than the LQS. In sum, a decisive difference between LTS and LQS is that consumers feel more competitive with other consumers when sales promotion is limited by quantity than when sales promotion is limited by time. Thus, the researchers expect that LQS is more expensive and unique than LTS. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H2:** Compared with LTS on sales promotion products, LQS on sales promotion products would have different effects on consumer purchase intentions.

**Methods**

**Experimental design.** The experimental research is designed to examine the postulated hypotheses. After through three sequential pilot studies, the study stimuli that consist of a 20 percent price discounts and two valid scarcity messages (2 hours only: LTS; the first 30 items only: LQS) were secured. The researchers develop three types of poster advertisements as research stimuli that are similar to actual advertisements of restaurant. Two types of posters include manipulated scarcity messages: “first 30 items only (limited-quantity scarcity: LQS)” and “for 2 hours only (limited-time; LTS)”. The other type of poster does not have any scarcity message for the control situation. Price discount rate will be equally 20 percent for each condition.

**Research procedure.** Three experimental conditions: control, LQS (first 30 items only), LTS (for 2 hours only) between-subject experimental design are set up, using a short-written
scenario accompanied by fictional advertisements. At the first stage, the researchers recruit at least 90 voluntary participants for the experiment and randomly assign them to each experimental condition group and the control group. At the second stage, voluntary participants are told that the bakery cafe would sell its products through the event that is assumed to be a fictional sales promotion. As the third stage, each promotion poster is presented to each group. As the last stage, all the participants assess their purchase intentions. This study adapts purchase intention measures from from Bagozzi, Belanche, Casaló, and Flavián (2016) that consists of three items with five-point Likert type scale.

Data analysis. The researchers utilize SPSS for Windows version 22.0 to analyze the data. For a more detailed analytics process, the researchers employ a cross tabulation test to not only summarize the respondents’ demographic but to also identify those equivalence between three groups. After validity and reliability test, the postulated hypotheses are examined by one-way ANOVA. In this step, a normality and an equality of variances are diagnosed. Also, a post-hoc comparison with Tukey is carried out to identify which group is higher in their purchase intentions.

Expected implications

Our findings may show which scarcity message is more efficient in discount promotion. These findings could provide restaurant operators an appropriate strategy for sales promotions in small and medium-sized restaurant. Specifically, if all the hypotheses would be strongly supported, it implies that the restaurant managers should adopt limited-time or limited-quantity promotion effectively depending on the various competitive situations of the restaurant. For example, restaurants could use limited-time appeals to test new menu ideas, build brand awareness and even create buzz in the community. Furthermore, the findings of the current study would contribute to the academics to providing the evidence that which scarcity message among limited-quantity and limited-time scarcities is more effective when a restaurant offers a discount sales promotion. After this research, many follow-up studies could be conducted to apply or extend the findings into the various restaurant settings such as a full-service restaurant, a sports bar and a coffee shop.

References


The glass ceiling: How it is perceived and how it affects work engagement among South Korean hotel employees

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Introduction

Employment and the social engagement of women are now natural phenomenon unlike in the past, and they play a big role in society (Gutek, Cohen, & Tsui, 1996; Powell & Butterfield, 2015). In addition, although the proportion of women in roles above the level of middle manager is increasing, there are still many invisible barriers - glass ceilings - in many organizations (Santero-Sanchez, Segovia-Pérez, Castro-Nuñez, Figueroa-Domecq, & Talón-Ballestero, 2015). Among service industries, the hotel industry is one of the industries with a high rate of employment for female employees, and it is representative of labor-intensive industries (Walsh & Fleming, 2014). Also, the hospitality and tourism area is generally known to offer a lower quality of employment opportunities than other industries because of the characteristics of the industry (Santero-Sanchez et al., 2015). For instance, the hospitality industry has to address the need for workers on a 24-hour basis by offering lower salaries (Ashley & Mitchell, 2009; Brown, Arendt, & Bosselman, 2014; Lacher & Oh, 2012). As a result, the hospitality industry faces a worldwide shortage of skilled staff (Lacher & Oh, 2012).

According to the theories of patriarchy, it is suggested that women’s access to top management positions is restricted because of male decision makers’ preference to maintain power and authority over women (Feldman, 2001). Based on these theories, it is not surprising that there are differences in perceptions of the glass ceiling between men and women. However, there are few qualitative studies of the glass ceiling. Historically, the issue of female representation in the executive ranks of the hospitality industry has largely been ignored (Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999). In addition, most of the current research is directed at women in the executive ranks (Powell & Butterfield, 2015; Wesarat & Mathew, 2017).

Today, however, many employees are highly educated compared to the past, and therefore employees are much more sensitive to these problems (Mirowsky, 2017). Most importantly, in order to satisfy the guests coming to a hotel, it is important how well the hotel staff thinks of the hotel (Reid & Bojanic, 2009). Those who directly contact the customer are front-line employees and therefore their perception is very important (Brotherton, 2015). That is why it is not a problem for senior management women but a problem for front-line employees (Cho, Lee, & Jung, 2014). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to find out what the hotel staff is really feeling about the glass ceiling and whether there are differences between the male and female staff. Also, this study will examine how an employee’s perception of the glass ceiling affects work engagement.
Literature Review and Hypothesis

Glass Ceiling

In 1986, the Wall Street Journal had a special issue devoted to the phenomenon of women being constrained by corporate traditions or prejudices in promotion to higher positions (Cooper Jackson, 2001). Nowadays, the term “glass ceiling” refers to the phenomenon in which an invisible barrier exists for a female employee compared to a male coworker with equal competence in the areas of promotions, wages, and treatment (Cho et al., 2014). In particular, South Korea has the lowest score of glass ceiling index, which means female employees have less chances of equal treatment than male at workplace (Economist, 2016). Therefore, this study focuses on the Korean hotel industry, in which the glass ceiling is the most severe.

Work Engagement

Work engagement and job engagement are similar concepts and it is a constructive concept originally established by Kahn (1990). Kahn (1990) did not use the term work engagement in qualitative research on personal engagement. However, since the scholars cited his article as a study of the concept of work engagement, Khan (1990) is a pioneer in work engagement. Recently, work engagement has become more and more important in the field of psychology (Vecina, Chacón, Sueiro, & Barrón, 2012). Generally, work engagement is the opposite of work exhaustion (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Work engagement refers to a positive status of mind at one’s workplace (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Moreover, researchers found that work engagement is a significant preliminary variable for the success of a hotel (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009). Based on past studies showing the negative relationship between glass ceiling and work engagement, this study used work engagement as the outcome variable.

In this study, we set up the perception of a glass ceiling as an independent variable by examining previous studies related to the relationship between a glass ceiling and work engagement, and it is expected that each gender has a different perspective of the glass ceiling.

Figure 1 Proposed Research Model

Hypothesis 1: There are different perceptions of the glass ceiling between genders.
Hypothesis 2: The perception of glass ceiling negatively affects hotel employees’ work engagement.

Methods

Sample and Procedures. In order to investigate the potential barriers in the work environment and identify appropriate strategies to overcome such barriers in a hotel, the authors
employed a quantitative research strategy and collected data from 200 hoteliers working in South Korea. The sample was of 196 valid observations that were retained for further data analysis (table 1).

Table 1. Demographic Profile of Respondents (n=196)

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<td>19</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's degree</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>F&amp;B</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate degree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>Back Office</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>24.5</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
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<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total | 196 | 100 |

Measures. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first part assessed employee perception of a glass ceiling. The second part measured employee work engagement. The third part was about demographic information. The survey instrument was pre-tested on a small-size sample of a hospitality graduate student and professor. The pilot test did not reveal any issues. A five-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) was used to measure glass ceiling and work engagement. Prior conducting the research, the study was approved by IRB at University of Tennessee.

Glass ceiling. The 12-items of glass ceiling were obtained from Chang and Chang (2007)’s study. Sample items include, “our hotel prefers men to women when recruiting staff”, and “our hotel has less opportunity in training for women than men.” (α=.92)

Work engagement. The five-item scale from Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) was used to measure work engagement. Sample items include, “I am passionate in performing my duty”, “I am deeply into my work”, “My work is very meaningful and valuable”, “My tasks make me work hard”, and “I’m proud of my work.” (α=.89)

Results

The hypothesized model was examined using SPSS version 23. It was hypothesized that the mean of the perceptions of glass ceiling for each the gender would not be equal. More specifically, using the theory of patriarchy, it was hypothesized that the mean of the glass ceiling scores for the male group would be lower than the mean of the scores for the female group. However, non-directional hypotheses were tested, because a difference in either direction would be important. As predicted, the mean of the glass ceiling perception score for the male group (M = 3.04, SD = 0.90) was lower than for the female group (M = 3.62, SD = 0.65), and the 0.58 difference between the means was statistically significant (t(194) = -5.11, p<0.001, two-tailed, 95% CI [-0.79, -0.34]) (table 2). Therefore, H1 is supported. Also, it was predicted that a hotel employee’s glass ceiling perception is negatively associated with work engagement. Results of
bivariate regression indicated that glass ceiling perception is negatively associated with work engagement ($B = -0.54$, 95% CI [-0.68, -0.43], $r=0.53$, $t(194) = -9.09$, $p<0.001$, two-tailed). That is, as the standardized beta value is -0.543, the increase in the glass ceiling by one unit will decrease the work engagement by -54.3%. Therefore, H2 is also supported (table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Glass Ceiling</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>-5.11</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.05</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Results of bivariate regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.428</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass Ceiling</td>
<td>-0.54</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.543</td>
<td>-9.01</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion and Conclusion

In recent years, increasing numbers of female employees have been reported (Economist, 2016). However, less scholarly attention has been received by them (Cho et al., 2014). Until now, only the top level of female employees got attention from scholars (Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999). Moreover, some scholars have argued that there is no glass ceiling phenomenon (Boone et al., 2013). Therefore, this study examines male employees and bottom-line employees in order to address a gap in previous research.

This research found that women are more likely to feel a glass ceiling than men. In addition, it was found that the greater the perception of glass ceiling, the lower the work engagement. This study’s result is relevant to many previous studies showing that a glass ceiling has negative consequences in work performance (Foley, Kidder, & Powell, 2002; Powell & Butterfield, 2015).

Implication

This research attempted to how hotel employees perceived the glass ceiling at their work place and how the perception of glass ceiling affected their intention to work engagement. This study contributes significant theoretical implications by first attempting to examine the front-line employee’s perception of glass ceiling in the hotel industry. More importantly, women have significantly higher perception of glass ceiling than man in working place. Consistent with past results (Mooney & Ryan, 2009; Purcell, 1996), glass ceiling created a negative atmosphere and climate inside the organization. Consequently, it is very important to create a working atmosphere that supports the employee’s career and ensures employees do not feel any barriers for their career. Therefore, human resource department should evaluate the working environment including level of perceived glass ceiling to motivate their employees are more likely to engage in their work. Then employees can create more effective business performance by promoting their own growth and the company’s growth. It is difficult to get rid of this glass ceiling phenomenon in a short time, but it is important to build a strategy step by step.
Limitations and Future Research

There are several limitations in this study that need to be acknowledged. However, these limitations can serve as avenues for future studies. First, the study used the aggregated measures of glass ceiling perception, considering that each dimensions of a glass ceiling (i.e., promotion, training opportunity) may have different impacts on work engagement. Second, the generalizations of the finding are limited to hotels in South Korea. Future research that expands this study into a wider range of geographic settings and cultural contexts will identify new aspects unique to those contexts. Last, this study focuses only on the differences between men and women with regard to glass ceiling perception, but it can be analyzed more by comparing the employees by department and position.

References


The practice of sustainability in the hospitality and tourism industry

Craig R. Marshall, DBA
East Carolina University

An increasing number of hospitality organizations are recognizing the benefits of going green in hotels (El Dief & Font, 2010; Nicholls & Kang, 2012), in restaurants (Hu, Horng, Teng, & Chou, 2012; Kasim & Ismail, 2012), and in the meeting and convention industry (Russell, 2008). Recent trends have focused on environmental concerns, the use of technology, and the efficient energy usage (Holcomb, Upchurch, & Okumus, 2007).

The benefits of implementing sustainable practices in a location are geared towards a reduction in operating costs, improved energy efficiency, reduction of waste generated, improved relationships with government regulatory agencies, and the possibility of enhanced marketability towards the green consumer. Even though the number of hospitality organization moving towards sustainable practices is increasing, the issue of going sustainable becomes confusing because of all the opinions on what exactly means to implement sustainability in the organization. Numerous manuals and lists have been developed on sustainable practices in the hospitality industry with little to no focus on return on investment, payback periods, initial cost, or the environmental benefits that different sustainable practices might offer an organization.

Literature Review

Sustainability is an ongoing pursuit to establish and maintain conditions under which humans and nature can coexist (Center for Sustainability, 2017) in dynamic harmony. It is not constrained to one industry; it impacts each and every person, business, and all of the environment. Sustainability is a never-ending practice as it is intended to enhance the well-being of people and environment. For a business to be sustainable, three concepts need to take precedence: (1) people, (2) planet, and (3) profit (Center for Sustainability, 2017). The environment and natural resources need to be conserved and protected.

Sustainable practices need to be efficient, feasible, and practical. Through a combination of these criteria, sustainability can be achieved (Center for Sustainability, 2017). Sustainability is often referred to as a wise use of resources. Consequently there are four basic principles of sustainability: (a) holistic planning and strategy making, (b) preservation of essential ecological processes, (c) protection of both human heritage and biodiversity, and (d) productivity. Each can be sustained over the long term for all future generations (WCED, 1987). Werbach (2009) discussed the four components of a true sustainability program as:

1. Social – conditions that affect the organization and community, examples are poverty, violence, injustice, or education;
2. Economic – assist the community and people to meet economic needs, which then affects the social component;
3. Environmental – initiatives that ensure the environment will be sustained for future generations, and;
4. Cultural – the idea of protecting the identities of communities and people, thus relating back to the social component.
Hoteliers have an industry association that has established a framework for best sustainable practices. The American Hotel and Lodging Association (AH&LA) began their sustainability initiative in 1996. The initial impetus was placed on towel and linen reuse by their guests. In 2005, AH&LA created the Green Task Force and issued a policy statement and a framework for best practices (AH&LA, 2013). Kimpton Hotels, a California based company was also an early adopter of sustainability. According to a study by Butler (2008), Kimpton had 16% of their guests stay because of its eco-friendly stance.

In regards to the physical structure of facilities, the hotel industry has two certifications. The first one is Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED). LEED has developed a point rating system targeted to the building’s structure (Green Building Council, 2017). The second organization for sustainability is Energy Star, which was started by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA). Their program started in 1991 with a focus on efficiency in commercial lighting. In 2002, the EPA teamed with the United States Department of Energy to focus on industrial, commercial, and residential buildings, factories, and appliances. The mission was to save money through lower energy bills and to protect the environment through energy efficient products and practices. As of 2016, only 9.2% of United States hotels track their energy performance via EPA’s Portfolio Manager. It is possibly higher since there are other organizations tracking energy performance. (US EPA, 2017).

Also embracing sustainability, the food service industry places value on green practices and has several certification programs. Some examples are the National Restaurant Association (NRA), the Green Restaurant Association, Sustainable Foodservice Consulting, the Green Food Service Alliance, as well as a component of LEED. In 2008, the NRA started the Conserve Initiative to establish standards for environmental responsibility (NRA, 2017).

The Green Restaurant Association is a non-profit organization that helps food service providers become more sustainable and more environmentally friendly. Food service providers can become certified in 7 categories: (a) water efficiency, (b) waste reduction and recycling, (c) sustainable durable goods and building materials, (d) sustainable food, (e) energy, (f) reusable and environmentally preferable disposables, and (g) chemical and pollution reduction (Green Restaurant Association, 2017).

Sustainability in the meeting, special event, and convention section is a continuing trend. According to the Convention Industry Council’s (2004) Green Meeting Report, “A green meeting or event incorporates environmental considerations to minimize its negative impact on the environment” (p. 3). The two major benefits are the economic bottom line and the environmental bottom line. In May of 2016, the Green Meeting Industry Council (GMIC) merged into a subsection of the Convention Industry Council (CIC). The CIC is the preeminent organization representing this sector (CIC, 2016).

Methods

The purpose of this research is to take the previously identified top 59 best practices and survey members in the hospitality industry to identify the top 25 most important practices hospitality organizations can implement concerning environmental impact and applicability. This may allow for a better understanding of what can (and cannot) be accomplished in regards to sustainable practices in hospitality.

Hospitality general managers and managers will be the targeted population. The survey instrument will be administered through Qualtrics. Each question on the survey will require two
inputs. One input will ask the participant the importance of the sustainable item based on the following scale: not important, limited importance, moderate important, considerable important, and essential. The second input will ask the participant about the adoption of the sustainable item based on the following scale: not practical, slightly practical, moderately practical, very practical, and extremely practical. The sustainable practices relate to the following areas: 1) greenhouse gas emissions, 2) freshwater consumption, 3) energy conservation, 4) sustainable education, and 5) community involvement. Once the results are received a scatter plot will be used to analyze the data to determine the top 25 sustainable practices with the hope of 100% implementation in hospitality organizations in an attempt to reduce the organization’s environmental impact.

Discussion and Implications

The significance of this research intends to identify the 25 most important practices for hospitality businesses to implement from the perspective of both the environmental benefits of implementing the practices and the applicability of hospitality/tourism organizations. Organizations for certifications in the hotel industry include Green Seal, Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design, and Energy Star (Butler, 2008). Organizations for sustainable practices in the restaurant industry include National Restaurant Association’s Conserve Initiative, Green Restaurant Association, and Green Food Service Alliance (National Restaurant Association, 2015).

Focusing on sustainability, this research took a holistic approach to the idea of sustainability. The focus of this research was not on one specific dimension of hospitality, but rather on the larger umbrella of tourism. Sustainable practices are very practical across numerous businesses, not just the hospitality business. Hopefully this research will help many organizations start their discussion on sustainability.

The financial impact of implementing sustainable practices was not a priority of this research. When the organization considers implementing sustainable practices it should consider the initial investment and potential return on the investment (ROI). Adding solar panels is a sizable upfront cost, which could take years for the savings to equate to the initial investment. Many of the 59 items listed in the survey questions might be more appealing to operators since the practice could be implemented with little or no initial investment and provide instant savings to the organization, for example using old sheets and towels as cleaning rags.

The main purpose of this research is to offer hospitality organizations a way to offer and promote practical sustainable practices, which allows the organizations to show consumers that organizations promote, care, and improve the environment in which they operate. Implementing for the sole purpose of attracting publicity is not the right strategy, and implementing a sustainable program should align with the organizations strategic vision. The results of this research will guide organizations on starting and or enhancing their current sustainable program.

Limitations

The data to complete this research will be collected from hospitality general managers and managers throughout the hospitality industry. Because the survey contains 59 items and two inputs are needed for each item, it may cause some participants to experience a bias, such as central tendency, immediacy, rater knowledge about each criteria, or boredom with the length of the survey. With this limitation in mind Qualtrics is being used for ease of distribution to the
participants. Since it is internet based, it should make it easier and more efficient for the participant to complete the survey.

References


Too girly to order? Exploring gender-based stereotypes about alcoholic beverages

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Murray State University

Marissa Orlowski, Ph.D.
University of Central Florida

INTRODUCTION

“10 rules of drinking like a man #1 no vodka”. “7 cocktails for women who like girly drinks”. “10 drinks guys order and the secret judgments girls are making”. And the list goes on, should one choose to scour the Internet for advice on what (or what not) to drink, when to drink it, and whether one should be concerned with what their drink order might reveal about themselves. Indeed, several academic studies have demonstrated that when it comes to food, the choices we make signal gender identity and manage impressions (Herman, Roth, and Polivy, 2003; Vartanian, Herman, & Polivy, 2007, Vartanian, 2015). When someone conforms to gender-based food stereotypes (i.e. meat for men and salad for women), they appear as more masculine or more feminine in social situations. But what about beverages? Vartanian et al. (2007) noted the need to understand the impact of gender stereotypes in other realms of consumption behavior, such as drinking, yet subsequent research has remained focused on food. Thus, the aim of this study is to explore gender-based beverage stereotypes across the dimensions of product, name, and description.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gender-based stereotypes of food

Masculinity and femininity have consistently been associated with the types of foods that people consume (e.g. meat is masculine, vegetables and sweets are feminine) (O’Doherty, Jensen, & Holm, 1999; Rozin, Hormes, Faith, & Wansink, 2012). Masculine and feminine associations with specific foods also stem from health values and beliefs regarding “good” versus “bad” foods in terms of calories and fat content, with “good” foods perceived as more feminine (Oakes, 2004). Further, research has shown that gender-based stereotypes about food are generally shared by both men and women (Mooney & Lorenz, 1997; Kimura et al., 2012; Rozin et al., 2012) and by both Western and Eastern cultures (Kimura et al., 2009, 2012).

A corollary of the gender-based stereotypes associated with food is the impact awareness of such stereotypes has on consumption behaviors. As noted by Herman et al., (2003), the desire to convey a certain impression to others has a considerable influence on people’s food choices. Over the course of time and socialization, individuals learn what is “appropriate” for their gender regarding food choices (Rolls, Federoff, & Guthrie, 1991), and thus can make decisions that serve to portray masculine or feminine identities (Sobal, 2005). Additionally, food choices can allow individuals to separate, or disassociate, themselves from a non-congruent gender group (Gal & Wilkie, 2010; White & Dahl, 2006).
Gender-based stereotypes of alcoholic beverages

Academic literature focused on gender-based stereotypes in the context of alcoholic beverages is underexplored. Barber, Almanza, and Donovan (2006) found that, in the United States, wine is generally perceived as a feminine beverage. In another study of wine, Barber (2009) incorporated gender differences, but focused on how men and women differ in terms of information processes and decision-making and the corresponding impact on purchasing behaviors. In other words, the extent to which wine might be perceived as feminine, and whether that resulted in differing purchasing behaviors for men versus women, was not addressed in Barber’s (2009) study.

McKeithan’s (2012) narrative on bourbon and the South offers insight into gender-based stereotypes and alcohol, specifically as it relates to associations with masculinity. Other spirit categories have anecdotal gender associations. Armagnac is more masculine, whereas cognac is more feminine due to its softer palate and fruiter, more floral notes. (Magyarics, 2013). Modern gin styles, which have floral and citrus notes, can be characterized as feminine while traditional, juniper-forward gins can be characterized as masculine (Beaumont, 2010). Collectively, this led us to postulate that gender impressions of alcohol might be present for a variety of spirits, which could in turn influence consumption behaviors. We also postulated that gender impressions of an alcoholic beverage could manifest from a variety of sources in a consumptive experience, such as the beverage’s name or description on a menu.

METHODS

Design and sample

An exploratory study was conducted to assess gender-based stereotypes of (1) spirits used in alcoholic beverages and (2) beverage names. Two hundred participants were recruited through the online crowdsourcing website Amazon Mechanical Turk (mTurk), which research has shown provides high quality data with a generalizable sample (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013). At the start of the study participants were told they would “be provided with menu descriptions (the name or list of ingredients) for a series of beverages,” and “after each description you will be asked a series of evaluative questions.”

To assess gender-based associations with specific spirits, six of the most commonly ordered spirits were selected: whiskey, bourbon, vodka, tequila, gin, and rum (Ngo, 2017). Each spirit was included as part of a menu description written in an ingredient-list format, with no other descriptive words. To keep the menu descriptions as similar, yet realistic, as possible, lime/lemon juice and simple syrup were used as the modifying ingredients accompanying the spirit in each. For the gender-based associations with beverage names, a set of real but uncommon cocktail names was selected (e.g. Controlled Burn, After the Luau).

Measures

Two items were used to assess gender-based stereotypes of spirits, measured on a 7-point scale (1 = very masculine, 7 = very feminine) and averaged to form an index of masculine/feminine associations for each of the menu description conditions and each of the menu name conditions (all alphas > 0.90). A third gender association item asked “Based on the description/name, who do you think is more likely to order this beverage?” (-3 = Men, 3 = Women). Prior to analysis, this item was recoded so that scale points ranged from 1 – 7, with higher scores associated to women.

Demographics regarding age and sex concluded the questionnaire.
RESULTS

Of the 200 responses collected, 195 successfully completed the study and the embedded attention check measure. The usable sample was 70.3% women aged 18-75 (M = 37.5, SD = 12.58). One-way repeated-measures ANOVAs were conducted for all analyses and, as the Mauchly’s test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated in each analysis, multivariate results are reported (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2010). Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach’s alpha values for the gender associations index are reported for spirits and cocktails in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively, at the end of this paper.

Gender-based stereotypes of spirits. The results show that gender associations were significantly affected by the type of spirit listed in the cocktail, Wilks’ Lambda = 0.48, F(5, 190) = 41.38, p < .001, multivariate partial $\eta^2$ = 0.52. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni adjustment indicated that the mean scores for bourbon (M = 3.01) and whiskey (M = 2.81), while not significantly different from each other, were significantly lower than the tequila, gin, vodka, and rum conditions, indicating associations with masculinity. Conversely, the mean score for vodka (M = 4.32) was significantly higher than all conditions except tequila. The tequila (M = 4.10), gin (M = 3.39), and rum (M = 3.94) conditions did not significantly differ from each other. The results also show a significant effect of spirit type on gender-based assumptions regarding purchasing/ordering behavior, Wilks’ Lambda = 0.44, F(5, 190) = 48.75, p < .001, multivariate partial $\eta^2$ = 0.56. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni adjustment indicated significant differences among the mean scores for all six conditions. The mean scores for whiskey (M = 2.71) and bourbon (M = 3.01) were the lowest, and the mean scores for tequila (M = 4.27) and vodka (M = 4.55) were the highest.

Gender-based stereotypes of cocktail names. The results show that gender associations were significantly affected by the cocktail name, Wilks’ Lambda = 0.25, F(5, 190) = 111.84, p < .001, multivariate partial $\eta^2$ = 0.75. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were examined using the Bonferroni adjustment. Except for two pairs (Controlled Burn & Need for Speed; Gangster of Love & Flyby), significant differences were found between all pairs of conditions. The mean scores for Need for Speed (M = 2.63) and Controlled Burn (M = 2.73) were the lowest, and the mean scores for After the Luau (M = 5.34) and Ginger’s Pear-adise (M = 5.68) were the highest. The results also show a significant effect of cocktail name on gender-based assumptions regarding purchasing/ordering behavior, Wilks’ Lambda = 0.25, F(5, 190) = 48.75, p < .001, multivariate partial $\eta^2$ = 0.75. Again, except for the same two pairs (Controlled Burn & Need for Speed; Gangster of Love & Flyby), significant differences were found between all pairs of conditions. The mean scores for Need for Speed (M = 2.66) and Controlled Burn (M = 2.78) were the lowest, and the mean scores for After the Luau (M = 5.42) and Ginger’s Pear-adise (M = 5.80) were the highest.

DISCUSSION

Taken together, our findings provide empirical evidence of gender-based stereotypes for spirits and for cocktail names on beverage menus, and for congruency between stereotype and expected purchasing behavior. In regard to spirits, bourbon and whiskey were the most masculine, and were also more strongly associated with male consumers. Vodka was the most feminine, and was most associated with female consumers. Gin, rum, and tequila appeared to be more gender-neutral; while rum and tequila may require further inquiry, the results for gin are supported by the earlier discussion that gender perceptions of gin are dependent on gin style (Beaumont, 2010). As
our study did not differentiate among gin styles or provide detailed flavor profiles in the menu description, respondents may not have derived a distinct gender association.

For the cocktail names, the two names perceived as the most masculine were Controlled Burn and Need for Speed, both of which evoke associations with “male” activities, such as firefighting and racing. Conversely, the names perceived to be the most feminine were After the Luau and Ginger’s Pear-adise. In addition to the tropical images conjured by these names, Ginger’s Pear-adise had a reference to fruit, which is considered a feminine food (O’Doherty et al., 1999). Like the spirits, the cocktail names most associated with masculinity were also most expected to be ordered by men, and the cocktail names most associated with femininity were most expected to be ordered by women. This offers an interesting implication for managers of bars and restaurants; if consumers gender-stereotype a cocktail solely based on the name, they may not read the corresponding menu description.

TABLES

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for gender-based stereotypes of spirits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Gender Associations Index Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Gender-Based Purchasing Assumptions Mean (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bourbon</td>
<td>3.01 (1.19)</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>3.01 (1.26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whiskey</td>
<td>2.81 (1.28)</td>
<td>0.912</td>
<td>2.71 (1.37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tequila</td>
<td>4.10 (1.07)</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>4.27 (1.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gin</td>
<td>3.79 (1.24)</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td>3.79 (1.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vodka</td>
<td>4.32 (1.22)</td>
<td>0.897</td>
<td>4.55 (1.37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rum</td>
<td>3.94 (1.22)</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>4.06 (1.36)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for gender-based stereotypes of cocktail names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Gender Associations Index Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Gender-Based Purchasing Assumptions Mean (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Controlled Burn</td>
<td>2.73 (1.32)</td>
<td>0.948</td>
<td>2.78 (1.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After the Luau</td>
<td>5.34 (1.09)</td>
<td>0.920</td>
<td>5.42 (1.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gangster of Love</td>
<td>3.36 (1.55)</td>
<td>0.972</td>
<td>3.51 (1.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flyby</td>
<td>3.52 (1.05)</td>
<td>0.930</td>
<td>3.63 (1.05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ginger’s Pear-adise</td>
<td>5.68 (1.13)</td>
<td>0.930</td>
<td>5.80 (1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Speed</td>
<td>2.63 (1.29)</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>2.66 (1.34)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


An analysis of corporate websites to determine what restaurants are doing to promote healthy eating

Borham Yoon, PhD.
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Kyungyul Jun, PhD.
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Introduction

In response to increasing obesity rates and related health issues in the United States, consumers are increasing their awareness about diet and health. This has prompted many restaurants to engage in various healthy food practices, such as sourcing organic or local ingredients, providing gluten-free menus, half-portion sandwiches, and providing information about calories on menu boards (National Restaurant Association [NRA], 2015; 2016). These practices fulfill a public health need. They illustrate to consumers that foodservice businesses are becoming socially responsible (Jones et al., 2006; Maloni & Brown, 2006). These practices differentiate restaurants from their competitors by developing a healthy or sustainable green image (Chen, 2010; Namkung & Jang, 2013).

Despite considerable attention and prevalence of healthy eating discipline, research on what and how the restaurants are doing to promote healthy eating is limited to providing guidelines for researchers and practitioners. Prior studies have focused on only one or two particular types of health areas (e.g., health menu offering, nutrition presentation), which tend to demonstrate fragmented information for restaurant managers. Therefore, two questions emerge: how is the restaurant industry engaging in promoting healthy eating? And which dimensions of their practices can they utilize to create value and management approach? Consequently, this paper aims to identify the practice employed by restaurant companies in promoting healthy eating for consumers based on value chain approach.

Literature Review

Healthy food practices in the restaurant industry

Today, healthy food refers to food considered beneficial to human health and a diet required for nutrition (Wikipedia, 2017). Foods marketers and retailers also promote “healthy” in natural foods, organic foods, whole foods, and vegetarian foods by selling products in health food stores or in the health/organic sections of grocery stores. Similarly, consumers consider the quality of food and ingredients (freshness, natural) the most important characteristics for healthy food (Oakes & Slotterback, 2002).

In the hospitality literature, food-related practices, providing nutrition information, offering healthy options and fresh menu choices have been considered as socially responsible activity to make a better community (Choi & Parsa, 2007; Lee et al., 2014; Namkung & Jang, 2013). However, the existing literature considers the practices as disconnected rather than as systematic and integrated into a management system, and should be further investigated for understanding a more complete picture of how the restaurants promote healthy food.
consumption. Healthy food practices can be viewed as a series of activities taking place in a sequential and a parallel order to produce a healthy product/service to support consumer healthy eating. Hence, this study employs the value chain approach (Porter, 1985) to identify the key practices and processes within in the foodservice industry.

**Value chain approach**

The goal of business is to create value. To understand how businesses attain value creation, Porter (1985) introduced a value chain analysis that describes a series of activities that are required to produce a product/service for consumers. His value chain framework includes five primary activities: inbound logistics, operation, outbound logistics, distribution, and service. Inbound logistics refers to all activates related to receiving, storing, and distributing materials from the suppliers. Operation includes the transformation activities that change inputs into outputs that are sold to customers. Outbound logistics is the process related to the storage and movement of the final product to consumers, such as warehousing and store management. Distribution activity informs buyers about products/services by creating communication and delivering offers to persuade buyers to purchase products. Lastly, service includes the activities related to maintaining or increasing a product’s value such as warranties, repair services, education and updating information.

The original value chain framework was mainly developed for the manufacturing industry, so it has been rarely applied in the service business context. Especially, outbound logistic activity is considered to have no value in its functions in a service industry context, because service cannot be stored or saved like a manufactured product for later use (Nooteboom, 2007). Sharma, Moon, and Stronhbehn (2014) is the only study in the hospitality literature that applied the value chain framework in identifying activities that influence restaurant managers’ decisions to purchase local foods. The authors modified the original value chain dimension with sourcing, operations, and product/service to ensure that these activities are observable. In this sense, restaurant healthy food practice that builds business value can be understood through the value chain approach (i.e. sourcing, production, marketing, and service).

**Method**

This study employed a qualitative content analysis in disclosed restaurant websites to identify healthy food practice and classify each practice into different value chain dimensions. In order to cover a large market and see the difference among the segments, four market segments were selected by the types of product and service: fast food (limited-service), fast-casual, casual, and beverage-snack segments. It selected the top three companies of each segment classified by their revenues according to the top 100 restaurant chins listed in Nations’ Restaurant News (2016). Restaurants’ names were replaced by an acronym represented by its segment (Fast food, Fast-casual, Casual dining, and Beverage-snack). Textual data included restaurants’ websites and downloadable reports and documents regarding a restaurant’s food-related activities. Two researchers independently coded twelve websites and classified each practice into value chain dimensions, sourcing, production, marketing, or service. Inter-rater reliability was 0.83 indicating a high degree of reliability.
Results and Discussion

The content analysis revealed fourteen healthy food practices and each practice was categorized into either “Sourcing”, “Production”, “Marketing”, or “Service” value chain dimensions. Sourcing dimension includes using locally sourced produce, natural ingredients, fresh/seasoned ingredients, and having a partnership with certified suppliers. Production refers to the process of menu design, development and cooking activities, and includes offering smaller portion size (e.g., half-sandwiches, smaller-portioned salad, wrap, and rolls), and changing cooking methods which require less oil, such as grilling, baking, steaming, or wok-based cooking rather than frying. As a marketing activity, restaurants provide a health-conscious menu, such as offering low-calories, low-fat, low-sodium menus, gluten-sensitive options, and vegetarian menus to attract health-conscious customers. Some restaurants create a special sign/logo/symbol to promote their healthier product (e.g., Weight Watchers sign and Lighter Fare logo). The practices related to providing nutrition information, general health information guide, and disclosing a company’s food policy or reports for educating consumers are categorized in the service dimension of value chain activity. One casual-dining restaurant provides “Smart Dining Tips” on their website with information about how to choose nutritionally balanced and healthier meals, rather than only focusing on the restaurant’s own menu.

Restaurants tend to implement multiple healthy food practices rather than focusing on a single practice. The most commonly implemented health practice was marketing related practices, so that they can attract health-conscious consumers and promote their menus (NRA, 2016). Restaurants in the fast-casual segment are concentrating on sourcing and service activity. For example, FC2 focuses on communication through their webpage with the customer about what the company’s food mission is, what ingredients they use, and how their ingredients benefit to community and consumer, so that they differentiate their brand and product over other competitors.

In general, production does not appear to be popular in engaging healthy food practice by restaurant chains, except for casual-dining restaurants. It could be explained by different cooking processes and food flow in the different segments of the restaurant industry. A menu item can be created or cooked upon the customer’s request at the casual-dining restaurant, while foods in quick or limited-service restaurants are typically pre-made and hard to change by customer’s request and chef’s authority.

Regarding the service dimension, all sampled restaurants present nutrition-related information to meet the mandatory regulation that makes calorie information available on the menus of chain restaurants having than 20 units (Federal Register, 2014). A majority of restaurants disclose their company’s food policy, reports, or newsletter. Previous studies indicate that large corporations are more likely to report environmental and social issues to ensure positive brand image (Holcomb, Upchurch, & Okumus, 2007). Especially, casual dining restaurants have a partnership with certified healthy eating programs such as ‘Kids Live Well’, ‘Healthier America’, ‘Healthydiningfinder.com.’

Conclusion

The results of this exploratory research present some implications to the academic and practitioner literature. This paper contributes as the first attempt to shed light on the way the
restaurant industry is engaged in healthy issues. Compared with previous studies, this study provides a big picture of healthy food practice based on management application of value chain framework. For practical implication, restaurant executives and managers could employ the results as an assessment/diagnostic tool to identify the main healthy food practice or difficulties to establish an action plan or policies to improve their practice performance. The results could also be employed by restaurants as a set of benchmark practices to improve their own practice performance and competitive position.

Despite the value of the study, this study is subject to limitations. As this is an exploratory research based on a small number of cases, one must be careful in generalizing its results. There is a need for new studies that deepen the results of this study by analyzing more company websites and other company documents. Second, the results reflect the data quality self-reported by each restaurant chain in 2016, which can present some bias compared to organizational reality. Additionally webpage information may be changed and added at any time. These findings of the study are based upon a snapshot of available webpages as of July, 2016. Therefore, future study could extend the data through many communication channels (e.g., news releases, interviews) in a longitudinal manner.

References


Frontline customer service providers: From their own perspectives

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In 2014, the hospitality industry experienced an employee turnover rate of 74.9% (The United States Department of Labor Statistics, 2016). However, despite studies that addressed this phenomenon (Blomme, van Rheede, & Tromp, 2010; Chikwe, 2009; DiPietro & Condly, 2007), the hospitality industry still suffers the highest employee turnover rate of all industry sectors in the United States (Chikwe, 2009). Costs to replace outgoing staff members under these circumstances creates a threat to the survival of many businesses in the hospitality industry. For example, direct costs to replace outgoing employees has been estimated at 150% of outgoing employees’ annual salaries (Alonso & O’Neil, 2011); direct costs are attributed to recruiting, hiring, and on-boarding new staff members (Makhbul, Rahid, & Hasum, 2011). Voluntary employee-organization separation accounts for nearly two thirds of the employee turnover rate in the hospitality industry (The United States Department of Labor Statistics, 2016). However, despite the high turnover rate, a population of frontline customer service providers exists, represented by individuals who achieve tenure and continue to provide consistent, superior levels of customer service, despite burnout and emotional exhaustion.

Studies suggest that these model frontline customer service providers (MFSCPs) maintain their longevity and motivation to perform at high service levels because of the relationships they build in the workplace (Self & Dewald, 2011), yet limited research has been conducted to understand, from the perspectives of model frontline customer service providers, how they maintain their motivation and longevity within their professions. MFSCPs, for the purpose of this study, are defined as frontline customer service providers who, for a minimum of three years, continued to provide superior customer service in their current organizations as documented by awards, recognition, reviews, customer feedback, and secret shopper reports. The primary purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore characteristics (particularly, shared characteristics) of MFCSPs based on the perceptions of members of this population. A better understanding of shared characteristics of MFCSPs may inform hospitality industry managers about choosing, training, and developing right fit talent for their organizations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Larger than the United States’ agriculture, airline, and film industries combined, the hospitality and tourism industry adds more than $1.5 trillion to the nation’s economy and accounts for more than 14 million jobs in the country (Syndor-Bousso, Stafford, Tews, & Adler,
Hospitality industry customers attribute much of the value of their experiences to intangible factors, notably their interactions with FCSPs (Sharon & Goziker, 2011); perhaps the most significant component of organizational competitive advantage is the skills and abilities of FCSPs (Ericson & McCall, 2012; Solnet, 2007; Subhash, 2012).

First impression management becomes a critical component in the hotel sector (Bhumisiriratanavadi, 2012); often customers’ first interaction with a representative of the hotel sector plays out with the hotel front desk clerk (Sharon & Goziker, 2011). The restaurant server, as well, serves as a conduit between their organization and the customer by managing their customers’ experiences (National Restaurant Association, 2013). Theme park attractions attendants, as well, moderate their customers’ loyalty and intent to return (Cheng-Neng, Tai-Kuei, & Jui-Kun, 2010). These FCSP roles are physically and emotionally exhausting (Chikwe, 2009; Muir, 2008; Zahari, Hanafiah, Othman, Jamaluddin, & Zulhifly, 2010); offering little work-life balance in jobs that demand long, seasonally dictated working hours (Blomme et al., 2010; Zahari et al., 2010). Additionally, these roles continue to become more challenging as the diversity of customers’ demands increases (Ali, Afzal, Shazad, & Khan, 2012). These individuals must be able to stay up-to-date on continuously changing banks of operational knowledge (Erickson & McCall, 2012), technologies (Ruzic, Andrlic, & Ruzic, 2011), and the ever-changing behaviors, needs, and demands of their customers.

Literature exists that describes employee behaviors in terms of social identity theory; for example, the manner in which FCSPs identify as members of their organizations has a meaningful impact on individuals’ senses of customer service (Solnet, 2007). Other FCSPs identify strongly with their organizations’ brands (Maxwell & Knox, 2009); organizations that represent distinctive, attractive brands attract candidates who desire membership in the organization and help keep current employees committed to organizational excellence and responsibility (Maxwell & Knox, 2009). Additionally, individuals’ senses of self-worth strengthen when they self-identify as members of organizations they perceive as prestigious (Guerrero & Herrbach, 2009).

METHODOLOGY

This case study incorporated qualitative analysis to gain insight into the lived experiences of MFCSPs in the context of their roles. Purposive sampling processes were used for this study; participants were solicited through public forums, including Craigslist and Facebook. The population was comprised of MFCSPS in the greater Orlando, Florida area; the sample consisted of nine participants (three hotel front desk clerks, three restaurant servers, and three theme park attractions attendants), representing three different sectors of the hospitality industry. Participants were required to supply documentation to verify their tenure (minimum of three years) with their organizations and their commitments to superior customer service (e.g., performance reviews, customer letters). Semi-structured interview questions focused on participants’ experiences and how they self-identify with their roles in the industry. Data analysis processes included the content analysis method and manifest coding of recorded, transcribed one-on-one interviews.
IMPORTANT FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Five primary response categories emerged during data analysis: reasons subjects opted to work in the hospitality industry; reasons subjects remain in their current roles; subjects’ definitions of their role success factors, subjects’ definitions of their role challenges; and subjects’ explanations of how they self-identify as a member of the hospitality industry. Each primary response category was broken down into several secondary response categories. Two sets of response categories were broken down into sets of tertiary response categories to accommodate the diversity of subjects’ responses. Study findings are consistent with existing literature, which provided supporting evidence of positive correlations between employee organizational commitment and employee perception of job empowerment (Kim, Lee, Murrmann, & George, 2012), as well as between job performance and employees’ perceptions of supervisors’ support and leadership styles (Clark, Hartline, & Jones, 2009; Karatepe, 2014).

Participants characterized themselves as individuals who enjoy working in a fun atmosphere, in which building and maintaining personal and professional relationships with customers and partners is paramount. They share a need to make people happy, thriving on challenges inherent in solving their customers’ problems. Participants share a need to improve their customer and guest service recovery skills in an environment in which they are empowered to make business decisions that affect their customers. Each shared a pride for and identification with their organizations and professions, which existed before they began their industry tenure.

The need to feel valued and respected for the work they perform was another shared characteristic of this study’s MFCSP participants. Participants asserted that their commitments to their roles are related to their senses of ownership in their work areas, which is improved when their leaders provide resources and support for the FCSPs. Each participant described his or her belief that his or her ability to build and maintain customer relationships serves as a personal success factor, creating competitive advantage for his or her organization.

Participants in this study share the opinion that they did not appreciate the challenges they would eventually face when they began working in the industry. However, these very challenges serve as stimuli for the MFCSPs participants to remain committed to performing their roles. The results of this study suggest that hiring managers do not recruit nor hire enough candidates who understand fully the expectations of their roles in the industry, which helps to drive the industry’s high turnover rate due to voluntary separation. A recommended practice is to create a more realistic image of role expectations for FCSP candidates; honest conversations and pre-hire experiences (e.g., site visits by candidates) may influence some job candidates to remove themselves from the hiring process voluntarily.

Participant MFCSPs claimed they rely on support from their leaders to teach, guide, and permit them to do what they perceive as the main function of their roles: to create excellent customer experiences. Frustration ensues due to leadership inconsistencies and frustrations about decisions made about their jobs without MFCSP input. An implication of this study is that leaders in the industry do not focus enough on the needs and challenges of the MFCSPs to help drive down the industry’s employee turnover rate. Customer service training should remain constant and leaders should praise and reward their staff for taking the initiative to make customer-centric decisions; additionally, leaders should focus on their own development to learn good delegation and empowerment skills.
REFERENCES


Work-life balance for women in foodservice

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Work-life balance has been described as the balance between the work domain and all other life activities that occur outside of work (Guest, 2002). The focus on balancing life and work highlights the value placed on overall life quality and addresses the fact that increased demands at work are contributing to an imbalance (Guest, 2002; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). Specific to the hospitality industry, research has demonstrated justification for executives to investigate and integrate work-life balance practices in order to remain competitive in the marketplace (Mulvaney, O’Neill, Cleveland, & Crouter, 2007).

Gender roles and differences are pivotal in understanding work-life balance issues (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Literature suggests that women’s experiences of balance differ from men’s (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). When gender roles are considered, research has demonstrated that the differing roles prescribed to men and women are fundamental to the societies from which they stem (Hofstede, 1980). Findings from a study examining gender disparity found work family conflict to be a universal issue among female chefs (Harris & Guiffre, 2010). Specifically, women with children were particularly prone to career change because of the demands of the industry and its effect on home life. Social psychology research has similarly found that in households where there were traditional gender roles, there was an increase in the negative family to work spillover for the women who were employed, whereas in households with shared responsibilities, both work and life satisfaction were positively affected (Roehling, Jarvis, & Swope, 2005).

A series of interviews and focus groups will be conducted with foodservice industry employees. Managers with intimate knowledge of the policies and available work-life balance opportunities of foodservice organizations will be included to gain insight into the official stance of these organizations towards this issue. In addition, women who have specifically faced work-life balance challenges will be included to provide firsthand accounts of the availability, types, and success of work-life balance programs. These focus groups and interviews should provide a multifaceted view of the challenges and opportunities to work-life balance and aid in the promotion and management of programs within the foodservice industry.

Sample interview/focus group questions will include:

1. In what ways are the companies you work/have worked for promoting work-life balance in foodservice?
2. What strategies have been tried, but without success?
3. What strategies have you seen implemented successfully?
4. What specifically can be done to promote work-life balance for women in foodservice?
5. What challenges have you had with maintaining work-life balance?
6. What experiences have you personally had with programs or opportunities designed to assist with issues of work-life balance?
7. What kind of programs or opportunities would help you to gain more work-life balance?
8. What kinds of personal sacrifices have you made in order be successful in the food and beverage industry?

Each participant will be compensated $50 USD for their participation, as previous foodservice studies of this nature advise that compensation should be provided for offsetting the time to participate, especially outside of regular work hours and if travel to the data collection site is required (Arendt, Roberts, Stohbahn, Ellis, Paez & Meyer, 2012; Kitterlin, Moll & Moreno, 2015). The compensation amount was selected to equate to the amount of wages participants may have earned during the 60-minute interview plus travel time to reach the interview location, and cost of transportation to reach the interview location. The National Restaurant Association states that tipped restaurant employees average $16 to $22 per hour (NRA, 2013). Thus, payment for participation was only about $25 more than what they would make spending that hour at work. After factoring in time to travel to the interview site, cost of gas/transportation, and cost of parking, it was determined this was fair compensation.

It is expected that the results of this study may provide new or improved strategies to manage the work-life balance challenge (Guest, 2002; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). First, by identifying ways in which companies are promoting work life balance in foodservice, it is expected that ways in which work-life balance is not being promoted will also reveal themselves. This will enable researchers to highlight best practices and identify areas in which foodservice operators can improve their practices. Second, by discussing unsuccessful strategies, we may highlight not only what practices did not work, but provide information as to why those strategies were unsuccessful. This will enable practitioners to avoid repeating practices that are unsuccessful going forward. Third, we intend to identify additional practices that are not being used that may help promote work-life balance, specifically for women, in the foodservice industry. Due to the long, untraditional hours that are demanded of workers in this industry, it is expected that there are measures companies can implement that will help to foster success for women who have or want families and who also want to thrive in this industry.

Finally, by gaining an understanding of the personal sacrifices made in order to be successful in the foodservice industry, it is expected that additional strategies and practices that facilitate work-life balance may reveal themselves. Previous hospitality studies have revealed personal sacrifices have led to damage in relationships in the past (Hsieh & Eggers, 2010). All of these findings may serve to inform the foodservice industry how to better serve its internal customers, which has been shown to be a concern in the past (O’Neill, 2012) and may increase employee work performance and satisfaction, as well as retention in the future (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008; Timms & Brough, 2012). Enhanced employee performance, satisfaction and retention have been shown to be financially beneficial to the companies (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008; Timms & Brough, 2012).
References


Mapping emotions in a destination: The case of Gatlinburg, Tennessee

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In today’s tourism market, the power of a destination is shown through online reviews. This is because the process of e-WOM is being formed by online reviews. Our study started from the inquisitiveness about how online reviews toward destinations influence tourists and are influenced by tourists. We particularly focus on tourists’ emotions that are expressed within online reviews since many studies have recently proven the effects of tourists’ emotions in tourism (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Hosany, 2012).

Under this purpose, we focus on a specific destination, Gatlinburg in the state of Tennessee, using online reviews from TripAdvisor. TripAdvisor ranked Gatlinburg among the top 5 most “Beautiful Little Mountain Towns” in America and noted that Gatlinburg has characteristics of an incredibly nature-friendly environment underneath the Great Smoky Mountain National Park (TripAdvisor.com, 2016). Besides, this destination offers numerous excellent outdoor activities as well as a variety of facilities, such as an aquarium, arts and crafts community, and the only ski resort among nearby states. As for TripAdvisor, it was evaluated as the most widely recognized and reliable website in terms of travel products and information (TripAdvisor tops Travel Brand Awareness Index, 2014), and its consumer reviews were reported to accurately reflect the tourists’ experiences (Schaal, 2011). In this regard, the present study attempts to classify tourists’ emotions manifested by the TripAdvisor online reviews toward Gatlinburg.

Literature Review

Destination online reviews

Research has shown that online reviews increasingly influence customers’ choices in restaurants, hotels, and destinations (Filieri & McLeay, 2013; Liu & Park, 2015). For this reason, many researchers in hospitality and tourism industries have investigated the impact of online reviews on tourists’ behavioral intentions and decision making. While mentioning the increasing importance of e-WOM and online reviews within tourism services, Sotiriadis and van Zyl (2013) developed a conceptual model for tourists’ digital behavior using Twitter. The authors suggested that online marketing needs to be integrated within the existing communication channels in the tourism industry (Sotiriadis & van Zyl, 2013). Further, Filieri and McLeay (2013) reported that online reviews are an updated version of word-of-mouth, and they were interested in the factors that affect tourists’ information adoption from online reviews. They found that information quality and product ranking is important factors when highly involved travelers process information from online reviews. More recently, Liu and Park (2015) studied the indicators that influence the perceived usefulness of online reviews on travel product websites. While the characteristics of the reviewer and that of a review both positively influenced the perceived
usefulness of consumer reviews, perceived enjoyment and review readability were the most crucial indicators for consumers to make decisions based on travel product websites (Liu & Park, 2015). To sum up, prior studies have verified that online reviews are gradually more influential on tourists’ information adoption and behavioral intentions. In line with previous research, the current study examines online reviews for a specific destination, Gatlinburg to further explore tourists’ emotional attitudes toward the destination.

Tourist emotions

Consumption emotions are referred to as the emotional responses derived from the stage of consuming a product/service (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). When narrowing down consumption emotions into the field of tourism, emotions affect tourists’ experiences extensively from pre-travel through decision-making for travel-related products/services to the post-consumption experience (Prayag et al., 2013). That is, it was deduced that positive experiences arise from consuming tourist-related products/services and are likely to cause positive emotions toward the associated tourist products/services afterward.

In focusing on the relatively unexplored domain of the relationship between tourists’ emotions and destination experiences, Hosany and Gilbert (2010) proposed a destination emotion scale (DES) with the constructs of joy, love, and positive surprise and applied these emotions to hedonic holiday destinations. Over a series of studies, the group of researchers have established that there is a relationship between tourists’ emotions, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions, and suggested that emotional experience management is vibrant within tourism (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Prayag et al., 2013). Further, Hosany (2012) inspected the predictors of tourists’ emotions toward destinations. The findings revealed that appraisals of pleasantness, goal congruence, and internal self-compatibility are the influential determinants of joy, love, and positive surprise. In line with the precedent studies on tourists’ emotions, but from a new perspective and method, the present study explores tourists’ emotions toward a destination.

Methods

TripAdvisor has six categories when you search a specific destination. These categories include lodging, vacation rentals, flights, things to do, restaurants, and forum. We focused on the reviews of things to do because they are equal to tourists’ attractions that represent a destination. Text mining was conducted to analyze the online reviews of things to do in the domain of Gatlinburg. We used Naïve Bayes algorithm to decide on the tourists’ emotions presented in the reviews, using the statistical software R. The representative statistical package was sentiment with 1500 sentiment lexicons in the R workspace. Firstly, we conducted polarity analysis to categorize the reviews into two classes—positive sentiment and negative sentiment. The polarity analysis computes the log-likelihood of a review. By a ratio of the likelihood of positive sentiment to the likelihood of negative sentiment, the review is classified into either of the two classes based on this ratio. However, when the ratio becomes 1, the overall sentiment of the review belongs to “neutral.” Secondly, in the sentiment analysis with the Bayesian method, the data is classified into the six emotions: anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness, and surprise (Ravindran & Garg, 2015). However, when the package is not able to gauge the overall emotion from a review as any of the six, “unknown” is derived.
Results

“Ripley’s Aquarium of the Smokies” ranked second within the category of things to do in Gatlinburg (Figure 1) (Note that following results, including the number of reviews and rankings, are based upon online reviews on TripAdvisor in April, 2017). The total number of reviews on Ripley’s aquarium was 10,404 which consist of 6,859 five-bubble rating (excellent),

Figure 1. Polarity Analysis and Sentiment Analysis of Ripley’s Aquarium

Figure 2. Polarity Analysis and Sentiment Analysis of Gatlinburg Scenic Overlook

Figure 3. Polarity Analysis and Sentiment Analysis of Homemade Wines
2,582 four-bubble rating (very good), 743 three-bubble rating (average), 128 two–bubble rating (poor), and 49 one-bubble rating (terrible). In the plot of sentiment analysis, this high “joy” indicates good business in Gatlinburg based on its ranking. Within another destination named “Gatlinburg scenic overlook” (Figure 2), the ranking number five had a similar result of polarity analysis with Ripley’s aquarium (Figure 1). However, its sentiment analysis resulted in more diverse sentiments like joy, surprise, and fear. “Fear” may be used to assess the level of dissatisfaction. In Figure 3, “Homemade wines” ranked third in the category of things to do and had 890 reviews on TripAdvisor which consist of 839 five-bubble ratings (excellent), 36 four-bubble ratings (very good), 10 three-bubble ratings (average), 3 two-bubble ratings (poor), and 2 one-bubble ratings (terrible). Our results of its polarity analysis consistently reflected the distribution of its ratings. The same as with the sentiment analysis, the word clouding provided the keywords for positive emotions, implying satisfaction. Lastly, the results of “Haunted adventure” (Figure 4) and “Moving theater” (Figure 5) were interestingly different from those of the former spots. To elaborate, “disgust” in Figure 5 may be explained differently from its usual interpretation with the background of haunted adventure, but “anger” may be interpreted as the same meaning of the common anger with the keywords of “overpriced,” “boring,” “regretted,” and “unimpressive,” meaning dissatisfaction. Based on the results of polarity and sentiment analyses with reviews of Gatlinburg on TripAdvisor, we confirmed which specific sentiment connects to the tourists’ satisfaction or dissatisfaction and which specific tourist attractions in Gatlinburg satisfy tourists more or less than others. In total, it was concluded that the majority of tourists are highly likely to be satisfied in Gatlinburg.

Conclusions

The researchers investigated how tourists’ emotions at the post-consumption stage are demonstrated through their online reviews. Particularly, it was validated by conducting polarity and sentiment analyses, focusing on a specific destination, Gatlinburg. The current study further segmented the categories of tourists’ emotions into joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust and fear, contrasting that previous studies had constructed tourists’ emotion as joy, love, and positive surprise (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Hosany, 2012). Moreover, we provided differentiated results in that the distribution of six emotions is displayed by an individual tourist attraction within a destination. In terms of practical implications, it was corroborated that Gatlinburg, as a nationwide tourism destination, contributes to positioning Tennessee within the top 10 states based on TripAdvisor posts. Although Gatlinburg was verified as one of the highly-satisfied destinations by our findings, the researchers further suggest that the marketers of Gatlinburg still need to pay attention to some of the negative emotions presented. Therefore, this study paved the
way to improve specific issues causing those emotions (e.g., anger, sadness, and disgust) that commonly happen at many destinations. Also, the current study contributed to presenting a different approach by measuring tourists’ emotions as the polarity and sentiment analyses from big data (e.g., over 10,000 online reviews) within the tourism industry.

References


Consuming film tourism: Exploring the engagement, embodiment, and emotional experiences of Game of Thrones film-tourists through Instagram

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Film-induced tourism is increasingly popular in the U.S. and globally. Scholars tend to emphasize the effect of movies and television in forming the image of tourist destinations and thus influencing traveler motivation and experience (Beeton, 2006). Beeton (2006) argues that, “movie induced tourism relates to on-location tourism that follows the success of a movie made (or set) in a particular region” (p. 9). However, the study of film tourism is complex, incorporating aspects of disciplines such as sociology and psychology, in addition to stakeholders within the movie industry and strategic marketing and branding of a destination. Consequently, this is an untapped and little-understood field of tourism research (Beeton, 2006). In this study, we shift discussion of film-tourism beyond place-making and branding and explore how Instagram users are consuming film-tourism through the engaging in, embodying with, and emotionally experiencing of being a Game of Thrones (GOT) film tourist.

Background

A film location tourist, whether pre-planned or by coincidence, is a person who actively visits a precise, on-location site that has been used for shooting a scene or scenes that were portrayed on the cinema or television screen (Rosesch, 2009). Macionis (2004) suggested that there are intrinsic motivational factors that prompt film site specific travel behavior. Such push factors would include fantasy, escape, status, prestige, search for self-concept or identity, ego enhancement, and partaking in a “vicarious experience.” Macionis (2004) categorizes the film-induced tourist into three groups; 1) serendipitous, 2) general, and 3) specific film tourist.

The push and pull framework provides some underlying motivations of film tourist behavior. The concepts: place, performance, and personality all contribute to the motivations of film-induced tourists. Place is a possible pull factor in film-induced tourism as a unique landscape or beautiful scenery. Film and television allow place to be created, altered, and reinforced (Macionis, 2004). Performance as a pull factor draws particular stories and genres from a film/television show that allows the tourist to relate to the situation of characters in the show. Personality as a pull factor is seen in the film characters as well as the stars/actors who portray them (see Table 1.1 adapted from Macionis, 2004).
Table 1.1: Push/Pull Motivations in Film-Induced Tourism

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<th>Pull Factors (Film)</th>
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<td>Place</td>
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<td>Location</td>
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Within film/television storyline, people recognize certain icons like the natural scenery, exciting/exotic locations, storyline themes and human relationships that serve as motivations to visit that destination. The icons are not always visual and can be fixed in the storyline or character themes (Riley et al., 1998). Riley and Van Doren (1992) also include the motivations of pilgrimage, nostalgia and escape as tourist attractions inherent in certain film and television programs.

Theoretical Framework

Taking an interdisciplinary approach, this study aims to distinguish between GOT film tourists on Instagram based on three types of consumption styles: 1) emotion, 2) embodiment, and 3) engagement. Emotion refers to short-term feelings elicited specifically during consumption experiences (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). According to Ali et al (2016), emotional experiences can be expressed as either positive (e.g., excitement) or negative (e.g., displeased). Embodiment refers to body states such as postures, facial expressions and arm movements that arise during social interaction (Barsalou, Niedenthal, Barbey, & Ruppert, 2003). According to social perception, while it is intuitive that people embody others who are present, it is more counterintuitive to understand they embody those who are only symbolically present (Niedenthal, Barsalou, & Winkielman, 2005). Engagement refers to an enduring relationship and personal connection to a focal agent/object that occurs in response to interaction and co-creating experience. In consumer literature, Sashi (2012) posits that customer engagement can be determined by how strongly customers build emotional bonds and relational exchanges to sellers. This process results in four types of customer engagement: delighted customers (high in emotional bond, low in relational exchange), transactional customers (low in emotional bond, low in relational exchange), loyal customers (low in emotional bond, high in relational exchange) and fans (high in emotional bond, high in relational exchange).

By observing Instagram users consuming (posting, sharing, liking, commenting) their travel experiences as Game of Thrones (GOT) film tourists, this study will 1) identify distinctive emotional patterns (positive or negative); 2) examine different embodiment types (e.g., posture, facial expression and arm movement); and 3) examine two different types of tourist fandom level engagement (i.e., amateur or enthusiast).
Rationale & Objectives

The future work in film tourism should make a frank assessment of the negative and positive ways in which film tourists’ act as consumers of film tourism, suggesting that more case studies should be conducted (Beeton, 2006). Therefore, we chose to explore "Game of Thrones" as a case study, due to its huge fan base and popularity, averaging 25.1 million viewers for its sixth season (Robinson, 2016). Additionally, the show has been cited as a key factor behind the remarkable growth in annual visitors to Iceland. For instance, in 2011 when the show premiered, there were 566,000 visitors to Iceland. In 2015, the number of visitors increased to more than 1 million (Smith, 2016). With the global success of "Game of Thrones", we are exploring film tourists’ consumption patterns on Instagram from a consumer behavior’s perspective. Accordingly, we are interested in two specific research questions:

R1: How are Instagram users engaging in, embodying with, and consuming "Game of Thrones" (GoT) film tourism?
R2: What are the levels of fandom with GoT tourists?

Methodology

Using Picodash, the researchers searched for publically available pictures posted on Instagram in the “Game of Thrones” filming regions. The searches included the first 5000 pictures that loaded. Pictures with the hashtag #gameofthrones or #GOT were then extracted into an excel database. The available data included the Instagram URL, date, the number of likes, number of comments, captions, hashtags, location, latitude and longitude data, username, and the user’s profile picture. The data was then uploaded into NVivo for analysis. Auto-coding within NVivo was used to get a basic understanding of themes within the dataset. The Instagram pictures themselves were downloaded into a separate dataset using Picture Ripper. The pictures were then uploaded into NVivo for analysis as well. Two types of analysis were used to understand the types of film-tourist consumers: cluster analysis and thematic analysis.

First a cluster analysis (CA) was conducted aimed at segmenting Instagram users based on how they consume film-tourism. We used a two-step cluster analysis that combined hierarchical analysis method with a nonhierarchical k-means clustering procedure (Vilnai-Yavetz & Sigal Tifferet, 2015). Within the hierarchical approach, we used complete-linkage clustering, which finds compact clusters of approximately equal diameters. Based on dendrogram using complete-linkage clustering, three numbers of clusters were determined. Then, K-means cluster analysis was performed to differentiate the significance of each of the three variables to the formation of the clusters.

After the cluster analysis was conducted, the Instagram posts were uploaded into a shared document with the qualitative software NVivo to provide a seamless record for each Instagram user. For the first cycle of coding methods, each author individually analyzed and coded the photo and caption of each Instagram post (Saldana, 2016) using in vivo and value codes. These codes were used as a method of understanding the participants’ levels of fandom. As a research team, we relied on intensive group discussion, “dialogical intersubjectivity,” coder adjudication, and group consensuses as an agreement goal (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Saldana, 2016) via emails and telephone conversations that helped to resolve any discrepancy with our coding. Next, we grouped together any codes that we felt were coded similarly in order to illuminate any redundancy. After this step, we finalized the codes and identified themes establishing thematic...
parameters and frequency within analytic memos (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014).

**Expected Outcomes**

We are currently in the stage of data analysis with both the cluster and thematic analysis. We feel strongly that exploring how GOT film tourists are consuming their embodiment, engagement, and emotional experiences through Instagram, will further the field of film-tourism. This proposed study is unique with its consumer behavior approach, and not seen in the field of film-tourism to date. Exploring how social media plays a role in film-tourism can unearth a different paradigm influencing a new knowledge base of how film tourism is consumed. Furthermore, it can possibly assist Destination Marketing Organizations understand how powerful a marketing tool film tourism can be to their community in addition to how tourists are sharing their lived film-tourist experiences through social media.

**References**


Customer willingness to participate in green practices: Comparing the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations

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The University of Mississippi

Introduction

Going green is one of the important issues for the hotel industry. Not only chain hotels but also independent hotels have adopted green practices as part of their corporate social responsibility (CSR) movement. There are several reasons and benefits for hotels to go green. According to Foster, Sampson, and Dunn (2000), service firms are going green because of regulations regarding environmental practices, politics to maintain good relations with governmental bodies, management philosophy and ethics, environmentally-conscious customers, customer satisfaction, physical facilities protection, and aesthetics of surroundings. With increasing attention to green practices in the hotel industry and the recognition of benefits to hotels going green, academics and practitioners in the hospitality context have shown considerable interests in environmentally-friendly products and the influence of environmentally-friendly products on environmentally-friendly behaviors from both employees’ as well as guests’ perspectives (Claver-Cortes, Molina-Azorin, Pereira-Moiner, & Lopez-Gamero, 2007; Erdogan & Baris, 2007; Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007). However, the level of participation in green practices when staying at a hotel has not yet received much attention in the literature.

To increase guests’ participation in green practices during their stay, it is important to understand their major motivations because certain motivations trigger their behaviors more than other motivations (Tabernero & Hernandez, 2011). The two types of motivations studied in this research are intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as a behavior which an individual does for inherent satisfactions without any expectations on external outcomes, whereas extrinsic motivation is a motivation that makes an individual behave in a certain way with an expectation of outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to compare the level of participation of hotel guests’ in green practices without any rewards and when some type of reward was given. In addition, this study investigates how extrinsic motivations and intrinsic motivations impact customers’ willingness to participate in green practices when staying at a hotel and the willingness to stay at an environmentally-friendly hotel.

Based on the purpose of the study and relevant literature review, the following hypotheses were formed:

\( H1: \text{Intrinsic motivation positively affects guests’ willingness to stay at an environmentally-friendly hotel.} \)

\( H2: \text{Intrinsic motivation positively affects guests’ willingness to participate in green practices when staying at a hotel.} \)
**H3:** Extrinsic motivation positively affects guests’ willingness to participate in green practices when staying at a hotel.

**H4:** Extrinsic motivation positively affects guests’ willingness to stay at an environmentally-friendly hotel.

**H5:** Guests’ willingness to participate in green practices when staying at a hotel positively affects willingness to stay at an environmentally-friendly hotel.

**Methodology**

The data were collected in a metropolitan area in the Southeastern United States using an intercept survey method. 295 responses out of 450 surveys distributed (response rate of 65.56%) were used in the data analysis. The collected data were analyzed using IBM SPSS and AMOS Ver. 25 and descriptive statistics were used to profile the respondents by demographics and hotel-stay related characteristics. Based on the two-step approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation was performed as the first step to assess the validity of the measurement model followed by a structural equation modeling (SEM).

**Results**

The average age of respondents was 33.89 years and slightly over half of the respondents were female (57.3%). Respondents had traveled 3.26 times and had stayed at hotels 7.45 times within the previous 12 months. However, slightly over 50% of respondents had not stayed in a green hotel before (53.9%).

Paired sample t-tests were conducted to examine whether there are any significant mean differences in guests’ willingness to participate in green practices when some types of reward are given. The results as seen in Table 1 show that guests’ willingness to participate in ten different green practices was higher when some types of rewards were given than when there was no reward: “Using linen napkins instead of paper napkins” ($t(293) = 3.542$, $p < .001$), “Declining housekeeping” ($t(293) = 5.145$, $p < .001$), “Recycling” ($t(293) = 5.043$, $p < .001$), “Using glassware instead of paper cups” ($t(293) = 2.423$, $p < .05$), “Receiving receipts via email” ($t(291) = 2.231$, $p < .05$), “Receiving newspaper by request only” ($t(293) = 2.423$, $p < .05$), “No key holder for room key” ($t(293) = 2.894$, $p < .01$), “Receiving ketchup and jelly in serving containers instead of disposable packing” ($t(293) = 5.286$, $p < .001$), “Reusing bath and hand towels” ($t(293) = 3.724$, $p < .001$), and “Reusing bed linens” ($t(293) = 4.668$, $p < .001$).
Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and t-test Results for Guests’ Willingness to Participate in Green Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Without Reward</th>
<th>With Rewards</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using linen napkins instead of paper napkins</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>5.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declining housekeeping</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycling</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>5.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using glassware instead of paper cups</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>5.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving receipts via email</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving newspaper by request only</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>6.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No key holder for room key</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>5.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving ketchup and jelly in serving containers instead of disposable packing</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>5.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reusing bath and hand towels</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>5.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reusing bed linens</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>5.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

M = Mean. SD = Standard Deviation.

Guests’ willingness ranges from 1 (Very unlikely) to 5 (Very likely).

The results of CFA ensured unidimensionality, reliability, and construct validity of all measures and indicated that four-factor model fits the data well ($\chi^2_{(48)} = 129.887, p < .001$, $\chi^2$/df = 2.706, normed fit index (NFI) = .949, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .954, comparative fit index (CFI) = .967, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .076). As the second step, SEM was utilized to examine the causal relationships among the hypothesized structures. Multiple goodness-of-fit indices from SEM suggested that the structural model adequately fit the data ($\chi^2_{(58)} = 151.994, p < .001$, $\chi^2$/df = 2.621, NFI = .945, TLI = .953, CFI = .965, and RMSEA = .074).
Figure 1 and Table 2 present the results of the hypotheses tests with standardized path coefficients and corresponding t-values. Both intrinsic (H2) and extrinsic motivations (H3) significantly increased the willingness to participate in green practices with the estimates of .22 \( (p < .001) \) and .16 \( (p < .05) \), respectively, indicating H2 and H3 were supported. H3 was also supported by an estimate of .49 \( (p < .001) \), suggesting the willingness to participate in green practices has a positive impact on the willingness to stay at an environmentally-friendly hotel. However, while intrinsic motivation showed a positive relationship with the willingness to stay at an environmentally-friendly hotel (H1) with an estimate of .19 \( (p < .001) \), H4 was not supported, meaning extrinsic motivation did not significantly impact on the willingness to stay at an environmentally-friendly hotel.

Note. * \( p < .05 \), ** \( p < .01 \), *** \( p < .001 \). Solid arrow \( = \) statistically significant, dashed arrow \( = \) statistically not significant. Model fit indexes: chi-square \( (58) = 151.994, p < .001 \), chi-square/df = 2.621, Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .945, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .953, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .965, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .074.

*Figure 1. Structural results of the proposed model.*
Table 2

Standardized Parameter Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesized paths</th>
<th>Standardized path coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: Intrinsic motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ Willingness to stay at an environmentally friendly hotel</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>4.83***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: Intrinsic motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ Willingness to participate in green practice</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>3.39***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: Extrinsic motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ Willingness to participate in green practice</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>2.17*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4: Extrinsic motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ Willingness to stay at an environmentally friendly hotel</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5: Willingness to participate in green practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ Willingness to stay at an environmentally friendly hotel</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>8.94***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .05, ***p < .001.

Discussions & Implications

The main purpose of this study was to identify how intrinsic and extrinsic motivations influence guests’ willingness to participate in green practices when staying at a hotel and the willingness to stay at a green hotel. By conducting SEM, it was found that intrinsic motivation has significant relationships with both the willingness to participate in green practices and the willingness to stay at a green hotel. This is in line with the study conducted by Jackson (2008). Specifically, guests were more willing to participate in green practices when staying at a hotel in order to feel good about themselves and achieve self-fulfillment. In addition, individuals with intrinsic motivations to participate in green practices were more likely to stay in green hotels because they consider more about the environment.

Extrinsic motivation was found to have a positive effect on the willingness to participate in green practices but not with the willingness to stay at a green hotel. The paired sample t-test results revealed that guests’ attitude in participating in green practices was significantly influenced when there is some type of reward as opposed to when there is no reward. This is contradictory to the results of a previous study by Huang, Lin, Lai, and Lin (2014) that indicated the willingness to participate in green practices were not influenced by extrinsic motivations or incentives. Conversely, the relationship between extrinsic motivation and the willingness to stay at a green hotel was found to be insignificant.
Finally, there was a significant relationship between the willingness to participate in green practices and the willingness to stay at a green hotel. This is also consistent with the findings of previous literature (Han, Hsu, & Lee, 2009; Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010).

Guest participation in green practices at hotels could bring financial benefits such as reducing operation costs by eliminating unnecessary consumption of commodities. Marketers in the hotel industry should emphasize the importance of environmental issues to their guests and educate them regarding the seriousness of the issues to encourage them to participate in green practices. By doing so, guests can be intrinsically motivated to participate more in green practices when staying at a hotel.

References
Local food movement: A case study evaluating the intrinsic and extrinsic cues in online reviews of an upscale southern restaurant

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Introduction and Literature Review

Consumers evaluate food product quality by using a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic cues (Hansen, 2005; Richardson et al., 1994; Steenkamp, 1990; Szybillo & Jacoby, 1974). Intrinsic cues are defined as inherent attributes of a product such as appearance, taste, texture, odor and color. These inherent attributes can be objectively evaluated before and after consuming the food products (Lawley, Birch, & Hamblin, 2012). On the other hand, extrinsic cues are defined as lower level cues such as price, branding, and information provided at the point of sale and on the package (Lawley et al., 2012; Veale & Quester, 2009). These extrinsic cues seek out to influence and strengthen choices of customers (Veale & Quester, 2009).

Understanding intrinsic and extrinsic cues of locally grown food is important because consumers’ demand and interest in locally grown food or produce have increased (Penney & Prior, 2014; Jones et al., 2004; Morris & Buller, 2003; Bianchi & Mortimer, 2015; Menapace, 2016). Over the last 15 years in the United States, the number of local food marketplaces have increased from approximately 2,500 to more than 7,000 and generated over $11 billion in revenues in 2012 (Finkel, 2007; Food Processing Center, 2003; Jones-Ellard, 2011). Many independent restaurants, some restaurant chains, and institutional operations are incorporating local food in their menus because of the growing local, sustainable, and hyper-local trends. Examples include restaurants that grow their own food from their rooftop gardens, restaurants using community gardens, and farm-to-table restaurant concepts (De Chabert-Rios & Deale, 2016) whose menus change seasonally as well as daily depending on available foods.

Despite this growing trend, there is limited research on local food and electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM). eWOM is a vital source used in the consumer decision making process (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006; Duan, Gu, & Whinston, 2008). Especially in the tourism and hospitality industries, consumers rely more on the reviews of others to assess the quality of service before making purchase decisions (Ghose & Ipeirotis, 2011; Korfiatis et al., 2012). Therefore, the aim of this study is two fold; first, it explored whether guest-generated online restaurant reviews evaluated food product quality on the basis of intrinsic and extrinsic cues established from previous literature and second, it explored the “temperature” of guest-generated reviews intrinsic and extrinsic cues and categorized these cues as positive, negative, or indifferent.
Methodology

The current exploratory research was a case study of online reviews of an upscale farm-to-table restaurant located in the Southeastern United States. The restaurant was conveniently selected for the case study given that it embraced several local food trends, and, in addition to its farm-to-table concept, it also features fresh local ingredients sourced from its own gardens. Additionally, online guest-generated reviews for the restaurant were conveniently available on a variety of travel business Websites. So as to increase face and content validity in the study, data was drawn from two different sources of guest-generated reviews: TripAdvisor and Google Reviews. This triangulation of data sources further enhanced the validity of the study. Data posted on these websites from January 2016 to November 2017 were reviewed for the analysis.

Given the exploratory nature of the study, an initial observation of the online reviews in the previously specified timeframe was randomly conducted to identify whether or not there was significant evidence of the organic use of intrinsic and extrinsic cues in the reviews of restaurant guests. Since the quality of the data was found to be satisfactory to proceed, a structure matrix was used to determine the inclusion criteria established from the literature; only factors which fit the matrix of analysis were selected from the data for content analysis (Patton, 1999; Sandelowski, 1993, 1995). These factors included: intrinsic cues of taste, freshness, and overall quality and extrinsic cues of price, health benefit, region of origin (local), and information provided at the sales (menu information and mission statement provided at the restaurant’s website). Factors that did not fit the matrix of analysis from the data (e.g., service, atmosphere, and ambience) composed the exclusion criteria. Following the application of both inclusion and exclusion criteria, a selection of 200 reviews were drawn from TripAdvisor (100) and Google Reviews (100) for analysis. Both restaurant reviews from TripAdvisor and Google Reviews were found to be comparable in length and overall ratings on the restaurant; specifically, the overall ratings on TripAdvisor and Google Reviews were 4.5 and 4.6 respectively. Furthermore, the sample size was deemed appropriate given that there is no universally set number that determines the sample size for a qualitative content analysis which is dependent on the research purpose, research questions, and quality of data (Elo Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen, & Kyngäs, 2014).

After determining the sample, a deductive content analysis was then conducted in line with the current research objective. This study also used a categorization matrix table as recommended by Elo and Kyngäs (2008) to code the data into the following categories: frequency, positive, negative, or indifferent. Positive reviews were verified based on positive adjectives (e.g., great meal, best dinner, amazing meal), negative reviews were verified based on negative adjectives (e.g., not superior, over-rated, need to be cooked, small portion) and other reviews were verified based on the word without positive or negative adjectives (e.g., average).

Results

Findings for intrinsic cues showed that for both review websites, the overall quality of the food (218) was the most frequently mentioned followed by taste (147) and freshness (15). For taste, a total of 147 reviews were identified (Table 1). There were more positive reviews (123) than negative reviews (24). For freshness, a total of 15 reviews were identified (Table 2). There were
more indifferent reviews (11) than positive reviews (3) and a negative review (1). For the overall quality, a total of 218 reviews related to the intrinsic cue of overall quality were identified (Table 3). There were more positive reviews (209) than negative reviews (7) and indifferent reviews (2).

Findings for extrinsic cues showed that for both websites, the menu information (56) was the most frequently mentioned followed by price (45) and region of origin: local (34). For price, a total of 45 reviews were identified (Table 4). There were more negative reviews (29) than positive reviews (16). For health benefit, a total of two positive reviews on the extrinsic cue of health benefit were identified from Trip advisor. For a region of origin (local), a total of 34 reviews were identified (Table 5). There were no negative reviews, but positive reviews (9) and indifferent reviews (25) were based on the following words and phrases: farm-to-table, locally-grown, and grown on the property. For menu information, a total of 56 reviews were identified (Table 6). There were more positive reviews (47) than the negative reviews (7) and indifferent reviews (2) for the menu information. Creative menu (13), change of menu (11), great selections (10), quality of menu (7) and good drink selections (6) were represented in the “positive” category for both sites (TripAdvisor and Google Reviews). Whereas, there were only a few (7) negative reviews commenting on the lack of menu variety (4) and the lack of vegetarian options (3). For the mission statement, there were no specific mentions of phrase “mission statement” in the reviews. The mission of the observed restaurant is stated as “to interpret the complex, traditional tastes of the Deep South in a totally fresh and modern way” on its website. However, the mission statement is more reflected throughout the reviews such as “interpret the complex, traditional tastes” can be translated from reviewers noticing creative menu offerings. Furthermore, the word “fresh” was mentioned as an intrinsic cue of current research.

Discussion and Implications

The framework of SWOT (strength, weakness, opportunity, and threat) analysis was used to provide deeper insights (Fig 1) into the results yielded. The SWOT analysis framework is suitable because it considers both internal (controllable) and external (uncontrollable) factors influencing the operations of the restaurant.

**Strength:** The reviewers seem to perceive locally-grown food tastier, like previous research findings (Aprile, Caputo, & Nayga Jr, 2016; Chambers, Lobb, Butler, Harvey, & Traill, 2007). Furthermore, perceive intrinsic cues of overall quality and taste were deemed more important than freshness. The restaurant should make sure to meet this taste and quality of offering by quality control of their menu items and consistency with their offerings. Reviewers seem to enjoy the creative and variety of (e.g., wine, liquor, and beer) menu selections but, there exist negative reviews on the menu information (e.g., vegetarians) so the business needs to improve (e.g., add vegetarian menu) to sustain positive reviews on the menu information.

**Weakness:** The reviewers seem to perceive extrinsic cue of price as less favorable than many previous research findings on local food. Most of the previous research, consumers were willing to pay for locally grown products (Brown, 2003; Carpio & Isengildina-Massa, 2009; Kezis, Gwebu, Peavey, & Cheng, 1998; Schneider & Francis, 2005). The pricing need to be perceived
to the consumers as reasonable by continuously meeting the satisfied overall quality and the taste of the offering. Furthermore, the small portion size was frequently mentioned as a problem.

**Opportunity:** The reviewers appear to be more aware of the current food/restaurant trends for example, the local food movement and farm-to-table concept, but region of origin was less positively reflected. In order to increase positive reviews, the intrinsic cues of local food and region of origin can be used together in menu marketing (e.g., fresh local food, and healthy farm-to-table restaurant).

**Threat:** The reviewers seem less informed/educated about the freshness and health benefit of local food or were apathetic. The restaurant should actively emphasize “freshness” in the marketing messages (e.g., our business provides freshly locally grown products from our own garden at the property). Furthermore, the restaurant should actively emphasize and include “health benefit” in the marketing messages (e.g., why food prepared from our kitchen is healthy) providing such information can promote healthy eating in community while contributing to the local economy (restaurant business).

There are some limitations necessary to be discussed. Firstly, this research considered only the intrinsic and extrinsic cues of locally-grown food. For this reason, other factors such as service and atmosphere at the restaurant were not taken into consideration. For future research, such factors can be added and observed as extrinsic factors which can add value to the body of knowledge and benefit the industry. Secondly, this finding has a geographical limitation because the restaurant is located in the Southeastern United States. Thirdly, due to time constraints, the research was limited to the number of reviews analyzed. There is a possibility that more reviews could show different or broader perspectives on intrinsic and extrinsic cues of locally grown food in the restaurants.

**Reference**


Appendix

Table 1 Intrinsic cue- taste (positive, and negative)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic cues</th>
<th>Trip advisor</th>
<th>Google review</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taste</td>
<td>81 (P)</td>
<td>42 (P)</td>
<td>123 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14 (N)</td>
<td>10 (N)</td>
<td>24 (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Positive (P), and Negative (N)

Table 2 Intrinsic cue- freshness (positive, negative, and indifferent)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic cues</th>
<th>Trip advisor</th>
<th>Google review</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshness</td>
<td>0 (P)</td>
<td>3 (P)</td>
<td>3 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 (N)</td>
<td>1 (N)</td>
<td>1 (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 (I)</td>
<td>7 (I)</td>
<td>11 (I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Positive (P), Negative (N), and Indifferent (I)

Table 3 Intrinsic cue- overall quality (positive, negative, and indifferent)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic cues</th>
<th>Trip advisor</th>
<th>Google review</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall quality</td>
<td>116 (P)</td>
<td>93 (P)</td>
<td>209 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 (N)</td>
<td>1 (N)</td>
<td>7 (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 (I)</td>
<td>2 (I)</td>
<td>2 (I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>122</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Positive (P), Negative (N), and Indifferent (I)

Table 4 Extrinsic cue- price (positive, and negative)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic cues</th>
<th>Trip advisor</th>
<th>Google review</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>7 (P)</td>
<td>9 (P)</td>
<td>16 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 (N)</td>
<td>14 (N)</td>
<td>29 (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Positive (P), and Negative (N)
Table 5 Extrinsic cue- region of origin (local) (positive, negative, and indifferent)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic cues</th>
<th>Trip advisor</th>
<th>Google review</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Region of origin (local)</td>
<td>5 (P)</td>
<td>4 (P)</td>
<td>9 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14 (I)</td>
<td>11 (I)</td>
<td>25 (I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Positive (P), Negative (N), and Indifferent (I)

Table 6 Extrinsic cue- menu information (positive, negative, and Indifferent)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic cues</th>
<th>Trip advisor</th>
<th>Google review</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creativity of menu offerings</td>
<td>13 (P)</td>
<td>0 (P)</td>
<td>13 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing menu offering</td>
<td>7 (P)</td>
<td>4 (P)</td>
<td>11 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great selections (drinks/food) of menu offering</td>
<td>9 (P)</td>
<td>1 (P)</td>
<td>10 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of menu offering</td>
<td>6 (P)</td>
<td>1 (P)</td>
<td>7 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good drink (wine, beer, cocktail, and scotch)</td>
<td>6 (P)</td>
<td>0 (P)</td>
<td>6 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>47 (P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of menu variety</td>
<td>3 (N)</td>
<td>1 (N)</td>
<td>4 (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of vegetarian options</td>
<td>2 (N)</td>
<td>1 (N)</td>
<td>3 (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5 (N)</td>
<td>2 (N)</td>
<td>7 (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kid's menu</td>
<td>0 (I)</td>
<td>1 (I)</td>
<td>1 (I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal menu</td>
<td>0 (I)</td>
<td>1 (I)</td>
<td>1 (I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 (I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Positive (P), Negative (N), and Indifferent (I)
Fig 1. The SWOT analysis framework for Local food movement: A case study of a Southern upscale restaurant to explore intrinsic and extrinsic cues of online restaurant reviews.
Assessing the entrepreneurial task motivation of hospitality students

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Introduction

Due to expanding interest in innovation and small business development, in the U.S. alone, more than 1,500 colleges and universities offer students some type of exposure to the principles and skills sets related to entrepreneurship (Duval-Couetil & Long, 2014; Katz, 2003). Hospitality programs across the U.S. also are expanding their offerings in this related field (Gurel, Altinay, & Daniele, 2010; Naipaul & Wang, 2009).

Extant literature proposes two complementary learning goals for entrepreneurship education. First is the pragmatic development of an individual’s business planning skill set, i.e., learning ways to identify commercial opportunities and to set up and manage a new business that exploits them (Ahmad, Abu, & Ahmad, 2018). The second goal is to build students’ entrepreneurial mindsets (Deale, 2016; Hamidi, Wennberg, & Berglund, 2008). Olsen & Mykletun (2012) claim that the second goal is important even for graduates seeking more traditional employment offers. Some personal characteristics that are found to be associated with successful entrepreneurs include a goal-driven mentality, high need for achievement, and a strong risk-taking profile (Müller, & Gappisch, 2005; Roberts, 1998).

This paper emphasizes the second learning objective and argues that a talent for entrepreneurship can be cultivated if measures of a person’s baseline propensities for entrepreneurial behaviors are taken and enhanced upon through intentional nurturing (Jones, 2010). The latter involves harnessing or nudging hospitality students’ existing tendencies to engage in creativity, innovative thinking, and rational risk-taking behaviors through problem-solving and projects (Balan & Metcalfe, 2012; Canziani et al., 2015; Zhao, 2012).

Although hospitality schools are formulating curricula in entrepreneurship, little is really known about whether hospitality students are more or less oriented to innovation and risk-taking (Gurel, Altinay, & Daniele, 2010). There is no literature on how hospitality entrepreneurship instructors have embedded baseline assessment into courses (Li, 2008). This is the gap that I attempt to close through review of assessment data. Specifically, I report on entrepreneurial task motivation assessments of students enrolled in a cross-listed hospitality and entrepreneurship course that is designed to achieve the following learning goals:

Upon successful completion of the course, students will be able to:

1. Explain the link between recognizing opportunity/opportunity costs and creating a sustainable hospitality or tourism business/being self-employed.
2. Explain the conceptual relationships among creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship.
3. Analyze the competitive business and market advantages of sample
entrepreneurial businesses in the hospitality and tourism industry.
4. Evaluate the feasibility of a new business concept that is based on the
hospitality/tourism skill set.

Measuring Entrepreneurial Task Motivation

An existing entrepreneurial task motivation survey (Welsh & Tullar, 2014) was used in
this study (McClelland, 1961; Miner, Smith, & Bracker, 1989). Task motivation theory (Miner,
Smith, & Bracker, 1989) views work itself as a driver of behavior due to its ability to yield
desirable outcomes for the person performing the task. Compared to employees, entrepreneurs
seek more control over work tasks, personal fulfillment, and rewards tied to their individual
exertions. At the same time, entrepreneurs are willing to assume more risk, i.e., business failure,
loss of social status, and financial losses (Vereshchagina & Hopenhayn, 2009).

Survey items facilitated measurement of various dimensions: Achievement—an expressed
need for self-esteem and self-worth that derive from knowing one’s contributions have led to
positive tangible outcomes. Change—a belief that the student has done something him/herself
allowing the individual to take personal credit for results. Feedback—pursuit of information
about one’s performance and willingness to apply feedback in changing future orientations and
behaviors. Goal Setting—possession of a strong future orientation that translates into setting
concrete goals and measurable results. Risk taking—a desire to take risks in situations where the
student can reasonably anticipate a sense of individual achievement (Welsh & Tullar, 2014).

Methods

Online survey responses were collected across four semesters from students enrolled in a
fourth-year hospitality entrepreneurship class. The survey was managed by a third party at the
university using a Qualtrics® platform and students were given directions and links as part of the
course instructional process. A 69% average response rate was achieved by providing students
with extra credit points. On average, students took 14.9 minutes to complete their responses.

A set of de-identified composite scores was provided to the author for the present study
along with a separate list of student responders for grading. The survey, previously validated for
business and entrepreneurship students (Welsh & Tullar, 2014), included 40 measured items
relevant to this paper. Each of the five dimensions is measured with eight items, discretely
valued at -1, 0, or +1 depending on the answer selected. So a composite score for a dimension
will range from -8 to +8. For example, for the survey item stem “Uncertainty...” the possible
answers are a. is necessary; b. should be minimized or avoided; c. causes stress and frustration;
d. means opportunity; e. is risky; or f. often adds excitement. Choices b and c are scored -1.
Clearly, people who choose these two options are risk adverse. Choices a and e are just
statements of fact and are therefore scored zero. Choices d and f show positive affect towards
turning uncertainty into opportunity and are therefore scored as +1.
Results

Task motivation approaches (Miner, Smith, & Bracker, 1989) measure and record each of these five features of the entrepreneurial role separately which is the procedure used in this paper when reporting hospitality student propensities. Baseline data were collected for 137 hospitality students. Grade levels included multiple ranks: freshman (1%), sophomore (7%), junior (19%), senior (71%), and graduate (2%). Table 1 shows that students were generally in the positive ranges of these five dimensions (-8 to +8). Comparisons to normed data on business and entrepreneurship students show that hospitality students fell within the ranges of business school norms, with a slight gravitation towards more feedback-seeking and risk-tolerant behaviors. Risk showed quite a large standard deviation, likely due to the limited sample.

Looking at some limited demographic information on transfers from community colleges, nationality (USA or Other), and age, we see that Goal Setting was higher for transfer students than freshman starters and Risk was positively associated with student age. Results also show that the average class profiles varied from semester to semester on these five dimensions.

Table 1 Results of entrepreneurial task motivation assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale dimension</th>
<th>Mean (n=137)</th>
<th>SD (n=137)</th>
<th>Norm Range (n=1076)</th>
<th>Significant associations** with Transfer, Nationality, Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>-1.01 to 3.91</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>-2.22 to 2.04</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback*</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.21 to 4.65</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal-setting*</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.25 to 6.29</td>
<td>Transfer higher (mean diff. 1.38) (t=2.847; p=.006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>0.01 to 5.03</td>
<td>Age positive correlation (r=.282; p=.012)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Varied by semester, indicating class makeup variability
**Significant at p<=.01

Conclusions and limitations

Hospitality students assessed in this sample had baseline data consistent with business students as a whole and were on the positive side of each dimensional scale, suggesting that at least at this university, entrepreneurial thinking is part of the hospitality student skill set. In particular, the Feedback dimension was noticeably hovering to the rightmost side of the norm range. These findings indicate that hospitality students do desire feedback about their performance. One limitation is that some norms provided with this survey are positively biased as well which suggests that business students, including hospitality students, exhibit more feedback seeking, goal setting, and risk taking behaviors. Other majors might conceivably score lower moving the norm center closer to zero.

Instructors should note that each student section will have a unique blend of personalities and thus, while the goals of encouraging entrepreneurship may be standardized, the starting point for working with students may vary in each course section and each semester. Since transfer and older students may have stronger goal-setting and risk-tolerant behaviors, they may be good support sources for instructors trying to get students to buy in to entrepreneurship as a mindset and a skill set. Ultimately, the end game is to meet the needs of emerging economies head on by
preparing students to acknowledge gaps and gains in these five dimensions that are important in recognizing a motivated entrepreneurial spirit.

Future research can consider additional assessment foci, including comparisons of instructional methods to examine pre/post assessment gain scores. Larger cross-cultural samples of hospitality students would also be useful to verify the impact of nationality on these five dimensions. Lastly, researchers can interview students using qualitative methods to better comprehend why transfer students tend to exhibit higher levels of goal setting behavior than freshmen entries.

References


Economic impact of domestic medical tourism

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Abstract

Medical tourism is a highly competitive marketplace focused on the delivery of medical services to meet patient needs. Following an investigation of the medical tourism literature, there is a definite need to explore the extent to which a cutting-edge medical firm can contribute to a local and regional economy. The purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) to examine the direct and indirect economic impact of domestic medical tourism within the East Tennessee region utilizing various predictive models and (2) to provide a comparative analysis of various predictive models. Expected results will demonstrate direct and indirect economic impact on the local and regional economies. Results will also reveal the economic impact of specific industry segments as a result of domestic medical tourism.

Keywords: medical tourism, domestic medical tourism, economic modeling, economic impact.

Introduction

Medical tourism is a highly competitive global marketplace. The unmet patient needs rising medical costs, reductions in medical coverage and the overall globalization of the healthcare industry (Runnels & Carrera, 2012; Fisher & Sood, 2014) have provided a unique opportunity to many different medical firms domestically and internationally. While the primary purpose of medical tourism is to provide medical treatment, the tourism component is an essential consideration factor (Yu, Lee, & Noh, 2011). While the vast majority of medical tourism research has focused on international medical tourism (Chuang, Liu, Louis, & Lee, 2014; Tham, 2018), some researchers are beginning to pay more attention to domestic medical tourism (Hudson & Li, 2012).

Tourism, in general, can provide sustainable economic opportunities to a local economy (Carabello, 2013), as such, local stakeholders and governments can benefit from fostering tourism growth within their local regions. One such sustainable touristic enterprises which can provide sustainable economic benefits to local economies is medical tourism. Medical tourism expenditures include food and beverage, retail shopping, lodging, entertainment, and travel related expenses (Karuppan & Karuppan, 2011) while patients receive medical treatment. Medical tourism provides a unique opportunity for high quality, affordable medical alternatives to traditional medical treatments (Johnson & Garman, 2010) and providers. Changing healthcare industry landscape within the United States (US), shifting medical coverage for patients, and
technological advancements have provided unique opportunities many medical firms domestically and internationally. Specifically, medical tourism provides an opportunity to meet the needs of the medical tourists, providing access to affordable and alternative medical treatment options (Hudson & Li, 2012). Medical tourism provides local areas and companies with sustainable economic development, both directly and indirectly (Damonte, Collins, & Megehee, 2013). The direct economic impact is the net increase in spending as a result of an event, in this instance the medical tourism facility (Hudson & Li, 2012; Crompton, 1995). Indirect impacts are the changes in sales, income, or jobs in sectors within the region that supply goods and services to the tourism sectors (Crompton, 1995).

**Literature Review**

Historically, medical tourism involved traveling to a foreign country with the purpose to purchase medical services, typically at a substantially lower cost than domestic service providers (Crooks, Kingsbury, Snyder, & Johnston, 2010; Karuppan & Karuppan, 2011). Similar to other forms of tourism, medical tourists are motivated based on a variety of factors. The push/pull model, a commonly applied tourism model, suggests consumers are motivated by intrinsic (i.e., intangible) push factors while extrinsic (i.e., physical) pull factors attract tourists to visit a particular area (Crompton, 1979). Push factors of medical tourism include state-of-the-art service and medical technology. Pull factors are the tourist destination and potential recreational opportunities of a specific area. As Crompton (1979) suggested, the “push factors catalyze the desire to travel, while pull factors guide the destination choice” (p. 337).

The decision to become a medical tourist is a complex decision, with the primary motivation to receive medical treatment (Runnels & Carrera, 2012). Additional motivations include unmet needs, types of services, lack of services within home area, shrinking insurance coverage (Runnels & Carrera, 2012), increasing medical costs, uninsured or underinsured coverage, access to particular treatments/procedures (Karuppan & Karuppan, 2011), and reduced wait-times for treatments/procedures (Borman, 2004). Medical tourism is market-driven, “shaped by the complex interactions of myriad medical, economic, social, and political forces” (Horowitz & Rosensweig, 2007, p.24).

Domestic medical tourism is defined as seeking medical treatment within the same country of origin as the patient, but outside of their home area (Hudson & Li, 2012). Changing political climates, changes within the healthcare industry, decreased insurance coverage, and technological changes (Hudson & Li, 2012) are driving more patients to explore medical treatment options domestically (International Medical Travel Journal, 2010). Medical tourism provides unique opportunities for US firms and local economies (Carabello, 2013) to build sustainable economic opportunities. More US companies are providing insurance programs which allow employees to seek treatment at various locations around the country (Carabello, 2013; Murphy, 2009) utilizing various medical providers to meet their needs. With the rise of domestic medical travel and more companies allowing employees to choose providers outside of their home area, it is essential to investigate the effects of domestic medical tourism on the local firms, local economies, and the tourism marketplace as a whole. The purpose of this research is to focus on the economic impacts of domestic medical tourism within the southeastern US using predictive modeling to provide both direct and indirect economic impacts of domestic medical tourism within the East Tennessee region.
Research Questions

R1: What is the magnitude of the direct economic impact to the East Tennessee region as a result of domestic medical tourism?

R2: What is the magnitude of the indirect economic impact to the East Tennessee region as a result of domestic medical tourism?

R3: What business sectors are impacted the most in the East Tennessee region as a result of domestic medical tourism?

Methods

The researchers utilize a case study approach to the research. Case studies are essentially a unit of analysis (Stake, 1978), applicable when investigating communities, organizations, or destination regions (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Key study personnel from a local medical facility, known for providing medical treatment to domestic medical tourists, will recruit study participants. Researchers email daily expenditure survey links to study participants. Daily expenditures are recorded from different business segments while participants receive medical treatment. Utilizing direct participant reporting, the study participants report on the following expenditures: medical, transportation, lodging, entertainment, retail, and food and beverage expenditures. Crompton, Lee, and Shuster (2001) have suggested economic impact studies can be used to investigate direct and indirect gains and used to measure the overall economic significance (ES, the overall expenditures by participants). The researchers include participants traveling a distance of fifty miles or greater (from their primary residence) in the study population. The distance will be verified by medical facility staff (using zip code analysis) to confirm study participants meet the distance requirement of fifty miles or greater to be considered tourists. Study participants also denote the distance traveled to receive treatment as a secondary verification.

Researchers have utilized a variety of predictive models within economic impact studies to determine the economic significance of tourism. While utilizing data reported directly from out-of-town participants, two predictive economic models will be used to provide a comparative analysis of the data. First, the money generation model (Stynes, 1999) will be utilized to analyze the data. Using a daily expenditure questionnaire, participants will record daily expenditures in twenty-six possible expenditure categories. Aggregate spending data will then be entered into the money generation model to determine the economic impact. The money generation model is an easy-to-use model with the ability to capture essential elements of an economic impact analysis (Stynes, 1999). The second predictive model utilized will be the IMPLAN Input-Output model. Following the same technique as previously mentioned, participant spending data from twenty-six possible expenditure categories will be entered into the Input-Output model to determine the direct and indirect economic impact. The Input-Output model is a powerful tool for estimating total effects of a change in economic activity will have on a local economy (Bess & Ambargis, 2011; Warnick, Bojamic, & Cartier, 2013). Using both models, (money generation model and Input-Output model), will provide the ability for comparative analysis of the economic impact analysis based on the results generated by the two methods. Comparative analysis allows for validation of the two models and of the results.
Expected Outcomes

The proposed research represents a more in-depth understanding of the economic impact of domestic medical tourism. The study will help broaden the understanding of (1) direct economic impact to the local East Tennessee region (2) indirect economic impact to the local East Tennessee region and (3) economic impact for the local medical firm. Results are also expected to provide insights into business segments directly affected by domestic medical tourism, along with the magnitude of the tourism.

References


Transformative leadership among hospitality students

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Introduction

It is a vital aspect of an educator’s job to develop future leaders. In order to prepare students with leadership capabilities, educators are tasked to develop students with communication skills, problem solving abilities, and critical thinking skills when they enter the workforce (Cook & Wolverton, 2002). Nowadays, teachers are often confronted with complicated and demanding situations, and they must take into consideration of emotional, social, and peer pressure influences students face.

A complete person is being educated and the teacher endeavors to “draw out” all that is latent in the student. How can a teacher gage to what extent he/she is meeting this high objective? With an increasing demand on leadership skills in the hospitality industry, educators are tasked to incorporate leadership development into the classroom (Salem, 2015).

Literature Review

Previous research has provided a variety of definitions of leadership. For example, Erkutlu (2008) stated that leadership “involves determining the group or organizations objectives, encouraging behavior in pursuit of these objectives, and influencing group maintenance and culture” (p. 709), whereas Munson (1921) claimed that leadership is the art of inducing compliance. Other research stated that leadership can be seen as personality in its effects (Bingham, 1927; Bowden, 1926). For instance, Johnson and Hill (2009) studied personality characteristics of military leaders and found that leader effectiveness was correlated with personality traits.

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. These benefits could include but are not limited to, a sense of direction and an appreciation of their needs and efforts. The followers would in return show the leader responsiveness to influence, greater status, and higher esteem. For some success to be obtained it is necessary for the leaders position to be supported by the followers because the lack of success removes a benefit for the leader to provide a “fair exchange" to the leader/follower relationship. A fair exchange would include the leader performing exceptionally and deserving the increased status. If the leader does not perform well, then the followers could experience a sense of unfairness.

There are two primary leadership styles that are most recognized, 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). 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 change 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. Burns theorized that these two leadership styles were mutually exclusive.

Transformational leadership is an integral part of the success of a business within the hospitality industry. There is a potential critical issue that professors may face and that is the matter of student’s perceptions and evaluations of professorial leadership styles. For professors that provoke a transformational classroom environment, students are an important part of the class because they relate real world experiences into the classroom discussions (Hood, Poulson, Mason, Walker, & Dixon, 2009). It is thought that transformational leadership in the classroom helps create a positive learning environment for the students and the professors. Not only can faculty use leadership to create specific environments within the classroom, they can also intentionally build in leadership development (Hood et al., 2009). Despite the importance and demand for leadership development, leadership in the hospitality industry hasn’t been studied as frequently (Erkutlu, 2008).

Methodology

This research will use a quasi-experimental design where we compare a group that gets an intervention with another group that is similar in characteristics but didn’t get the intervention (McNamara, 1998). For the experimental group, a group of students will engage in the Appreciative Inquiry process whereas the control group will not. Appreciative Inquiry, defined as "a collaborative and highly participative, system-wide approach to seeking, identifying, and enhancing the 'life-giving forces' that are present when a system is performing optimally in human, economic, and organizational terms" (Watkins & Mohr, 2001, p.14). In short, the Appreciative Inquiry process claims that each company is doing something right and it should identify the positive aspects and work from them in order to create positive change (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2013).

The experimental group, who gets an intervention, will have two sessions, one in the beginning of the semester and the other near the end of the semester. In the beginning of the semester, students will watch a presentation on transformative leadership including ten transformational leadership abilities, then be asked to provide examples of each from their experiences. Next, students will be engaging in the Appreciative Inquiry process where they go through four stages (discover, dream, designing, and delivery) to discuss their experience with peak leadership, share their greatest hope for their leadership journey and the class, generate statements as a small group about what they should try to accomplish in terms of leadership through the class, and then prepare statements individually about their leadership journey (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2013). In the end of the semester, the students will be reviewing their goals they generated in the beginning of the semester and evaluate their performance.
Conclusions

This study is expected to assess students’ self-perception of their leadership abilities pre- and post the Appreciative Inquiry and goal-setting intervention. This will provide insights to hospitality educators on how to develop leaders in the class so students are well prepared after graduation.

References


Tattoo convention: Seeking and escaping motivations of attendees

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University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Background and Rationale

Weekend conventions are a well-established topic (Hiller, 1995; Mackellar, 2006; Getz, 2008; Rittichainuwat, Beck, & Lalopa, 2001) within the realms of tourism, hospitality, and event planning. While research on convention weekends within scholarly articles shed light on participants’ motivations and the economic relevance of the event and the participation within the convention (Severt, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2007; Getz, 2008; Rittichainuwat, Beck, & Lalopa, 2001), these constructs have not been applied to the tattooed subculture. Subcultures, though described countless ways, are generally defined as “a group smaller in population than the mainstream culture as a whole, and who consciously set themselves apart from the mainstream society with any combination of the following: dress; ideology; music; language; technology; geography; and/or activities” (Winge, 2009, p. 7). Though the study of subcultural festival and events has a notable body of research centered on music festivals (Bowen & Daniels, 2005; Hudson, Roth, Madden, & Hudson, 2015; Matheson, 2008), other subcultures have yet to be explored. The tattooed subculture plays a valuable role in consumer behavior because subcultures of consumption exist as group members identify with consumption activities and, through those activities, identify with other members of the group. The unifying consumption patterns are directed by the distinctive ethos or set of common values of the tattooed group. The structure of this subculture, which governs social interactions within it, is a direct reflection of the commitment of individuals to the ethos (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995). Moreover, nearly 30% of Americans, over 9.6 million people, have tattoos, which constitutes a large segment of the population that demands investigation (Shannon-Missal, 2016). There has been no definitive study on the contributions and impacts of this segment of the population making up nearly 1/3 of American consumers.

Therefore, through this study’s analysis of the tattooed structures’ dominant motivations focusing upon interpersonal and personal driven behaviors of this diverse consumption-oriented subculture, this study will offer a practical understanding of consumer culture that can assist in development and promotion of tattoo conventions and their future marketing campaigns. The importance of understanding the ethos of a subculture, specifically the tattooed subculture, is essential for identifying motivational behavior to attend a tattoo convention. Additionally, the application of Iso-Ahola’s Seek and Escape theory brings a new perspective that has not yet been applied to subcultural
tourism. Seek and Escape theory states that personal escape, personal seeking, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking motivate tourism (Snepenger, King, Marshall & Uysal, 2006). Iso-Ahola’s theory has been recognized as a way to identify key components of internally directed behavior. Moreover, there is a macro reason for traveling in modern society, and represents the “the search for authenticity” (Snepenger, King, Marshall & Uysal, 2006). Overall, convention goers have a desire to obtain psychological (intrinsic) rewards through traveling to a contrasting environment. Through identification of seeking and escaping motivations of tattoo convention goers, the ethos of the subculture can be quantitated and applied to applicable managerial implications for the convention production team.

**Proposed Methodology**

Quantitative methods will be used for conducting online data collection using a survey (n=370) with convention attendees from World Tattoo Events, LLC website. This approach is taken for exploring the personal and interpersonal motivational dimensions of tattoo convention attendees. World Tattoo Events, is a website that list all the tattoo conventions being hosted throughout the world. Online data collection will be utilized for studying distant conventions being held in order to save time and costs associated with travel. The conceptual model (Figure 1) will be tested with the data collected online. The survey items will consist of (1) motivations such as personal escape (e.g., to get away from the mainstream environment), interpersonal escape (e.g., to avoid people who judge me by my appearance), personal seeking (e.g., to tell others about my experiences), interpersonal seeking (e.g., to be around people like me), (2) moderators such as self-identity (e.g., My tattoos make me feel good about myself) and group identity (e.g., When I talk about the tattooed community, I say ‘we’ rather than ‘they’), (3) self-enhancement (e.g., By attending a tattoo convention, I have enhanced my self-esteem) and (4) word of mouth (e.g., I am likely to say positive things to other people about tattoo conventions). The information will help tattoo convention organizers understand the participants’ motivations leading to self-esteem enhancement. This culminates in participant re-visitation and word of mouth communication promoting the event. The data will be analyzed via structural equation modeling to test the relationships among all variables in the model. Furthermore, multi-group analyses will be conducted with
individual identity and group identity as moderators.

Conclusion

There is a substantial opportunity to address multiple gaps within the literature highlighting both subculture motivations associated with consumption and the tattooed subculture itself. The push and pull effects of Iso-Ahola’s Seek and Escape theory can be applied to identify motivations that lead to what attracts tourists. Overall, the conceptual model demonstrates the need to understand motivations for attending a tattoo convention. Once validated, convention marketing can focus on attendees’ motivations as improved means for promoting self-enhancement (directly). This knowledge-based result will boost both revisit intention and word of mouth (indirectly) discussions. Finally, due to the evolutionary nature of tourism, it has been stated that there is a constant need to investigate new and changing motivations of unidentified groups based on destination (Hsu & Huang, 2008). These concepts are paramount to any convention planner and can lead to a plethora of managerial implications. Once motivations are identified, convention hosts can better utilize resources that apply theoretical perspectives outlined by the findings of this study.
References


Altruistic behavior among co-workers from servant leadership in the hospitality industry

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The importance of organizational leaders’ role on supporting their employees have been well recognized in numerous leadership studies (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang, & Wu, 2014). As the hospitality industry, by nature is exceptionally oriented towards both external (i.e. customer) and internal (i.e. employees) customers, the servant leadership theory has gained prominence in this field (King, 1995; Mullins, 2001; Walker & Miller, 2009). The servant leadership theory, proposed by Greenleaf (1977), refers to a particular leadership approach employed by leaders who emphasized more altruistic work for the advantage of subordinates and their communities than their self-interest (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Parris & Peachey, 2013). Put simply, for servant leaders, serving the subordinates leads to efficient leadership (Ehrhart, 2004; Greenleaf, 1977). Several research has shown that servant leaders encourage more committed, satisfied, engaged employees (Carter & Baghurst, 2014; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2008; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). In addition, servant leadership has positive effects on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) defined as helping behaviors at work (Chiniara & Beintein, 2017; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991), which consequently, enhances firm performances (Nordbye & Irving, 2017; Van Dierendock, 2011) and decrease turnover (Hsiao, Lee, & Chen, 2015). In sum, this study raises a research question: How does the servant leadership motivate employees to take care of each other? In other words, we aim to investigate what relationships servant leadership, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), psychological empowerment and work engagement have in the conceptual model, and in turn, what effects they have on altruism behavior among employees (See Figure 1.)

Literature Review

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) through Servant Leadership

The focus of research on servant leadership in the service industry has been primarily on employee outcomes. Many studies found that followers of servant leaders were more engaged and devoted to exceptional performance, committed, and satisfied within the work environment (Carter & Baghurst, 2014; Liden et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008). Servant leaders motivated subordinates to perform more than required by their role and to demonstrate organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Ehrhart, 2004; Reed, 2015; Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010). As noted by Organ (1988), OCB refers to helping behaviors at work, not formally recognized and rewarded by the company, but performed at the
discretion of the employee. Organ (1988) points out five factors necessary for OCB: civic virtue, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and altruism. In this study, the focus is on altruism understood as voluntary helping to co-workers.

**Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)**

Servant leaders have been shown to impact extra-role behavior such as OCB of their followers by developing high-quality social exchange relationships, which include reciprocated exchange of concern and care (Van Dierendonck, 2011). This kind of relationship is essential in the service industry, as the interaction between employees and their immediate supervisors is often key to providing high-level or quality customer service (Kim, Gazzoli, Qu, & Kim, 2016; Wang et al., 2014). The concept of leader-member exchange (LMX) has been developed to focus on the quality of working relationships between followers and leaders. LMX refers to a degree of exchange of valuable resources and emotional support between leaders and direct followers (Liden et al., 2008). In a relationship characterized by high-quality LMX, leaders motivate followers to work more autonomously, show initiative, and take more responsibility at work and for their work (Chen & Chiu, 2008). A high LMX results in the high empowerment of service workers (Kim, Lee, & Jang, 2017).

**Psychological Empowerment**

Psychological aspects of empowerment encompass conditions required for intrinsic motivation. When employees are empowered, they have intrinsic motivation to assume personal ownership of their work (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). In this way, personal self-efficacy and self-determination are reinforced (Bandura, 1986). For Conger and Kanungo (1988), psychological empowerment is a process of enhancing feelings of employee self-efficacy by identifying conditions, which foster powerlessness. According to Judge, Erez, and Bono (1998), self-efficacy is defined as “individuals’ perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations”. Several studies have addressed the impact of psychological empowerment on OCB (Joo & Jo, 2017; Spreitzer, 1995). For example, Spreitzer (1995) found that psychologically empowered individuals perform more extra-role behaviors, feel more efficient about their task activities, and are more creative and innovative within the confines of work roles. The trust-driven empowerment results in increased extra-role behaviors, as employees are convinced that they will be rewarded later for their behavior (Chen & Chiu, 2008). In addition, empowerment affects more positive work outcomes and better job performance (Kumar & Pansari, 2015; Menguc et al., 2013; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). When it comes to work engagement, employees who engage in work, will also positively influence extra-role behaviors (Al Zaabi, Ahmad, & Hossan, 2016).

Following the previous research and considering the lack of research on servant leadership in the hospitality industry, an interesting question remains unanswered: in what ways, do servant leadership motivate employees in the hospitality industry to take care of each other? So far, the process of the fostering positive behaviors among employees, by servant leadership has not been investigated thoroughly (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2010). Several studies have investigated what stimulates OCB beyond the job role, and the following factors have been identified - work engagement, psychological empowerment, LMX, and servant leadership (Joo & Jo, 2017; Ugwu, Onyishi, & Rodriguez-Sanchez, 2014; Van Dierendonck,
Nevertheless, the relationships between OCB and those factors in a single conceptual model have not been examined. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the process in which perceptions of servant leadership, at the team level will motivate employees to have helpful behavior toward each other (i.e. OCB-altruism). The study will employ a holistic perspective on the hospitality industry. Based on the literature, we predict that:

**H1.**
H1a: The perception of servant leadership will positively affect psychological empowerment.
H1b: LMX will mediate the relationship between the perception of servant leadership and psychological empowerment.

**H2.**
H2a: Psychological empowerment will positively affect OCB-altruism.
H2b: Work engagement will mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and OCB-altruism.

**H3.**
H3: LMX will positively affect OCB-altruism.

Fig 1. A research model

**Contribution**

This study will have several theoretical and practical contributions. The concept of servant leadership has gained attention because of certain concerns (i.e. internal and external customers) in the hospitality industry. The result of our study will emphasize the predictive power of servant leadership on the behavior of followers that is beneficial for both leaders and followers. Furthermore, this study will contribute to the leadership literature by exploring the impact of the team-level perceptions of servant leadership on extra-role behavior at the individual level, by work engagement, LMX, and psychological empowerment through a holistic approach. For hospitality executives, the practical value of this study will be taken into consideration a working relationship between leaders and followers, as well as empowerment, as a strategy for increasing positive impacts on servant leadership and finding a balance between personal needs and job tasks.
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Is college football its own worst enemy? Using fMRI technology to examine the desensitization of college football fans to on the field violence

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Introduction
Sports and sports tourism are big business for the hospitality industry. For example, a study produced by the W.P. Carey School of Business at Arizona State University noted that the 2016 College Football Playoff National Championship game generated a staggering $273.6 million in revenue from out-of-state visitors alone (Chesler, 2016). While a national data set is not available at this time, the importance of college football to a variety of individuals in hundreds of cities across the country is easily observable when considering generating jobs, revenue, and taxes. With some 190 million fans across the United States alone, it is also not surprising the college football has seen a significant increase in popularity and revenue in the last ten years (Manning, 2013).

Literature Review
While the continued financial success of college football and its resulting impact on sports tourism seem to be positive (Popp et al., 2017), there is a growing concern about the impact of playing football on the players themselves at all levels of the sport. Specifically, it is thought that repetitive brain trauma is an etiological factor in the development of chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE), neurodegeneration, depression, and suicidal risk (Stein, Alvarez, & McKee, 2015). This is true not only among professional athletes, but also in younger players who may also be exposed to large numbers of repetitive head impacts (Stamm et al., 2015). Complicating matters is the possibility that the violence associated with the game of football is, in large part, the main driver of its popularity (Raney & Kinnally, 2009). Previous research has indicated that fans gain more pleasure and excitement when viewing non-scripted violence (which is a cornerstone of college football) than when they watch sports without violent interactions (Bryan, Comisky & Zilmann, 1981; Rany & Depalma, 2006; Westerman & Tamborini, 2010), which may explain some fans’ resistance to rule changes that would increase player safety but also reduce the amount of violence during play.

Because fans themselves are the main drivers of both the popularity and financial success of college football, more research is needed to help understand how they view the violence associated with college football and to investigate whether they have a different view than non-fans. This is an important examination for multiple stakeholders of college football. Sporting bodies are interested in both making the game safer for players as well as ensuring fan
satisfaction with the product on the field. Many fans have opposed rule changes that promote player safety as they see this as changing the game they enjoy (Jenkens, 2016). Thus college football finds itself in an unenviable position, with certain segments of society calling for rule changes to increase players’ safety, while fans, who help fund the multibillion dollar industry that is college football, potentially viewing violence differently than the individuals calling for change. Therefore, gaining a better understanding of the neural mechanisms of fans (and how they differ from those of non-fans) is important in order to better inform the polices and overall governance of college football.

Previous research has shown that exposure to media violence is an accurate predictor of lowering rates of empathy in human subjects (Funk et al., 2004). More recently, a longitudinal study replicated the results from Funk et al (2004), when Mößle, Kliem, and Rehbein (2014) found that empathy fully mediated aggressive behaviors. Multiple studies have also found that both short-term and long-term changes can occur in human subjects when exposed to violent videos (Guo et al., 2013; Akitsuki & Decety, 2009). Of particular relevance is Anderson & Bushman’s (2001) finding that human subjects may become “desensitized” when exposed to repeated images of violence. If this desensitization is also association repeated viewing of violence in college football, this may result in a fundamental difference in how college football fans view violence on the field, especially when compared to the view of non-fans.

Methods

Based on the aforementioned research and in accordance with the General Aggression Model (Anderson & Bushman, 2001), the researchers predicted that repeated exposure to college football, a violent contact sport, would reduce the neural activation of areas responsible for emotion regulation, perception of others’ pain, and empathy (e.g., in regions such as amygdala, anterior cingulate). In order to test this hypothesis, individuals were recruited and grouped based on their history of viewing football. While in a high-resolution 7T MRI scanner, participants viewed two types of violent imagery: images of general violence (e.g., someone being struck with a fist) and images of football-related violence (e.g., a rough tackle or injury occurring). Brain activation during this task was measured and compared across the two groups (football fans vs. non-football fans) and between condition (general violence vs. football violence).

Participants

The subjects were 15 right-handed, college-educated (~53% female; 60% Caucasian; ages 22 – 57, M = 30.7, SD = 10) recruited from the Auburn, Alabama area. Participants were pre-screened to determine their status as a football fan using a “Team Identity Scale” and their suitability for participating in fMRI research. Team identity was measured utilizing a modified version of the seven items found in the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Higher scores indicated that the person was an identified fan of the team for which he or she was rooting. Participants were grouped as Fans or Non-Fans, using a cutoff score of 4.5 to identify as a fan when all item responses were averaged, based on their response on the Team Identity Scale (Wann & Branscombe, 1993).
Results

In our task involving viewing football and general violence related images (Fig. 1), individuals who identified themselves as college football fans exhibited decreased activation (to both types of violence) in multiple regions of the brain when compared to Non-Fans (Fig. 2). In order to determine effects specific to football violence in fans, a two-way ANOVA was performed with groups (Fan vs. Non-Fan) and condition (sport violence vs. general violence) as factors. Except bilateral hippocampus, all other regions showed effects specific to football violence in Fans. Accordingly, when Fans viewed images of football-related violence, these areas showed less activation (p<0.05, FDR corrected) compared to when Fans viewed images of general violence. These areas, the bilateral cingulate gyrus (Fig. 3A), the left fusiform gyrus (Fig. 3B), the right insula (Fig. 3C), and the right middle temporal gyrus (Fig. 3D), reflect a difference in affective processing when comparing sports-related and general violence images. Non-Fans, however, showed no such interaction. When Non-Fans viewed both sport violence and general violence, these areas show no difference in activation. However, Non-Fans had greater activity (p<0.05, FDR corrected) in these regions compared to Fans when the two groups were compared with both conditions combined. It is noteworthy that these brain regions are integral to the perception of pain and violence toward other individuals (Lamm et al., 2011).

Discussion

The results detailed above support the research question as presented, providing preliminary evidence that exposure to college football may alter the way in which highly identified fans view violence on the field and, of particular note, in general society as well. These findings support the General Aggression Model, (Anderson & Bushman, 2001), which predicts that an increase in exposure to violence should also reduce activation in the parts of the brain responsible for an empathetic response.

One significant issue related to the findings in the current experiment is a potential decrease in fans’ loyalty to college football if additional rule changes are implemented which increase player safety and decrease the overall violence associated with the sport. Previous researchers have noted that on-the-field violence, especially when unscripted, is the most enjoyable part of the viewing process for fans (Bryan, Comisky & Zilmann, 1981; Rany & Depalma, 2006; Westerman & Tamborini, 2010). While recent rule changes to college football designed to decrease the incidence of concussions have been met with only marginal resistance (Jenkens, 2016) from the fan perspective (for example, the so called Targeting rule), the current research calls into question how far these types of rule changes can go before fans start to become less loyal. Loss of fan loyalty is something that stakeholders of college football must be keen to avoid, and understanding the neural mechanisms of fans’ perception of violence in football is a key to better informed policies aimed at rule changes in the sport.

Another area of concern raised by the current experiment for all levels of college football is the ability of spectators to recognize the violent aspects of college football and react to that violence in a way similar to those that have not been desensitized. Of perhaps greater concern to the stakeholders of college football is the possibility that the same type of desensitization is also occurring within coaches, trainers, and medical staff, who are collectively responsible for player health and safety. While a potential limitation of the current study is the sample comparing only highly-identified fans to non-fans, the results provide preliminary evidence that college football
fans exhibit a decreased ability to recognize violence, and in all likelihood, a decreased ability to perceive the connection between the violent interactions on the field and the health of the players themselves. The possible inability of these individuals to help make the sport a safer environment for the players themselves could have a lasting impact on both the popularity and economic impact of college football. Future research should consider examining to what extent this desensitization may be found in more direct participants of college football such as coaches, trainers, and medical staff.

References


**Figures and Tables**

**Fig. 1. Viewing task.** The experimental procedure used by all participants while in the MRI scanner.

**Fig. 2. Non-Fans > Fans Contrast.** Cluster activation for the contrast of Non-Fans > Fans across all conditions. Non-Fans reliably show more activation in key areas of the brain compared to Fans.
Fig. 3. Functional differences in Fans vs. Non-Fans. Parameter estimates of ROI activation for football-related violence and general violence across Fan classification. Panel A shows a comparison of the activation in the bilateral cingulate gyrus. Panel B shows a comparison of the activation in the left fusiform gyrus. Panel C shows a comparison of the activation in the right insular cortex. Panel D shows a comparison of the activation in the right middle temporal gyrus. For all the four regions, Fans showed significantly (p<0.05, FDR corrected) less activation for football violence as compared to general violence. Also, all regions showed significantly (p<0.05, FDR corrected) less activation in Fans as compared to Non-Fans when conditions were combined.
The role of hostel design in explaining consumer satisfaction and future behavioral intention – A pilot study

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Background to the study

With today’s expansive variety of overnight accommodation offerings, an old, but always-present player is becoming new again: the youth hostel. While a constant and popular accommodation choice among young and budget minded travelers, youth hostels have recently undergone somewhat of a rebirth, attracting not only budget minded youth, but older adults, families, and now, even business travelers. As Mohn (2016) puts it “The modern day hostel has become a more popular alternative than traditional hotels for many business and leisure minded travelers.” This is especially true of today's millennials who are much more budget conscious, yet tend to spend more of their disposable income, and stay on the road longer, to see the world than many other travelers. While still a cheap accommodation option, many of these hostels are becoming “city destinations” in their own right, through a mix of high design and an uncompromising focus on service and product quality delivery (Mohn, 2013). The international hotel industry has long understood the correlation between good design, quality service delivery, repeat patronage and customer loyalty. Not surprisingly, hoteliers have invested heavily over recent decades in the design aspects of their physical product in order to grow their bottom line (Ozkan, Yildirim and Tuna, 2017). It is not surprising then, that today's business savvy and more customer oriented hostel operator should understand the importance of good design and service, and the link to higher sales, repeat business and profitability. This study will address this very issue with the central research question being posited as follows: What influence does interior design have upon guest satisfaction and future travel intention in the specific hostel market? The research proposes that interior design will play a vital role in enhancing guest satisfaction and driving their intent to return and/or recommend, even in this sector of low-budget basic accommodations and diverse market set. The paper will review the literature that speaks to the importance of good design and its links to consumer satisfaction and future decision making, as well as report on the proposed methods utilized to gain an answer to the research question. While the research is presented as work in progress, it is hoped that the researchers will have preliminary results from both stage one, and the stage two pilot study to report at the upcoming conference.

Literature Review

The youth hostel has been a time honored go-to for many younger travelers hoping to experience the world on a budget. Given the recent surge in new accommodation products (for example Airbnb), the traditional hostel is having to reinvent itself. According to Gentile, senior public relations executive for HostelBookers.com, hostels have been moving into “high design” with enhanced
facilities and services since 2004 because they “had to find a way to stand out” (Mohn, 2017). This is executed in clean, well-managed hostels that offer atmosphere, comfort, and upscale design, without being pretentious or expensive. The hostels are becoming stylish, social, and overall more fun, causing many people to not realize they are in a hostel at all. Private rooms are also now a standard option in 9 out of 10 hostels, as hostels are moving from dorm style to “design on a dime” (Mohn, 2016). Naturally, with this new breed of hostel comes a change in traveler profile. Recent years have witnessed a notable growth in the number of millennial, business and older travelers now using hostels (Ariyakula, 2016). It is little surprise then that the global hostel industry is projected to grow seven to eight percent annually for the next ten years, and is currently at $5.2 billion in bed revenue (Fox, 2017). As hostels are changing their look, they are automatically elevating their brand and target market.

When staying at a hostel, Hostelworld.com suggests guests ranked low cost (44%), convenient location (44%), high overall value for money (43%), and opportunities to meet other travelers (31%) as the top reasons to choose a hostel (Hostelworld Annual Report, 2016). While each of these factors will remain critical to the consumer decision making process, it is proposed that interior design will increasingly feature in the initial, and returning decision making process for most consumers. Defined by the Council for Interior Design Qualification (2017) as “the creative and technical solutions applied within a structure to achieve a built interior environment” these solutions naturally impact the quality of the overall guest stay, and enhance the quality of life of both operator and consumer through their aesthetic appeal. Nasqshbandi and Munir (2011) suggest this can include many basic factors of the interior environment including layout, lighting, color, furnishings, and style, which ultimately produce comfort, quality, functionality, mood, and pleasure for the occupant.

Interior design is recognized as being representative of the physical evidence of a product, in addition to being representative of the quality level of a particular brand (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2017). The design of a space often serves as the tangible evidence of a service, and perpetuates ideas about its reliability, degree of service, and intended target market (Ha and Jang, 2010). From the perception of a brand, the guest is made to form certain expectations that are now also key to their satisfaction, whether the expectations are met or not (Ali et al., 2017). Good design that is functional, aesthetically pleasing, and fulfills its purpose has been proven to create pleasure and satisfaction in a customer (Ha and Jang, 2010), but the question remains: will it have the same affect in a hostel setting, with low-budget basic accommodations and a much more diverse market set? Of course the literature points to a myriad of potential influences upon this cognitive state in most hospitality oriented settings. Those that stand out and are deemed to be of relevance to the current study include quality service provision (Ha and Jang, 2010), core product delivery (Cetin, Akova and Kaya, 2014; Wu and Liang, 2009), ancillary service provision (Yoshida and James, 2010), food and beverage choice and availability (Namkung and Jang, 2007), cleanliness (Ryu and Han, 2010), and technology (Meuter, Ostrom, Bitner and Roundtree (2003).

Methods and sampling

In order to investigate this issue a three stage mixed-methods approach has been proposed as follows: (1) a series of qualitative interviews with expert witnesses, chosen based upon their involvement in a recent (2017) backpacking study tour of 13 countries in Europe, where hostels were the principal form of accommodation, (2) the development and administration of a more quantitative research instrument, to be
administered online, and in pilot form to a convenience sample of university students who had recently (last three years) participated in a study abroad program and stayed in at least one youth hostel during their travels, and (3) based upon preliminary findings, the development of a more robust research instrument to be administered nationally and in random format by the Amazon Mechanical Turk crowdsourcing internet service. We chose to begin with college students as they do comprise a significant portion of the hostel market, but the final research instrument will be administered to the wider public for validity and applicability. To this point, stage one of the research has been completed, and the administration of the stage two pilot study is currently underway. The related questionnaire was distributed to potential respondents online in mid-November and will remain open for a period of four weeks. A reminder has already been sent and it is hoped that the response rate will be sufficient to report on preliminary results at the upcoming SECHRIE conference. The questionnaire took the form of a direct disconfirmation satisfaction measure, where respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction across 34 variables on a five point Likert type scale anchored at (1) Highly Dissatisfied through to (5) Highly Satisfied. These variables were drawn extensively from the extant literature and the stage one interview process. Figure 1 proposes seven constructs that are proposed to have an influence upon satisfaction in a hostel setting including: service quality, food and beverage provision, interior design, ancillary service provision, the availability of technology and cleanliness. The additional six constructs besides “Interior Design” act as a control, to allow the survey takers to determine without knowledge of the study topic what factors add value and satisfaction for them in this market. Additionally, respondents were also asked to rate the extent to which they would continue using hostels as an accommodation option, and the extent to which they would recommend them to others, and offer positive online reviews, which is telling of a satisfactory experience and future success of a hostel.

Figure 1 – Proposed Variables Influencing Satisfaction with Hostel Stay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Quality</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Future Behavioral Intention</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and Beverage</td>
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<td>Ancillary Services</td>
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<td>Interior Design</td>
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<td>Cleanliness</td>
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Implications of the research

While the subject matter has been well explored in the context of the hotel industry, it is an important line of research inquiry in the modern day hostel market as it continues to grow
and capture market accommodation share. An understanding of those factors driving the satisfaction construct, revisit intention, and positive word of mouth is just as critical to the hostel operator as the modern day hotelier. Hostel operators have invested wisely in adding value to their product offering, and good design has become one of those differentiators for many. It is critical therefore, to understand the role of design in explaining and/or predicting the satisfaction and future behavioural intention constructs. At the very least the results should point to those variables deemed most important by hostel consumers when it comes to making judgements about their visitation experience, and the role of interior design elements in differentiating an otherwise similar functional and price oriented value proposition. Additionally, the results might prove useful to hostel operators, interior designers and architects alike, in defining the future design on hostel interiors.

References


Constructing a scale to assess mobile app quality: A case of hotel smartphone apps

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Introduction

A substantial amount of people have started using smartphones over the last decade. From 2013 to 2014 the number of smartphone users has grown by 406 million, reaching to a total of 1.82 billion users. Moreover, the Internet usage from handheld devices almost doubled (81%) itself within the same time (Stoyanov et al., 2015). Furthermore, on average, young people aging 18 - 25 are using their smartphones for 37 hours a month (Reid & Thomas, 2017). The growing mobile Internet usage is also supported by the high number of mobile app downloads. By the end of 2013, the number of the smartphone apps downloaded from Google Play has exceeded 80 billion. The same increasing trend was also observed in the Apple (iOS) apps. Towards the end of 2014, there were 1.2 million total available apps on iOS store and they have been downloaded approximately for 1.2 billion times (Cao & Lin, 2017).

The trend of smartphone penetration and increasing mobile app and Internet usage has made a significant impact on the way customers search and purchase travel related products (Smart Travel, n.d.). On average, a hotel smartphone app is downloaded 142,000 to 432,000 times and an OTA app is downloaded 12 million to 25 million times (Chen et. al., 2016; Freed, 2014). As an example, the Expedia app has been downloaded approximately 150 million times by the end of 2014 (Schaal & Team, 2014). According to a recent research done by Google (2016), an average smartphone owner has downloaded 2.3 travel-related apps. More importantly, 58% of those apps have been used at least once every month. In the year of 2014 it has been reported that 21% of the hotel reservations have been made using a handheld device (Mobile Travel Apps Increase in Popularity for Bookings, 2014). Moreover, it has been stated that 58% of the handheld device bookings have been made by using a smartphone app according to the 2014 Expedia / Egencia survey (Schaal & Team, 2014), making it one of the preferred online channel for many travelers. Consequently, ensuring quality of these smartphone apps is becoming significantly important for travel and tourism service providers.

Despite the growing trend of using smartphones for tourism related activities, the research focusing on this particular area is somewhat limited. It has been pointed out that there is a scarcity of academic studies on the usage of mobile devices in the tourism context (Chen...
et al., 2016). A review of 101 published articles on smartphones and other mobile devices within the 13 years between 2000 and 2013 was conducted by Kim and Law (2015). They stated that only 10 of the articles were addressing the tourist’s perceptions of the smartphones; which was most probably caused by the recency of the smartphone usage in the hospitality industry (Kim & Law, 2015). The expanding usage of the smartphone hotel apps and limited amount of resources call for further research.

There are many academic studies on measuring service quality and online service quality. Smartphone app quality was also researched both in a general scope and in an industry-specific manner. However, hotel smartphone app quality measurement has never been studied yet. The research gap in that area needs to be addressed considering that smartphone app usage in hospitality context is steadily increasing. Hence, this study intends to follow a detailed scale development procedure and propose a scale to assess the service quality of hotel smartphone apps. The finalized form of the scale will contribute to the existing service quality literature as an additional industry-specific quality assessment tool. Hospitality professionals may use the scale to enhance their existing smartphone apps or they can refer to the proposed quality measurement dimensions while developing a hotel smartphone app.

Literature Review
SERVQUAL & e-SERVQUAL

In service context, the difference or the alikeness of the end user’s expectations and the true result of the service is defined as the quality of that performance (Ali, Dey, & Filieri, 2015). Consumer’s perception is the main determinant in quality measurement as the same product or service can be regarded as high quality for a person with low level of expectations and vice-versa (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985). The first proper scale to assess service quality was named as SERVQUAL. It was proposed by Parasuraman et al. (1985) with 10 dimensions, which were reduced to 5 dimensions (tangibles, reliability, assurance, responsiveness, empathy) later. This scale took 2 aspects into consideration including (1) customers’ expectations, and (2) customers perceptions. SERVQUAL has been used in various contexts such as hotels, restaurants, banks, airlines, hospitals, etc. (Madar, 2014; Vijayvargy, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2015; Muhammad Butt & Cyril de Run, 2010). However, this generic nature of SERVQUAL has also been criticized by scholars, such as Marshall, and Shepherd (1999); calling for its modified and industry-specific versions. Along the same lines, Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Malhotra (2002) constructed the e-SERVQUAL scale as a quality evaluation tool to assess websites. E-SERVQUAL consisted of seven main categories which were: eEfficiency, reliability, fulfillment, privacy, responsiveness, compensation and contact, and has been tested in numerous different studies (Herington & Weaven, 2009; Zavareh et al., 2012).

Smartphone App Quality Measurement

There are numerous studies in the literature that have looked into the aspects related to smartphone app quality. However, these studies have been conducted in other service industries. For instance, Karlson (2017) conducted a study to compare the user’s satisfaction
with internet banking apps to healthcare and fitness apps, news apps and navigation apps. In another study, Powell et al., (2016) assessed the reliability of the health app rating measures. In addition, Stoyanov et al., (2015) proposed a mobile app rating scale. Despite these studies there are no studies or scales specific to hotels that can be used to assess the quality of smartphone hotels apps.

**Methodology**

A detailed review of the literature regarding website and smartphone app quality measurement was conducted. The English scholarly articles published between January 2000 and December 2016 were fetched from the databases including ProQuest, ScienceDirect and Web of Science. The keywords used for the article search were: “smartphone, hotel, website and app” together with “measurement, quality and evaluation”. The relevant smartphone app quality evaluation items were taken to be adapted into the quality measurement scale. The repeating or unrelated criteria of evaluation have been disregarded.

As a result of the literature review, 57 items were proposed as the quality measurement criteria. Later on, a team comprising of two hospitality professors and 6 experienced hotel smartphone app users was created to assess the items taken from the literature reviewed and see if some additional items can be included in the list of criteria. After their evaluation, nine additional items were proposed to be included in the list, increasing the total number of criteria to 66.

To proceed with the scale construction process, data from 500 respondents will be collected to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to define the dimensions of the scale. Using the factorial structure taken from the EFA, the final form of the questionnaire will be developed. The necessary final modifications will be made until all the dimensions and their underlying items of the scale are accepted by the team members. Following the EFA, a second set of data will be collected to perform Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to confirm the factorial structure of the quality measurement scale. Both sets of the respondents will be recruited online via Amazon’s MTurk.

**Findings and Conclusions**

This is a work in progress study. The findings will be included after the data collection and analysis. Conclusions will be drawn accordingly.

**References**


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Beyond accessibility: Exploring how people with disabilities are marketed in hospitality and tourism industries

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Introduction

Underrepresented populations including people of color, LGTBQ, and people with disabilities, are growing markets in hospitality and tourism and make a significant economic impact on the industry. However, many of these minority groups are not properly represented in tourism marketing materials that traditionally cater toward White, cisgender, heterosexual and able-bodied men that perpetuate a White male touristic gaze (Alderman, 2013). This study focuses on people with disabilities since this minority is a fast-growing tourism sector that also includes the ageing baby boomer generation. Further identifying the significance of this target, a recent podcast from Skift (2017), the travel resource center shared that:

Statistics are scarce, but according to a study commissioned in 2015 by the Open Doors Organization, adults with disabilities in the U.S. spend $17.3 billion a year on leisure and business travel. Over the two years before the study, 26 million adults with disabilities took 73 million trips.

Much of tourism marketing and advertising still needs to be more inclusive of this growing minority target demographic Thus, this paper explores how people with disabilities are represented, within tourism marketing materials including brochures, websites, and internal marketing (i.e. DMO / CVB, civic leaders, hoteliers and attractions) and provides foundational insights to answer the following research questions:

R1: In what ways are people with disabilities included in tourism and hospitality marketing materials?
R2: How can tourism and hospitality marketing materials be more inclusive for people with disabilities?

Background

The purpose of a tourism brochure is to make a consumer want to travel to a specific destination (Edelheim, 2006). Tourists also use brochures for a variety of reasons, ranging from finding activities to learning about the culture of their destination (Pritchard & Morgan, 2000). Often, the social role of brochures provides potential tourists the opportunity to escape their own everyday life and imagine their life as a tourist (Burton & Klemm, 2011). Furthermore, brochures are typically made up of images and text, however tourist consumption is primarily visual (Francesconi, 2011). Because of this, visual images are a dominant component of tourism marketing (Burton & Klemm, 2011) and can influence tourists to ultimately decide to travel to a destination.

The images projected in tourism brochures are how destinations wish to be seen by tourists, however these images can also imbue filters that alter perceptions of their destination (Francesconi, 2011). These images are not just about displaying products and attractions; the content and assets within brochures and other marketing materials also convey representations of social groups and societies (Pritchard & Morgan, 2000) and rely on racial representations and identifiable cultural norms among key targets to attract tourists to specific locations. However, these materials are often criticized for displaying images that reinforce stereotypes and exclude populations of difference (Buzinde, Santos & Smith, 2006).

Consequently, if multiple studies (Alderman, 2013; Burton & Klemm, 2011; Klemm, 2002) have found that marginalized populations are not well represented in travel brochures, how are tourism marketers planning to invite these fast-growing markets of tourists to their destinations? Whether or not the exclusion of minority populations is purposeful, it alienates marginalized populations and sends a message that these emerging travel and hospitality target groups are not welcome.

Working Project

In a southeastern United States public institution undergraduate critical sustainable tourism course, 32 students collected tourism and hospitality brochures to analyze various marginalized groups including people with disabilities. This project followed a presentation about “how people with disabilities are represented in marketing materials in the tourism industry” from a marketing professional (second author). His expertise on the subject and personal experiences influenced student views of inclusiveness and people with disabilities’ experiences surrounding hospitality and tourism marketing, and ultimately this group’s overall travel experience.
The methodology used in this study was a content analysis of visual images in travel brochures. Content analysis is a well-known and frequently used form of analysis for text and images (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). Content analysis of photographs can provide a lot of underlying information about the projected images of tourist destinations (Jenkins, 1999). Many studies (Dilley, 1986; Frochot & Kreziak, 2008; Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2006) have used content analysis to investigate images used in tourism brochures and websites. Therefore, the use of content analysis was validated because of its effectiveness and efficient applications when used to analyze visual imagery in tourism brochures and websites.

The students analyzed 5 brochures each (chosen by each student) totaling 160 brochures. Various elements were analyzed including how many images of people with disabilities were included in the brochures in addition to any language around accessibility. Additionally, the students wrote a “critical reflection” section where they personally reflected on the project and how/if it changed their awareness around how travel and hospitality industries are marketing. Lastly, two undergraduate students and one PhD student are currently working on analyzing DMO/CVBs, civic leaders, hoteliers and attraction websites to explore the language and visual images around the inclusion of people with disabilities in marketing material.

Discussion

Out of the 160 travel brochures, only one brochure contained an image of a person in a wheelchair. Although some brochures mention ADA accessibility, those did not include an image of a person with a disability participating in any touristic activity. This is incredibly problematic, since there is little to no representation of people with disabilities. As part of the reflection section from the students, one PhD student shared how this assignment changed his understanding of tourism marketing materials:

Coming from a geographical perspective, looking at the brochures really illuminated how biased promotional material creates a space that is unwelcoming towards the disabled. Pictures really showed how one could be *othered* through activities that are not accessible. And the wording of the brochures; that's what really got me. As government entities, you would think they would be forced to say somewhere in their promotional material that they are ADA compliant … While I'm coming at it here from the government perspective, I believe the spatiality of these promotional materials can be transferred to the private sector as well.

Whereas one of the undergraduate hospitality, restaurant, and tourism student explained:

… traveling with a disability was something I never gave much thought to. As an able-body person, I have been naïve … During my brochure analysis, I requested brochures from 5 different states in order to explore outside my own backyard. When I got to the question regarding how many people with disabilities were represented, I had to put down zero for each one. The lack of inclusion was astonishing. I saw able body folks at dinner in these pictures, at basketball games, shopping, but where was those with disabilities? We
are forgetting about a whole group of people. People who have money, want to travel, but are often forgotten about. What was even worse is only one out of the five brochures showed what events in their area were ADA accessible and if they were held outside. This is something that should come natural to those who put on these events. The statement ‘All are welcome’ becomes a contradiction, without these statements of inclusion.

Thanks to the students’ reflections and content analysis, inclusive and accessible travel are much more than physical changes to a service, but also attitudes and approaches for people of all abilities to enjoy an experience independently and with equity and dignity. Understanding how tourism and hospitality industries currently represent, or don’t represent people with disabilities, will hopefully bring an awareness to the dire need for a paradigm shift. Hopefully, sharing this project will create a dialogue that will influence change within the industry.

Within this presentation the professor of the course (first author), the tourism marketing expert (second author), and three students (co-authors), will share the content analysis portion, personal reflections, and tangible suggestions on how to advocate for change to include people with disabilities in tourism and hospitality marketing material including:

1. **Starting Conversations** with organizations, consultants and individuals to become more connected with people with disabilities; 2. **Welcome Recruitment** of people with disabilities into your CVB/DMO or agency workforce; 3. **Be Inclusive** of people with disabilities in market research; 4. **Be Open** to including people with disabilities in creative; 5. **Recognize** that people with disabilities are part of your visitor mix—enjoying your events, attractions, dining and other destination elements and being brand loyal.

Presenting at this conference will hopefully influence future hospitality/tourism professionals entering the workforce to advocate for inclusiveness and change, in addition to helping faculty/industry professionals to be aware of issues around inclusiveness and accessibility.

**References**


